

https://dspace.org/

Social justice framework for exploring the role of leaders in redressing school safety and orderliness: a case study of multiple deprived schools in Johannesburg

Adhola, Caroline Akoth

2020
https://hdl.handle.net/10539/30568

Downloaded from a DSpace repository. https://dspace.org/

A Social Justice Framework for Exploring the Role of Leaders in Redressing School Safety and Orderliness: A Case Study of Multiple Deprived schools in Johannesburg

Caroline Akoth Adhola

0606502T

Supervisor

Prof. Felix Maringe

A thesis submitted to the Faculty of Humanities, University of the Witwatersrand Johannesburg, in fulfilment of the requirements for the Degree of Doctor of Philosophy in Education Leadership and Policy

2020

COPYRIGHT

The copyright of this thesis vests in the University of the Witwatersrand, Johannesburg, South Africa, in accordance with the University's Intellectual property Policy. No portion of the text may be reproduced, stored in a retrieval system, or transmitted in any form or by any means, including analogue and media, without prior written permission from the university. Extracts or quotations from this thesis may, however, be made in terms of Section 12 and 13 of the South African Copyright Act No. 98 of 1978 as amended, for non-commercial or educational purposes. Full acknowledgment must be made to the author and the university. An electronic version of this thesis is available on the Library webpage (www.wits.ac.za/library), under 'Research Resources'. For permission request, please contact the University legal office or the University Research Office (www.wits.ac.za).

ABSTRACT

Injustices of school safety and orderliness have received significant attention in education, because of their greater impact on the quality of teaching and learning than any other correlate of school improvement. Elsewhere in Africa and other parts of the world, various studies have emphasised the relationship between multiple deprivation and safety and how the two fuse to affect learner performance. However, in South Africa, school safety as a basis of school improvement is an area that is still under-researched. Studies conducted on safety have mainly focused on the impact of school violence with little attention paid to the manner in which school leaders redress the injustices of safety and orderliness. Lack of research in this area is what motivated this study, which used Nancy Fraser's theory of social justice to investigate how leaders in multiple deprived schools perceive and redressed injustices of safety and orderliness through redistribution, recognition and representation as a basis for school improvement. The study may seem broad, but I felt that safety within deprivation is a social justice issue that needs to be addressed if the performance of South African learners in international standardised tests are to be on par with the performance from countries at similar level of development. The study utilised an interpretive approach to give me a better understanding of the leaders' perception of the injustices the schools experienced and the strategies they used to alleviate them. In addition, the study employed a single case study, where a total of three principals, six educators and nineteen learner representatives were purposively sampled for the study. Multiple methods, such as individual interviews, focus group interviews, observation and photographs, were utilised to generate rich data, which was analysed using thematic analysis.

The findings showed that the leaders had a common understanding of what depressed safety and orderliness in their schools. The study established that the leaders redressed the injustices by enhancing behavioural, physical and psychological/emotional safety. However, the schools still experienced some challenges with policies and negative school climate which are discussed in detail Chapter Six.

The major contribution of the study was to develop models that can be used to enhance school safety and orderliness. I therefore developed two models of school safety. The first-generation school safety model demonstrated how leaders are currently redressing safety and orderly and the challenges they face. The second-generation model of school safety and orderliness

strategies showed how school safety strategies can be improved to enhance safety in schools. It is hoped that the model will be useful in helping school leaders, policymakers and other partners interested in promoting learners right to safety and orderliness.

Key words: Human rights, leadership, multiple deprivation, orderliness, school improvement, school safety, social justice

DECLARATION

I, Caroline Akoth Adhola (student number: 0606502T), solemnly declare that the research report hereby submitted for the PhD degree to the University of The Witwatersrand, apart from the help recognised, is my own work through the professional guidance of my supervisor. It has not been submitted before for any other academic qualification at any university or institution of higher learning. All the resources utilised or quoted have been indicated and acknowledged by a complete reference, according to the required APA referencing conventions.



Caroline A. Adhola September 2020

DEDICATION

This thesis is dedicated to my parents: Anastasia Adhola and the late James Aggrey Adhola.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

Truly my soul finds rest in the Lord, my salvation come from him.

Psalms 62: 1

While I have declared that this is my unaided work to abide with academic rule, this seriously downplays how individuals and different organisations have helped me put this work together. As one scholar stated, 'to deny the social component of any knowledge contribution is to deny our common humanity – we exist and, indeed, we know because of other people'. It is impossible to acknowledge by name all those to whom thanks are due, some people deserve a special acknowledgement for their uncompromising devotion to the achievement of this degree.

I would like to thank my supervisor Prof. Felix Maringe. A student could never ask for a better supervisor. I deeply appreciate his unwavering encouragement, guidance and time spent in critically evaluating this research with an unparalleled sense of commitment. He moulded my thinking and enlightened me intellectually through his constructive criticism and numerous helpful comments and recommendations. In addition, I would like to thank him for organising and financing writing retreats and international conferences which gave me the opportunity to share my work with other scholars. His academic support will always be appreciated. I am honoured to have worked with him.

Special appreciation goes to the former head of post graduate studies Prof. Audrey Msimanga who went beyond her duties to guide me and pray with me. I deeply appreciate their patience and the time they spent to listen to me, the guidance and encouragement during my lowest moments. My God bless them. Special thanks are expressed to Faculty of Humanities and Wits School of Education for the financial support that saw me through my studies, research workshops and conferences.

Expressions of appreciation are extended to all the participants who willingly participated in this research. Special thanks are addressed to principals, educators and learner representatives in the three schools. The data generated from them gave value and success to this research. I wish to express sincere gratitude to my parents and siblings Jane, Eunice, Bridget, Mildred,

Emily, Rose, Winnie, Kendall and Kevin for their encouragement and support. My parents taught me the value of hard work, determination and the fear of God which were very important in this journey.

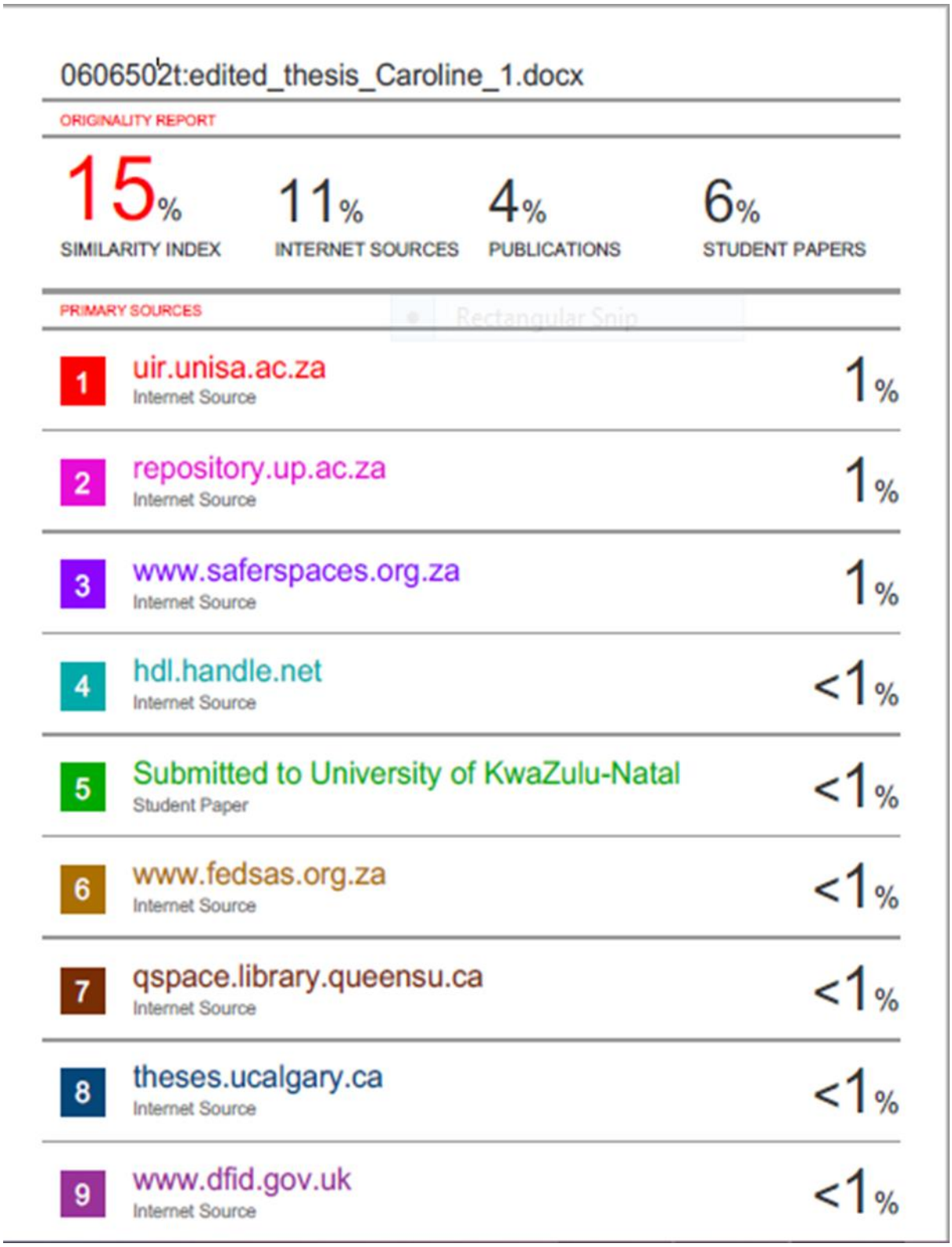
Special thanks are extended to my friends and colleagues who continuously encouraged, guided and supported me through the years. These include Dr. Anne Ajulu, Dr. Roselyn Koech, Prof. Apamo, Dr. Gloria Samuel, Dr. Gloria Erima, the late Dr. Jeremy Gumbo, Prof. Samuel Oyoo, Dr. Innocent Sibomana, Ladi Kevin, Naomi Thomas, Halima, Doris Banda, Christine, Julius, Solomon, Dr. Miheso, Dr. Stanford Mahati, Gloria Ooko, Prof. Gilbert Khadiagala and Dr. Annah Koboyatau. May God bless you. Above all, I thank almighty God for seeing me through my studies, it is by his might that I am here today.

ABBREVIATIONS

ACRWC	African Charter on the Rights and Welfare of the Child
ANC	African National Congress Party
C2005	Curriculum 2005
CRC	Convention on the Rights of the Child
DBE	Department of Basis Education
DL	Distributed leadership
EFA	Education for All
ELT	Extended learning time
HoD	Head of Department
ICCPR	International Covenant on Civil and Political Rights
ICESCR	International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights
LER	Learner-educator ratio
LiEP	Language in Education Policy
MoEST	Ministry of Education Science and Technology
NDH	Norwegian Directorate of Health
NEP	National Education Policy Act
NNSSF	National Norms and Standard for School Funding Policy
NP	National Party
OBE	Outcomes based education
PES	Provincial equitable share
RCL	Representative Council of Learner
RNCS	Revised National Curriculum Statement
SAQA	South African Qualification Authority
SASA	South African Schools Act
SGB	School Governing Body
SMT	School Management Team
SAHR	South Africa Human Rights Commission
UDHR	Universal Declaration of Human Rights

UNESCO	United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organisation
UNUDHR	United Nations Universal Declaration of Human Rights
WHO	World Health Organisation
WSoE	Wits School of Education

Turnitin report



0606502t:edited_thesis_Caroline_1.docx

ORIGINALITY REPORT

15%	11%	4%	6%
SIMILARITY INDEX	INTERNET SOURCES	PUBLICATIONS	STUDENT PAPERS

PRIMARY SOURCES

1	uir.unisa.ac.za Internet Source	1%
2	repository.up.ac.za Internet Source	1%
3	www.saferspaces.org.za Internet Source	1%
4	hdl.handle.net Internet Source	<1%
5	Submitted to University of KwaZulu-Natal Student Paper	<1%
6	www.fedsas.org.za Internet Source	<1%
7	qspace.library.queensu.ca Internet Source	<1%
8	theses.ucalgary.ca Internet Source	<1%
9	www.dfid.gov.uk Internet Source	<1%

TABLE OF CONTENTS

Caroline Akoth Adhola 1

COPYRIGHT ..... **i**

ABSTRACT ..... **ii**

DECLARATION ..... **iv**

DEDICATION ..... **v**

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS ..... **vi**

ABBREVIATIONS ..... **viii**

Turnitin report ..... **x**

TABLE OF CONTENTS ..... **xi**

LIST OF FIGURES ..... **xvii**

LIST OF TABLES ..... **xix**

1. CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION AND BACKGROUND TO THE STUDY 1

1.1 Introduction 1

1.2 The study in context 1

1.2.1 Political environment 2

1.2.2 Environmental factors 3

1.2.3 Social environment 5

1.2.4 Legislative environment 9

1.2.5 Economic environment 11

1.3 Conceptual overview and operational terms 14

1.4 Location of the study 16

1.5 Overview of history of South African education 18

1.5.1 Ideology of education 18

1.5.2 Bantu Education 19

1.5.3 Schools in crisis 20

1.6 Background to the study 21

1.7 Statement of the problem 29

1.8 Objectives of the study 31

1.9 Research questions 31

1.10 Justification for the study 33

1.11 Theory 34

1.12 Conceptual framework 34

1.13 Methodological stance for the study 34

1.14 Research ethics 35

1. 15 Delimitation of the study 36

1.16 Preliminary literature review 36
1.17 Intended contribution 37
1.18 Preview of research report 37
1.19 Conclusion of chapter 39
2. **CHAPTER 2: SCHOOL SAFETY AND MULTIPLE DEPRIVATION 42**
2.1 Introduction 42
2.2 Conceptualising safe and orderly schools 42
2.3 History of school violence in South African schools 44
2.4 Violence in South African schools 45
2.5 Impact of violence in schools 47
2.6 Empirical research on how school leaders redress injustices of safety 51
2.6.1 Studies conducted in developed countries 51
2.6.1.1 Studies conducted in United States of America 51
2.6.1.2 Studies conducted in Canada 54
2.6.2 Studies conducted in Africa 56
2.6.2.1 Studies conducted in Kenya 56
2.6.2.2 Study conducted in Zimbabwe 57
2.6.2.3 Studies conducted in South Africa 58
2.7 Redistributive and recognition strategies for alleviating safety and orderliness 59
2.7.1. The National School Safety Framework 60
2.7.2 Safety in Education Partnership Protocol 61
2.7.3 School partnership with Non-Governmental Organisations (NGOs) 62
2.7.4 Regulations for Safety Measures at Public Schools 63
2.7.5 National Anti-Gangsterism Strategy 63
2.7.6 School Based Crime Prevention Programme 63
2.7.7 School safety guidelines 64
2.7.8 Bullying interventions in schools 65
2.7.9 Addressing sexual violence against girls in South African Schools 65
2.7.10 After School Game Changer programme 66
2.8 Understanding multiple deprivation 66
2.8.1 Income and material deprivation domain 68
2.8.2 Employment deprivation domain 68
2.8.3 Education deprivation domain 69
2.8.4 Living environment deprivation 69
2.8.5 Adequate care derivation domain 69
2.9 Effects of multiple deprivation as a problem of maldistribution and misrecognition 70

2.10 Conclusion 75
3. **CHAPTER 3: SCHOOL IMPROVEMENT AND LEADERSHIP 77**
3.1 Introduction 77
3.2 School effective movement 77
3.3 Edmond's first generation of effective schools 78
3.4 Edmond's second-generation correlates of school improvement 79
3.5 Sammons, Hillman and Mortimore's correlates of effective schools 80
3.6 Shannon and Bylsma correlates of effective schools 80
3.7 Lezotte's first generation correlates of effective Schools 80
3.8 Lezotte and Snyder's correlates of effective schools 82
3.8.1 High expectation for success 82
3.8.2 Clear and focused mission 82
3.8.3 Opportunity to learn and time on task 83
3.8.4 Instructional leadership 84
3.8.5 Safe and orderly environment 84
3.8.6 Frequent monitoring of student progress 86
3.8.7 Positive home-school relations 87
3.9 Conceptualising school leadership 88
3.10 The role of school leaders (principals) in school improvement 89
3.11 Theories of leadership 91
3.11.1 Instructional leadership 91
3.11.1.1 Defining the school mission 93
3.11.1.2Managing instructional programme 93
3.11.1.3 Promoting a Positive Learning Environment 94
3.11.2 Distributed Leadership 95
3.11.2.1 Elements of distributed leadership 96
3.11.3 Transformational Leadership 97
3.11.3.1 Bass and Avolio's Model 98
3.11.3.2 Leithwood's Model 99
3.12 Conclusion 100
CHAPTER 4: THEORY: SOCIAL JUSTICE THEORY USING HUMAN RIGHTS APPROACH 102
4.1 Introduction 102
4.2 The United Nations Universal Declaration of Human Rights (UNUDHR, 1948) 102
4.3 International Conventional on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights (ICESCR) 103
4.4 Convention on the Rights of the Child (1989) 105

4.5 The constitution of South Africa 108
4.5.1 Bill of Rights 110
4.6 Policy documents on children's right to education 112
4.6.1 National Education Policy Act (1996) 112
4.6.2 South African School Act (1996) 113
4.7 The 4A legal framework 116
4.8 Theory 117
4.9 Nancy Fraser's social justice theory 118
4.9.1 Fraser's dimensions of social justice Redistribution 119
4.9.2 Injustices of maldistribution in schools 119
4.9.3 Human rights approach and redistributive justice 120
4.9.4 Misrecognition 121
4.9.5 Misrecognition in schools 122
4.9.5 1Human rights approach to recognition in schools 123
4.9.6 Misrepresentation 123
4.9.7 Misrepresentation in schools 125
4.9.8 Human rights approach to representation in schools 125
4.10 Conclusion 127
5. **CHAPTER 5: METHODOLOGY 129**
5.1 Introduction 129
5.2 Research paradigm 129
5.2.1 The Interpretivist Paradigm 131
5.2.2 Philosophical assumption for the study 133
5.3 Qualitative research 133
5.4 Case study 134
5.5 Site selection 135
5.6 Sample size 136
5.7 Description of the schools 136
5.8 Research participants 138
5.8.1 Learner representatives 138
5.8.2 Educators 139
5.8.3 Principals 141
5.9 Researcher adaptation 141
5.10 Data generation methods 142
5.10.1.1 Interview procedure 142
5.10.2 In-depth interview 142

5.10.3 Focus group interview 143
5.10.4 Observation 143
5.11 Data analysis 144
5.11.2 Thematic analysis 144
5.12 Pilot study 146
5.13 Assessing and demonstrating quality and rigour in the research design 147
5.13.1 Trustworthiness 147
5.13.2 Credibility 147
5.13.3 Transferability 148
5.13.4 Dependability 148
5.13.5 Confirmability 149
5.14 Ethical requirements 149
5.14.1 Informed consent and permission 149
5.14.2 Privacy, confidentiality and anonymity 150
5.15 Limitations of the study 150
5.16 Conclusion 151
6. CHAPTER 6: LEADERS' PERCEPTION OF INJUSTICES OF SCHOOL SAFETY, ORDERLINESS, AND MULTIPLE DEPRIVATION 152
6.1 Introduction 152
6.2 Leaders' social construction of a safe school 152
6.3 Factors depressing safety and orderliness 154
6.3.1 Policies 154
6.3.2 Negligence 156
6.3.2.1 Educator negligence 157
6.3.2.2 Parental negligence 159
6.3.3 Negative school climate 160
6.3.3.1 Lack of resources 161
6.3.3.2 Aggression 165
6.4 Ways in which multiple deprivation as a result of maldistribution affect the schools 167
6.4.1 Poor academic performance 167
6.4.1.1Cognitive delay / learning difficulty 168
6.4.1.2 Ill-health 168
6.4.1.3 Lack of teaching and learning materials 169
6.4.2 Moral decay 170
6.4.2.1 Sexual immorality 170
6.4.2.2 Drug and substance abuse 174
6.4.2.3 Theft/robbery 174

6.5 Conclusion 175
7. **CHAPTER 7: REDISTRIBUTION, RECOGNITION AND REPRESENTATION APPROACHES TO PHYSICAL, BEHAVIOURAL AND PSYCHOLOGICAL SAFETY 177**
7.1 Introduction 177
7.2 Redistribution and recognition justice in enhancing physical safety 177
7.2.1 Physical safety 177
7.2.1.1 Provision of Perimeter fence 178
7.2.1.2 Patrollers 179
7.2.1.3 Provision of Security grills 180
7.2.3 Maintenance 181
7.2.2 Physiological need/safety 183
7.2.2.1 Provision of food as physiological safety measure (Nutrition programme) 183
7.2.2 Provision of clothing as a physiological safety measure (uniform) 185
7.3 Recognition and representation approaches to behavioural safety 186
7.3.1 Community partnership 186
7.3.2 Monitoring/ supervision of learners 188
7.3.3 Learner code of conduct 191
7.3.4 Classroom management 192
7.3.5 After school programmes/activities 196
7.4 Recognition, redistribution and representation justice in enhancing Emotional/ psychological 197
7.4.1 Counselling 197
7.4.2 Peer support 198
7.5 Conclusion 200
8. **CHAPTER 8: CONCLUSION, SUMMARY AND RECOMMENDATIONS 201**
8.1 Introduction 201
8.2 Summary of the thesis 201
8.3 Summary of key findings in relation to research questions 206
8.3.1 Sub-question one: How do leaders perceive safety and orderliness as problems of social justice? 206
8.3.1.1 Policies 207
8.3.1.2 Negative school climate 207
8.3.1.4 Negligence 208
8.3.2 Sub-question two: In what ways does multiple deprivation, resulting from maldistribution, misrecognition and misrepresentation, affect the schools? 209
8.3.2.1 Poor performance 210
8.3.2.2 Moral decay 211

8.3.3 Sub-question three: What strategies do the leaders use to redress the injustices they face to make their schools safe and orderly? 211
8.3.3.1 Physical safety measures 212
8.3.3.2 Recognition strategies in enhancing behavioural safety 213
8.3.3.3 Emotional/psychological safety 214
8.4 Contribution 215
8.4.1Theoretical contribution 215
8.5 Implication of the research 219
8.5.1 Implications for policy 220
8.5.2 Implication to practice 222
8.6 Suggestion for future research 222
8.7 Reflection on the PhD 223
8.7.1 Reflection on the problem 223
8.7.2 Reflection on literature 223
8.7.4 Reflection on findings 225
8.7.5 Reflection on contribution 226
BIBLIOGRAPHY **227**
Inter-agency Network for Education in Emergencies (INEE) (2011). Education for Peacebuilding. Retrieved June 8, 2011, from https://inee.org/ **247**
APPENDICES **271**

LIST OF FIGURES

Figure 1-1: Map of South Africa (Source: Google maps 2018) 2
Figure 1-2: Summary of impacts of highway on schools 5
Figure 1-3: Provincial education budget 2017/18 (Source: Estimate of provincial revenue and expenditure (2017) 12
Figure 1-4: LERs by fees status and province, 2016 (Source: DBE list of public schools 2016) 13
Figure 1-5: Soweto Township in Johannesburg (Source: Google maps 2019) 16
Figure 1-6: Occupation of most residence of Soweto (Source: Johannesburg Poverty and Livelihood Studies (2008) 17
Figure 1-7: TIMSS 2015 Maths and Science Achievement for Grade *9 (Source: Reddy et al., 2015, pg. 2)* 22
Figure 1-8: South Africa performance in Maths and Science TIMSS (2002-2005) (source: Spaull et al., 2019) 22

Figure 1-9: Member countries participating in 2000 and 2007 ACMEQ *(Source: DBE, 2008)*.....23
Figure 1-10: Sexual offences reported between 2014-2019 (source: police records) 24
Figure 1-11: Assault with intent to inflict grievous bodily harm (source: police records).....25
Figure 1-12: Robbery with aggravated circumstances (source: police records).....25
Figure 1-13: Summary of other crime reported in Diepkloof Police Station *(Source: Diepkloof Police Station)* 26
Figure 1-14: School violence per province (%) (source: Burton & Leoschut, 2013).....27
Figure 1-15: Percentage of violence experienced by learners per province *(Source: Burton & Leoschut, 2013)*.....29
Figure 2-1: Domains and indicators of deprivation *(Source: Maringe and Moletsane, 2015)*.....68
Figure 2-2: Family stress model (Source: Ahmend, 2005, p.2).....74
Figure 3-1: Maslow's Hierarchy of needs (Source: Maslow 1994) 118
Figure 3-2: summary of dimensions of social justice *(Source: own)* 127
Figure 4-1: First- and second-generation characteristic of safe and orderly schools (Source: own) .....**Error! Bookmark not defined.**
Figure 4-2: PIRMS framework (Source: Hallinger 1983; Hallinger & Murphy, 1985, p. 221).....**Error! Bookmark not defined.**
Figure 4-3: Transformational leadership as identified by Brass& Avolio (Source: Bass and Avolio, 1994).....**Error! Bookmark not defined.**
Figure 4-4: Leithwood's Transformational Model (Source: Leithwood et al., 1998).....**Error! Bookmark not defined.**
Figure 5-1: major paradigms identified by Guba (Source: own).....130
Figure 5-2: Thematic analysis (Source: Adopted from Braun and Clarke, 2006).....145
Figure 6-1: Collapsed wall of a classroom 155
Figure 6-2: Unkempt ground 158
Figure 7-1: School fence.....178
Figure 7-2: windows secured with metal grill 180
Figure 7-3: Well-manicured compound.....181
Figure 7-4: Fire extinguishers in the school kitchen 183
Figure 7-5: Learners serving lunch in school 184

Figure 7-6: Educators monitoring learners as they arrive in school 189
Figure 8-1: First-generation school safety strategies (source: own) 217
Figure 8-2: Second generation model of school safety and orderliness strategies *(Source: own)* 219
Figure 8-3: Conceptual framework 224

LIST OF TABLES

Table 5-1: Main thinkers of interpretivism and their philosophies 131
Table 5-2: Ontological, epistemological and axiological assumptions of interpretivism 132
Table 5-3: National School Certificate results 2013-2016 136
Table 5-4: population of learners and educators in schools A, Band E 136
Table 5-5: Demographic information of learner representatives 139
Table 5-6: Demographic information of educators 140
Table 5-7: Demographic information of the principals 141

1. CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION AND BACKGROUND TO THE STUDY

1.1 Introduction

This study enriches the debate on the theorisation of school improvement by offering some practical insights into how school leaders in multiple deprived areas can redress the injustices of safety and orderliness in their schools as a way of improving learner performance. The study uses one of Lezotte and Snyder (2011) correlates of school improvement (safety and orderliness) as a framework. To achieve this goal, this chapter sets out to discuss the nature of the problem. This is done by first discussing the country, South Africa, and then providing an elaborate discussion on the background of South African education.

This is followed by a discussion of the injustices of safety challenges that the community and the schools face as the root cause of dysfunctionality in education with a need for school improvement. The chapter also gives an overview of theory, methodology, conceptual framework, rationale and significance of the study, as well as the empirical overview and ends with a preview of the rest of the chapters. The next section discusses the context of the study.

1.2 The study in context

Before discussing the background of the study, I wish to give an introduction to the country, South Africa, focusing on the political, economic., legal, environmental and social environments of South Africa.

South Africa

The study was conducted in South Africa, which is located on the southern tip of the African continent. It borders Namibia, Botswana, Zimbabwe and Mozambique. It encompasses the independent kingdoms of Lesotho and Swaziland, currently known as eSwatini, and is also boarded by the Atlantic Ocean on the west and the Indian Ocean on the east. Figure 1.1 shows the location of South Africa.



Figure 1-1: Map of South Africa ***(Source: Google maps 2018)***

The next section discusses the political environment of the South Africa.

1.2.1 Political environment

The political environment of South Africa is best understood by addressing the education system (curriculum) and the school governance. This is reflected in both the apartheid and post-apartheid regimes. The social injustices of the apartheid government were entrenched in the school curriculum. This led to major curriculum reforms when the African National Congress Party (ANC) came to power in 1994 (Jansen, 1997, p.9). The next section discusses curriculum reform in South Africa.

Curriculum reform

The apartheid government grossly violated human rights therefore, the new constitution necessitated the introduction of an education system that is based on the foundation of democracy, non-radicalism, non-sexism and justice (RSA, 1996c). The two main reasons for curriculum reform were that, firstly, the previous education system fell short of international standards, particularly in Mathematics and Science. Secondly, the new curriculum was to redress the injustices, create a South Africa that is a prosperous, truly united and democratic country (Tyack, Kirst & Hansot, 1980, p. 146). For this reason, Curriculum 2005 (C2005), also known as outcomes-based education (OBE), was introduced. The South African Qualification Authority (SAQA), together with other stakeholders, provided a framework for OBE. The outcomes had to meet the needs of the country and to direct teaching and learning in all grades

and in all subjects. It involved changing from passive rote learning to creative learning and problem solving through active participation in the learning process (Jacobs, Vakalisa & Gawe, 2011, p.50). This is echoed by Valero and Skovsmose (2002, p.5), who state that there has been radical education reform in South Africa. This is reflected in curriculum change from Curriculum 2005 (C2005) of 1997, to the Revised National Curriculum Statement (RNCS) of 2007, to the current Curriculum and Assessment Policy Statements (CAPS), that was introduced in 2012.

1.2.2 Environmental factors

For effective learning and teaching to take place, schools must have a safe environment for learners**.** Environmental factors that mainly affect the safety of learners in South African schools are green space and waste disposal. The section below discusses green space:

Green space

Physical activity is healthy for children. Research suggests that children ought to be involved in moderate to intense physical activity at least one hour a day. In addition, they should engage in highly intensive activities at least three times a week to boost muscle and bone strength (NDH, 2014). According to the WHO (2004, p.9) Global Strategy on Diet, Physical Activity and Health, "schools influence the lives of most children in all the countries. They should protect their health by providing health information, improving health literacy and promoting health diets and other healthy behaviours." They further state that this can be achieved if schools have the correct facilities for promoting physical activities and teach quality education to learners. Physical activity can be promoted if there is adequate green space.

In addition, there is a strong connection between green space and physical activity, as studies suggest that green space contributes to keeping learners physically active (Dyment & Bell, 2008, 62). Green space is defined as "landscape covered with grass, trees, rocks and other types of natural vegetation" (United States Environmental Protection Agency, 2014, p. 31). Schools should therefore have grounds within the school for learners to utilise.

Research shows that, in addition to the advantages of physical activity for learners (such as strong muscle development and cardiovascular system), it also has psychological and

emotional benefits like improved self-esteem and self-confidence. In addition, symptoms of depression and anxiety can also be controlled if learners engage in physical activities (WHO, 2004). Reduction of green space in schools therefore compromises learner safety, health, learning and well-being.

Despite this, most South African public schools, especially those located in multiple deprived areas, do not have enough green space for learners. Studies conducted by Netshitahame and Vollenhoven (2002, p.12) indicate that schools situated in multiple deprived areas do not have safe grounds, nor organised sports field. According to them, 50% of the school do not have play areas. This forces learners to play outside the field where there are tall grass, rocks, litter, openings and snakes. The other 50% of public schools use community grounds, which are equally not well maintained.

This is supported by the Institute of Race Relations (IRR, 2018) report, which states that schools in multiple deprived areas have almost no sports facilities (green space), whereas some of the suburban schools (serving mainly white) have swimming pools, various kinds of sports fields, stands for spectators and the like. Playgrounds in deprived areas seem to double as rudimentary sports fields, therefore learners could not play freely. Thus, lack of enough green space could be attributed to some of the accidents and violent acts experienced in most South African schools. The location of the school can also affect learners, or schooling in general. Figure 1.2 indicates how proximity to the highway impacts on learning.

Proximity to highway

The location of the school can affect the school tremendously. Most schools in South Africa are located along the highway, or close to main roads. Schools located close to highways are affected by various pollutants and safety issues associated with the highway. This affects learner performance. Below is a summary of such effects.

Figure 1-2: Summary of impacts of highway on schools

Impact	Effect	Factors influencing sensitivity
Noise	Speech interference Hearing interference Aggressive behaviour	Highway configuration School site plan Climate Spatial relation between school/source of noise
Pedestrian safety	Accident Anxiety Parent/teacher community organisation	Age of learners Special relation between school and highway Traffic type/Speed and volume
Air pollution	Physical discomfort: Headache, nausea, sore throat Limited outdoor play Respiratory diseases	Pollution levels Proximity and wind patterns Building ventilation Type of learners
Access	Change in school usage Length of pedestrian distance to school Decreased safety	Type of school Availability of alternative transport mode
Change in service area	School closing Change in school usage Decrease in attendance	Type of school Type of financial support
Visual distraction	Learner inattentiveness	Type of school Building design

Source: adapted from Wells, Shapiro and Felsburg (2000)

1.2.3 Social environment

Social issues that mainly influence learning are language policy and parental involvement. Various studies have indicated that lack of parental involvement in schools contributes to discipline problems, which compromise learner safety (Van Wyk and Lemmer, 2009 p. 14-15; Jansen, 2009, p.115; McDermott, 2008, p.59). The social environment discussed in this section includes parental involvement and language policy, because it has been observed that language is one of the barriers to parental involvement is schools. The next section looks at language policy used in South African schools.

Language policy

The South African language policy and the language policy in education are the same. The

present-day language policy in South Africa has been taken from the South African Constitution of 1996 (see DBE 2013 on language policy). This was a result of a trade-off between the African National Congress Party (ANC) and the National Party (NP), in the early 1990s. This is reflected in the Language in Education Policy (LiEP). In Constitutional negotiations, the ANC was in favour of announcing English as the nation's only official language. In their view, this would advance national solidarity, neutralise the language parochialism that politically sanctioned racial segregation advanced and downgrade Afrikaans. Notwithstanding, the NP battled to keep up the official status of Afrikaans. As indicated by Heugh (2002, p. 460), "linguistic provision in the 1993 Interim Constitution, later enshrined if to some degree watered down in the 1996 Constitution, came about because of a very late negotiation between the NP and the ANC". Subsequently, all languages that had official status at some level or other were kept up and South Africa presently has eleven official languages, a figure which incorporates nine African (Bantu) languages: Zulu, Xhosa, Venda, Tswana, Tsonga, Swati, Sotho, Pedi (Northern-Sotho), Ndebele; alongside English and Afrikaans (see McKinney, 2017; Heugh, K. 2014; Heugh, 2002; Lafon, 2006).

As indicated by Woolman and Fleisch (2009, p. 420), the language policy in education in general was informed by different factors, among which were: a) The total dismissal of any stipulation suggestive of Bantu Education by the ANC; b) A goal for the opportunity of decisions in all areas inside the new culture of rights; c) A dread of fuelling language-based clashes in an effectively unpredictable circumstance; d) The understood acknowledgment of the general predominance of English; e) The acknowledgment of the intricacy of the linguistic scene. These concerns most likely clarify the non-appearance of any language imposition and the huge level of independence left to singular schools, with respect of the language of learning and teaching and subject choice.

Article 29 of the South African Constitution (RSA,1996b) stipulates that "everyone has the right to receive education in the official language of their choice" and that the state has an obligation to guarantee the satisfaction of this right. The Schools Act (RSA,1996a), together with the Norms and Standards for Language Policy in Public Schools (1997), further indicates that any of the 11official languages can be the language of learning and teaching in primary and secondary schools. They recommend initial literacy and numeracy in mother-tongue. In addition, mother-tongue to be maintained all through the curriculum, and "additive

bilingualism" later, just as multilingualism and "communication across barriers of colour, language and religion" (DoE, 2007). At the National Senior Certificate Examination, the language necessities are for every student to take tests in any of the two official languages one being the student's medium of instruction, that must be offered from the outset language level; the other, any other of the official languages.

While all languages are considered equal, a few languages are equal and have more noticeable quality than others, in particular English and Afrikaans. Regardless of the principles stipulated in the Constitution, support for the utilisation of African languages, as languages of learning and teaching, stays restricted to the initial three years. In grade 12, learners need to take tests in English or Afrikaans as their first language, as they are the main medium of instruction in schools.

School Governing Bodies in each school agree on the school's language policy (RSA, 1996a). This was viewed as a concession to the National Party, as it took into consideration Afrikaans to be used in the curriculum as the language for learning and teaching, should parents in a given school so wish. By law, there might be single, double or parallel medium schools. Notwithstanding, single medium schools dominate. (DoE, 1996). It is worth discussing parental involvement in school in detail as parents play a role in education.

Parental involvement

Various definitions of parental involvement exist in the literature and there has been a lot of discussion around this idea. As indicated by Lemmer (2007, p. 226), meanings of parental involvement vary extraordinarily, and schools and families rarely share similar points-of-view about what is needed or required. What's more, government talk and education department policies are not generally on a similar wavelength as far as successful site-based execution of parental involvement is concerned. Cotton and Wikelund (1989, as cited in Okeke, 2014, p.2) consider parental involvement exercises as "including telephone correspondence among parents and their children's school authorities; written home-school communication; home help or coaching; home educational improvement that helps the child's educative exercises; and going to school functions". Adams, Forsyth and Mitchell (2009, p.14), furthermore, define parental involvement in terms of two distinct environments: in school, which they allude to as formal parental involvement; and at home, otherwise called informal parental involvement.

“Formal parental involvement is dyadic and refers to parents’ physical presence at the school, including general participation, helping in the classrooms (e.g. assisting school activities) and involvement in school governance (e.g. serving on the school governing body). Informal parental involvement, on the other hand, may refer to providing adequate and appropriate space for studying, helping with homework, discussing the day’s events and engaging in teaching at home” (p.17). From this definition, it can be argued that parental involvement is not new in South African schools. It can be traced back to the pre-democratic era.

According to South African Schools Act, article 84 of 1996, parents or guardians have the primary responsibility for the education of their children and have the right to be consulted by the state authorities, with respect to the form that education should take and to take part in its governance. Parents have the right to choose the form of education which is best for their children, particularly in the early years of schooling, whether provided by the state or not, subject to reasonable safeguards which may be required by law. The parents' right to choose includes choice of the language and the cultural or religious basis of the child's education, with due regard to the rights of others and the rights of choice of the growing learner.

The Act outlines the major role of parents in school governance, to be exercised in the spirit of a partnership between the provincial education department and a local community, with the aim of advancing the best interests of the school and to strive to ensure its development through the provision of quality education for all learners at the school. The governing body is made up of parents, educators and community members, who have important decision-making power according to their capacity. Parents, as part of the governing body of a school must take all reasonable measures within their means to supplement the resources supplied by the State in order to improve the quality of education provided by the school to all learners at the school. This give parents an opportunity to make an input into the affairs of the education of their children.

However, most parents are not actively involved in their children’s education. Taliaferro et al. (2009) found that there are numerous reasons why parents may not take part in formal participation in school exercises. A portion of these reasons are attached to the viable issues of everyday life, including different commitment and duties, for example: being at work or taking care of other children.

Other reasons are more obscure for example the treatment parents get when endeavouring to connect with the school. De Luigi and Martelli (2015, p. 55) contend that boundaries to parental inclusion give off an impression of being unpredictable, as there are individual and family factors, child factors, parent-educator relationship factors and cultural elements.

In Mncube's (2009) study on the view of parents on their role in the governance of schools in South Africa, it was discovered that most of black South African parents in the previous model C schools were hesitant to partake in school governing bodies (SGBs) and school activities, due to lack of education on involvement in school governance and activities. In addition, the language barrier poses a problem, because of the use of English as medium of communication in the SGB meetings. Some parents find it difficult to attend meetings due to their level of education. Matshe (2014, p. 101) contends that non-involvement of parents in multiple deprived areas is not deliberate but is influenced by factors beyond their control. These factors incorporate illiteracy, financial component, lack of effective communication and lack of capacity and skills. The next section gives an overview of legislative environment in South African schooling.

1.2.4 Legislative environment

The major principles in South African education are human dignity, equality and the advancement of human rights. The law of education in South Africa, therefore, analyses acts, regulations and case judgements to provide the legal framework to guide education managers in protecting the human rights of everyone in the school; and assures everyone's right to basic education, labour relations in education, school discipline and protection according to the children's right to safety. The legislation governing public education includes:

1) Adult Basic Education and Training Act of 2000
2) Education Law Amendment Act of 2005
3) Employment of Educators Act of 1998
4) General and Further Education and Training Quality Assurance Act of 2001
5) Higher Education Act of 1997
6) National Education Policies Act of 1996
7) National Qualifications Framework Act of 2008
8) South African National Qualifications Act of 1995

9) The Further Education Training Colleges Amendment Act of 2003
10) The South African Schools Act of 1996 (DBE, 2010).

The right to basic education is universally accepted as a fundamental human right. This is manifest in a human rights-based approach to education followed by the ratification of conventions, such as United Nations Universal Declaration of Human Rights (UNUDHR) of 1948; the Dakar Framework for Action (UNESCO, 2002) the Jakarta Declaration on the Rights to Basic Education (UNESCO, 2005). The right to education is guided by non-discrimination, inclusion, equality, accountability and the rule of law. The right stipulates that all children, irrespective of their background, must receive quality education. Having ratified various treaties on human rights, the government is obliged to commit to the realisation of this right to basic education, which is embedded within the constitution and the legislative framework. Article 29, under chapter two of the constitution of South Africa of 1996 (Bill of Rights), articulates and promotes children's right to basic education. Likewise, article 35 of the Children's Act (2005) emphasises the protection of children's rights. Furthermore, article 7 (1) of the act gives provision for protecting the child from physical and psychological harm. Lastly, the act places childcare and protection of children under parents or adults to act on behalf of parents.

The South African Schools Act of 1996 brings down the right to education to the school level. The act has the provision for compulsory school attendance. Article 3 section (3) states that:

> Subject to this Act and any applicable provincial law, every parent must cause every learner for whom he or she is responsible to attend a school from the first school day of the year in which such learner reaches the age of seven years until the last day of the year in which such learner reaches the age of fifteen years or ninth grade, whichever comes first (RSA, 1996a).

From the above, the act places emphasis on attendance from Grade R to Grade 9. DBE provides for thirteen years of schooling, from Grade R to Grade twelve. Basic education is categorised into four levels, of which the first three are compulsory: Foundation phase, from Grade R to Grade three; Intermediate phase, from Grade four to six; Senior phase, from Grade seven to nine; Further Education and Training (FET) phase, from Grade ten to twelve.

RSA (1996a) also addresses the learners' right to admission and accessing schools by eliminating segregation based on race, language, culture and socio-economic class. This is realised by admission policies, fee exemptions, teaching and learning in a language accessible to learners, building an inclusive education, social support grant, nutrition programme and, lastly, safety. Article 10 (1) of RSA (1996a) advocates for learner safety from physical and psychological harm. It states that no person may administer corporal punishment at school. Whoever contravenes this is guilty of a criminal offence.

Educators' rights are checked by the Education Labour Relations Council (ELRC), which promotes and maintains labour peace through provision of dispute resolution and prevention services. It also assists with negotiations between trade unions and government employers (Franklin & McLaren, 2015, p.65). Social justice and the legislation enhancing learners' right to quality education and safety is discussed in detail in chapter four.
The next section addresses economic environment.

1.2.5 Economic environment

The study was conducted in an area that faced different forms of injustice. It is, therefore, important to discuss redistribution and recognition strategies that the government use to redress the injustices faced in the area.

Funding of basic education

In South Africa, the provinces are responsible for running basic education, under section 125(b) of the South African Constitution. The provincial departments of education are charged with the responsibility of making sure that all public schools are well-equipped and that funds are available for paying educators. In addition, the funds should cover teaching and learning materials and maintenance costs.

The provinces largely depend on revenue from the central government. On average, they receive about 80% of their annual budget through provincial equitable share (PES), according to factors such as population size, poverty and economic activity (see Local Government Equitable Share Formula Review, 2012, p.13). The formula has six components, of which the biggest component is education, which takes about 48%. This is based on the age of children

between five and seventeen and the number of learners enrolled in public schools in Grade R to Grade twelve. However, PES does not dictate how provinces utilise their resources.

Provincial governments decide on how much to allocate to various sectors, including education (MC Laren,2017, p.49). According to the resource budget brief (2018), the nine provinces allocated an average of 41% of their budget to education for the year 2017/18, but Limpopo and Eastern Cape provinces allocated 47% and 44% respectively. The allocation per province is captured in the graph below.

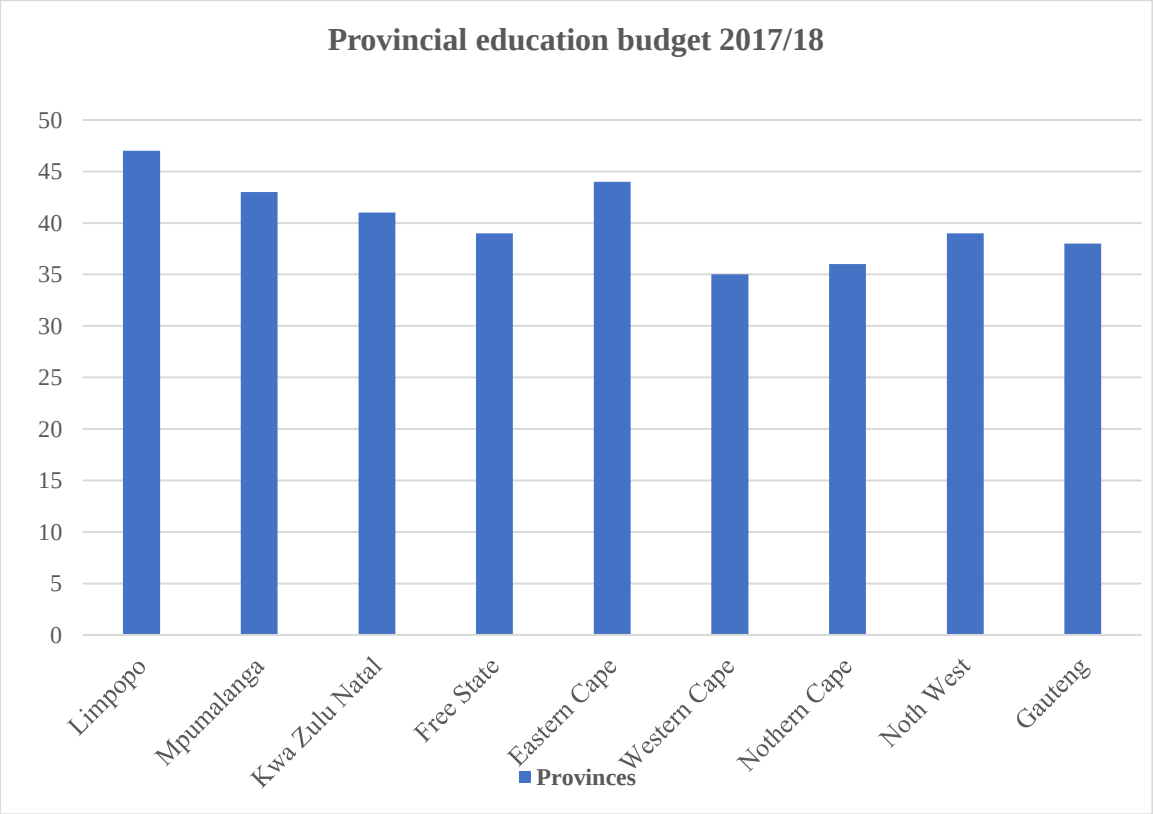


Figure 1-3: Provincial education budget 2017/18 ***(Source: Estimate of provincial revenue and expenditure (2017)***

The provincial education budget is divided into seven divisions: "1) Administration 2) Public Ordinary School Education 3) Independent School Subsidies 4) Early Childhood Development 5) Infrastructure Development 6) Examination and Education Related Services 7) Public special School Education" (Public Finance Management Act, 1998). The schools are funded on an equitable basis under quintile system (see section 34 of RSA, 1996a).

The funds allocated to schools are divided into three categories and include salaries of

educators and non-educator personnel, operational costs of running schools and larger capital investment.

Teacher allocation and cost

Government-paid educators are deployed to schools based on national posting provision norms. This is determined by the number of learners, subject combination, class size, medium of instruction and the number of grades in a school. In addition, the schools are allocated teachers based on the weighting of the subjects. However, fee-paying schools attract more qualified educators and they have higher educator per learner cost than no-fee schools. According to the DBE (2015), quintile five educators cost an average of 9% more than quintile one. Fee-paying schools (quintile 4 and 5) can hire more educators through the SGB. This translates to a smaller learner-educator ratio (LER) in fee-paying schools, compared to no-fee schools.

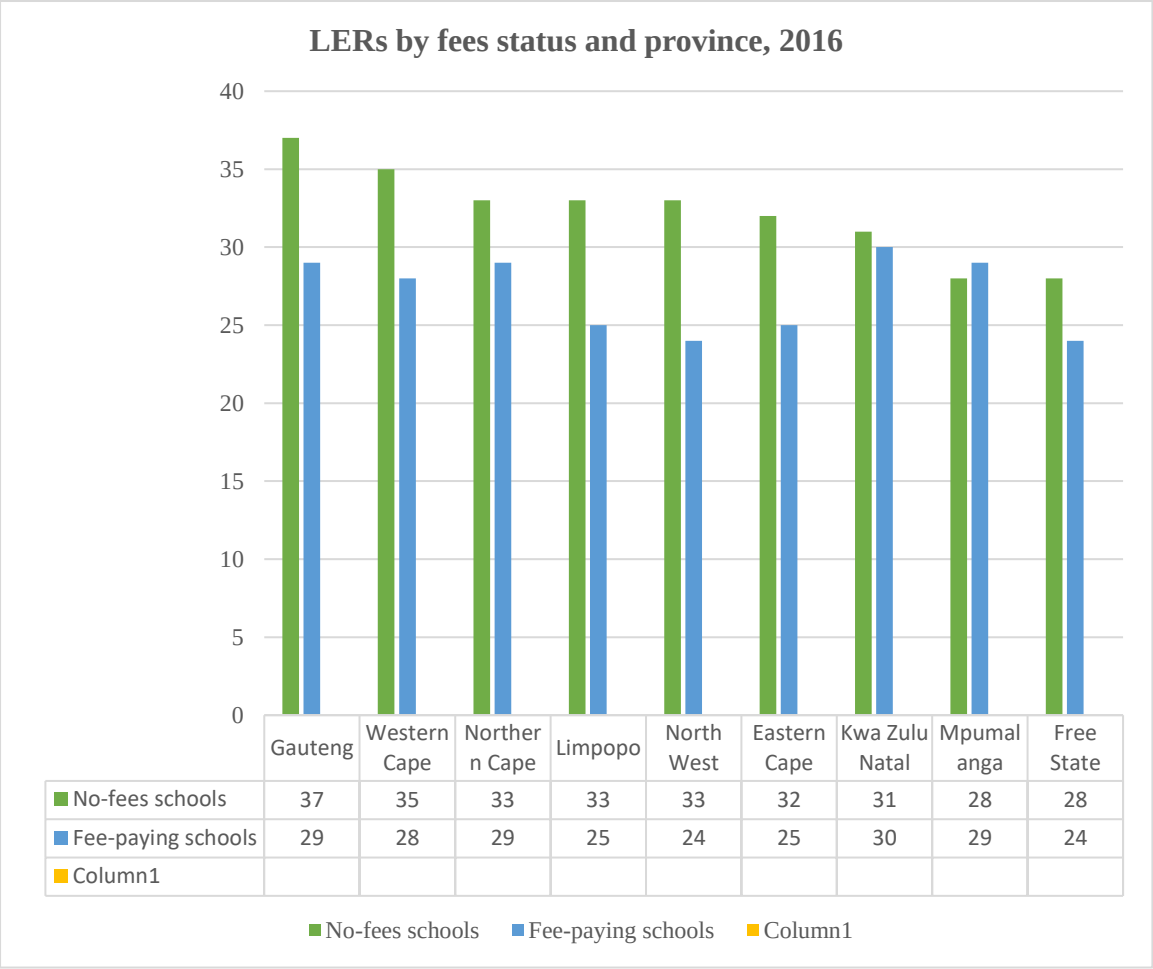


Figure 1-4: LERs by fees status and province, 2016 ***(Source: DBE list of public schools 2016)***

Recurring operational cost)

According to the sub-national budget brief on school funding in South Africa (2018), schools are expected to reserve 20% of their budget. The amount is to be allocated for non-personal and non-capital costs, such as text books, stationery and maintenance (see Amended National Norms and Standards for School Funding). In addition, National Norms and Standards for School Funding (NNSSF) set a target for 2017, as shown below: 1) R1,243 per learner in no-fee schools 2) R623 per learner in quintile 4 schools 3) R215 per learner in quintile 5 schools. Out of the nine provinces, only one, Gauteng, came close to reaching the target with 18%. This contributes to the lack of books in schools. This is echoed by the DBE report, which indicated that 71% of schools did not have libraries and the few that had, only 17% were stocked. Section 1.4 outlines conceptual overview and operational terms used in the study.

1.3 Conceptual overview and operational terms

This section defines some definitions of terms used in the study.

Learner

The term "learner" is used in South Africa to refer to primary and secondary enrolled children. However, in this study "learner" and "pupil" will be used interchangeable as pupil may also mean learner in other education systems.

Multiple deprivation

Townsend (1979, p. 31) defines deprivation as people's unmet needs. While multiple deprivation is the accumulation of single dimension or domains of poverty. The South African domains of multiple deprivation was developed from the 2001 census data and comprises five domains and thirteen indicators. The domains are income & material domain, employment deprivation domain, health deprivation domain, education deprivation domain and living environment deprivation.

Orderly schools

"An orderly school is a school characterised by a climate of mutual respect and responsibility. Students relate to each other, teachers and other staff in an acceptable way" (British Colombia Ministry of Education, 2008, p. 6). Expectations of what is acceptable behaviour are stated and consequences of unacceptable behaviour are known and applied when appropriate.

Safe schools

This is a school that has policies and procedures designed to eliminate the impact of destruction that might prevent schools from fulfilling their educational missions and is characterised by a climate that is free from fear. The discipline safety and security unit of Gauteng Department of Education (GDE, 2008, p.8) defines a safe school as "one that is free from burglary and theft, physical and sexual abuse, gangsterism, drugs and alcohol, bullying, racism, dangerous physical structures and other threats".

School discipline

According to Mtsweni (2008, p. 112), "discipline is what educators do to assist the learners to behave acceptably in a classroom situation". Beckmann (2006) says "discipline is about positive behaviour management aimed at promoting appropriate behaviour and developing self-discipline and self-control in learners".

School environment

According to Martz, Cross and Rush (2005, p.7) "a school environment is the sum total of physical, cultural and behavioural features that surround and affect an individual". The school environment is the total area in which learners on their own and/or with their educators engage in formal or informal learning without infringement.

School violence

School violence is "multifaceted construct that involves both criminal acts and aggression in schools, which inhibit development and learning, as well as harms the school climate" (Girmen, Kaya & Kilic, 2018, p. 703). It involves physical violence, including corporal punishment; psychological violence, including verbal abuse; sexual violence, including rape and harassment; and bullying, fighting including cyberbullying (UNESCO, 2017, P.8).

Sponsors

In this study, the word 'sponsor' is used interchangeably with 'blesser' to mean who meet students financial and material needs in exchange for sexual favours.

1.4 Location of the study

The study was carried out in Soweto, a township in Johannesburg, Gauteng Province. Soweto obtained its name from the first two letters of South West Township. It is located south-west of Johannesburg city in Gauteng. Soweto consists of 34 suburbs and covers an estimated area of 9640 ha. Figure 1-5 shows the location of Soweto Township.

The township was created in the apartheid era to house mainly black labourers, who worked in the mines and other industries. The first residents were located in Klipspriut in 1905, due to an outbreak of bubonic plague in the centre of Johannesburg. The Lands Act of 1913 later ratified Soweto as the region for Black South Africans. It is estimated that 1.3 million residents mostly

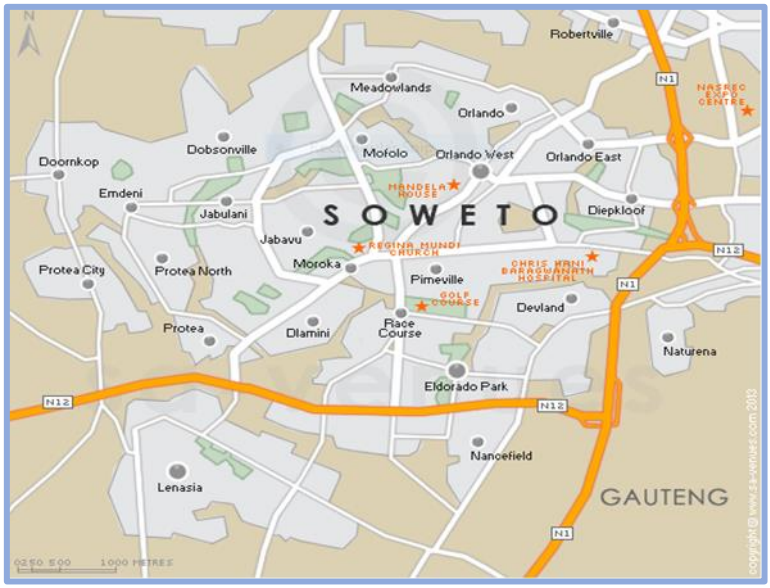


Figure 1-5: Soweto Township in Johannesburg (*Source: Google maps 2019)*

lived in identical matchbox houses, while thousands more Africans struggled to survive in ramshackle huts and vast squatter- camps, because of apartheid education and its economic, socio-political and cultural laws, which were initiated through the end of the twentieth century (Dyson, 2007). Soweto was created to be a "super-ghetto" for black labourers or subordinates evicted from the city, who were employed as maids, servants, unskilled workers and those who worked in the mines. The houses did not have electricity, water and sanitation. Even in 2010, 60% of the houses occupied by blacks did not have water, electricity and sanitation (Dyson, 2007, p.7).

Soweto has undergone major changes since the end of apartheid in 1994. Black people from all over South Africa now inhabit Soweto, while the informal settlements are home to illegal

immigrants from surrounding nations, like as Namibia, Swaziland and Zimbabwe, in addition to people from other parts of the Africa. Soweto is now a community of extremes. Shack dwellers and squatter community live in abject poverty, while extraordinary wealth is encountered in the suburbs, such as Diepkloof extension. It also has a population of the middle class, who leave in areas such as Protea, Protea Glen, Protea North and South, Dhlamini, Chiawelo and Naledi Extension. The very poor are found in the informal settlements that spring up all over Soweto. The most common informal settlement is Mandela village. Residents from Mandela village are migrants from rural areas and illegal immigrants from neighbouring countries (Soweto SA, 2003).

According to a community survey (statistics South Africa, 2007), about 40% of people living in Soweto are unemployed. The survey also stated that about 80% of households had at least one economically active person who was employed. Out of that, 15% were self-employed, while 85% were employed by others. The people that were employed consisted of 12% domestic workers, 11% office workers, 6% security personnel and 5% cleaning. Ten percent were hired by manufacturing industries, 9% were hawkers and 8% were employed as builders. The figure 1.6 captures most common forms of employment.

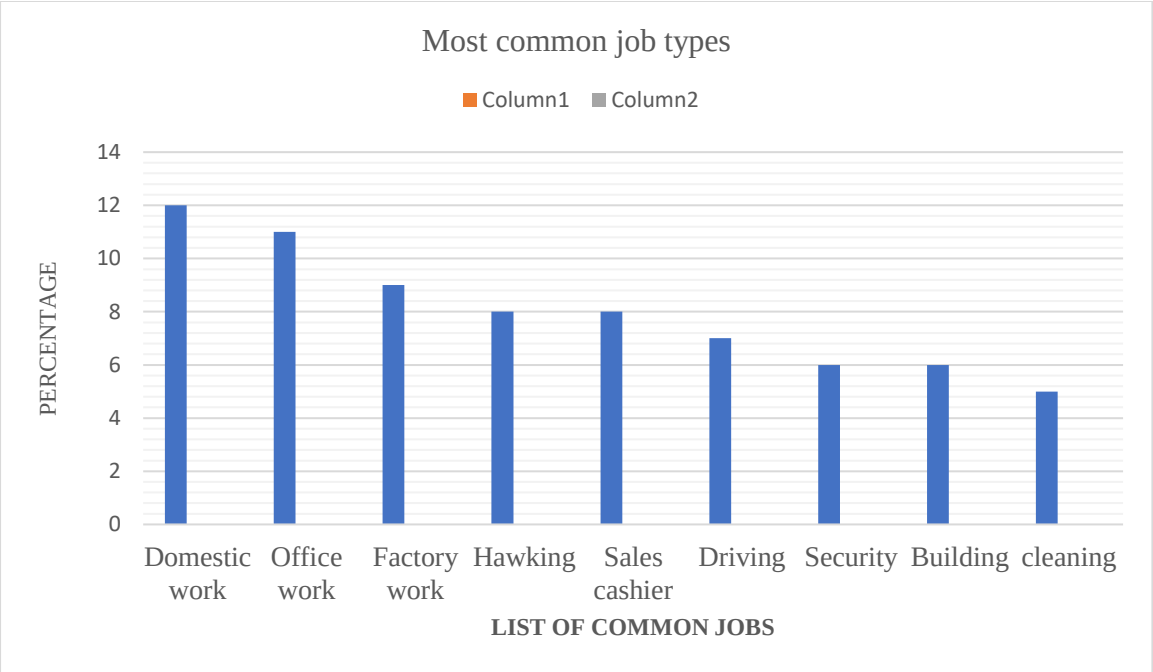


Figure 1-6: Occupation of most residence of Soweto (*Source: Johannesburg Poverty and Livelihood Studies (2008)*

The data shows that the majority of people living in Soweto are minimally paid, thus contributing to deprivation, which has numerous impacts on individuals exposed to it. Studies conducted by various scholars show that there is a correlation between a high crime rate and poverty. This is affirmed by Laub and Sampson (2002, p. 277) and Lewontin (2000, p. 94), who assert that a blend in conditions of poverty heightens the probability that an individual will carry out a crime, be arrested and be the casualty of wrongdoing. However, researchers, like Dunaway et al (2000) and Wikstorm and Butterworth (2006), contend that there is a feeble or non-existent connection between financial status and crime for instance parents' salary and children's onset of offending. Statistics from two police stations in Soweto indicated that there was a high crime rate in Soweto, which could be attributed to multiple deprivation in the area. I argue that Bantu education and the Lands Act contributed to multiple deprivation and, subsequently, safety problems experienced by residence of Soweto. It is therefore necessary to discuss the history of South African education focusing mainly on Bantu education. Section 1.5 address an overview of South African education.

1.5 Overview of history of South African education

This section gives an overview of South African education, mainly focusing on Bantu education, but first it looks at the ideology of education. The second section links Bantu Education to the current crisis in education, which calls for the need for school improvement.

1.5.1 Ideology of education

It is commonly expected that education can add to the decrease of imbalances, ease neediness and improve social mobility. Tan (1980, p. 3) noted that many planners concerned with socio-economic qualities emphasise the importance of education as a greater equalizer. Education may be seen as the main instrument for solving the problem of nation building: creating national unity on the basis of a rapidly expanded economy. The right to education is one of the fundamental liberties through which all learners receive equal treatment (UNUDHR 1948). Education is seen as a common factor to unite all races, so that a united nation will evolve.

Unfortunately, the role of education in South Africa during the apartheid era was to help perpetuate and reproduce a socially stratified and divided system and compel obedience, docility and conformity among black South Africans (Harber, 2001, p.29). Apartheid education was racially segregated. It was articulated in the Indians Act of 1969, the Education for

coloured people's Act of 1965 and Bantu Education Act of 1953, that later became the Education and Training Act of 1978. Bantu Education denied the blacks the 'right to quality education'. The following section gives an overview of Bantu Education.

1.5.2 Bantu Education

The word "Bantu" refers to the over four hundred ethnic groups in Africa. However, the term "Bantu" was used during the apartheid era in a derogatory manner towards black South Africans (Rothstein, 2004, 17). Furthermore, Bantu Education system was designed to train and fit the Africans in their role (1948-1994). Education was seen as part of the overall apartheid education system, including 'homelands', urban restrictions, pass laws and job restrictions. Consequently, the role of the Bantu was one of labourer, worker and servant. According to Verwoerd, the minister for home affairs, Bantu Education was to provide basic training for manual, low status and low-income jobs. He had the following to say:

> …For that reason, it is of no avail for him (African) to receive a training which has its aim absorption in the European community while he cannot and will not be absorbed there. Up till now he has been subjected to a school system which drew him away from his community and practically (sic) misled him by showing him green pastures of the European but still did not allow him to graze there. This attitude is not only uneconomic because money is spent on education which has specific aim, but it is even dishonest to continue with it (Kallaway, 1984, p. 320).

The right to education for the African was articulated in in the Bantu Education Act No. 47 of 1953. According to Christie and Collins (1982), the Nationalist Party was determined to drive blacks away from the white society to the barbarity of tribalism. Verwoerd, as minister for Bantu Education made it clear in his statement that "education should stand with both feet in the reserves and have its roots in the spirit and being of Bantu society" (Kallaway, 1984, p. 320). Henceforth, Africans would receive primary education in the vernacular; manual subjects, such as tree planting, would be substituted for academic lessons in primary education; and parents and learners would have to clean and maintain classrooms. School hours for primary grades would be shortened to three a day. This meant that teachers did double shifts, which compromised the quality of education. Prior to this, Africans had depended on missions for education, while the government made financial grants to the missions. Verwoerd withdrew the grants to oust the missions who created "wrong expectations on the part of the native" (Hansard, 1953).

Human rights violation in apartheid schooling is demonstrated in the budget allocation for schools. Apartheid schools provided the least for Black schools and most for White schools. In 1990, for every equivalent of US $150 allocated to a white primary school child, the apartheid state provided US$10 for an African child (Nkomo, 1990, p.12).

African secondary schools and universities for blacks were set up in the bush (rural areas/homelands/Bantu reserves) in order to exclude black students from the influence of cities. Apartheid left South Africa a divided society, with racially divided universities: historically White universities, historically Black universities and two separate universities for Indians and Coloureds (Bergh & Soudien, 2006, p. 63). Bantu Education perpetuated injustices which contributed to student uprising, which is discussed in the following section.

1.5.3 Schools in crisis

On June 16th, 1976, the youth of Soweto marched in protest against Afrikaans as a medium of instruction in schools. This led to massive bloodshed that overwhelmed the country. The school crisis was due to the black consciousness movement in school (Christie, 1982,). This was as a response to the introduction of Afrikaans in schools. The 1976 uprising linked history of black education and politics to the broader educational issues (Mogano, 1993). This became a permanent future of schools in crisis between the period 1970-1980.

The school crises of 1976 and 1980 led to some changes. Expenditure on Bantu education increased since the government saw the need to train an African labour force. More African children were able to attend old missionary education system to receive education for manual labour. The schools attended by blacks lacked teaching resources and were overcrowded.

Overcrowding was used to cover for lack of teachers and the few teachers who taught were underqualified. In 1961, only 10% of black teachers held metric certificate. Black education was essentially inferior. Furthermore, there was a changed character of the black labour force with legal recognition of African workers as ‘employees’ and the legal recognition and registration of an African trade union. Bantu education was tailored to mainly serve the Whites in South Africa. Schooling for blacks was deliberately designed to condition Africans to accept

their subordinate status, so the whites could prosper economically and socially at the expense of the Blacks (Kallaway, 1984).

From the above it can be argued that Bantu Education deprived blacks of their right to quality education, thus contributing to multiple deprivation and the high crime rate that is experienced in the black community. Furthermore, more than two decades after the end of the apartheid era, black schools are still experiencing some of these injustices, with 80% of schools considered dysfunctional. The curriculum has since gone through the following revisions: Outcomes based Education (OBE), also known as curriculum 2005 (C2005) of 1997; Revised National Curriculum Statement of 2002; National Curriculum Statement of 2007; and lastly Curriculum and Assessment Policy Statement (CAPS) of 2012 (Adu & Ngibe, 2014, p. 983). This is an indication that the problem could be more than the curriculum. The next section looks at the background to the study by discussing the poor performance of learners in international exams and the safety challenges that these schools face.

1.6 Background to the study

South African education is in a crisis (Masando, 2016; Bloch, 2009). Although apartheid education ended over two decades ago, schools that formerly served whites have remained functional, while 80% of schools which serve blacks are dysfunctional. According to Spaull (2012, p. 2) the schools are ill-resourced and unable to teach the required numeracy and literacy to learners. Furthermore, the country has performed poorly in national and international exams such as Trends in International Mathematics and Science (TIMSS) which assess mathematics and Science for grade four and eight. The same is observed in Progress in International Reading Literacy Study (PIRLS) and Southern and Eastern Africa Consortium for Monitoring Education Quality (SAMECQ).

Hungi, et al. (2010) adds that South Africa performs worse in TIMSS compared to most countries that are considered poor. TIMSS is set by the International Association for the Evaluation of Educational Achievement (IEA), with the aim of comparing learner performance across borders among the participating nations (Reddy et al., 2016, p.1). However, in 2012, South Africa tested grade nine learners in addition to grade 8 learners. It is argued that the TIMSS grade eight test was too difficult for South African learners, therefore, in 2011, only grade nine learners sat for grade eight TIMSS (Foy et al., 2010). In 2015, out of the

participating countries, South Africa was among the five bottom countries as shown in the Figure 1.7.

Maths	Score	Science	Score
Botswana	391	Saudi Arabia	396
Jordan	386	Morocco	393
Morocco	384	Botswana	392
South Africa	372	Egypt	385
Saudi Arabia	368	South Africa	371

Figure 1-7: TIMSS 2015 Maths and Science Achievement for Grade *9* ***(Source: Reddy et al., 2015, pg. 2)***

The figure shows that South Africa was second last in maths. The score was worse in science, where it was last out of the 39 countries. The poor performance in TIMSS has been a trend in the past years and has been reflected in all the grades. The next figure captures grade nine performances in TIMSS from 2002 to 2015.

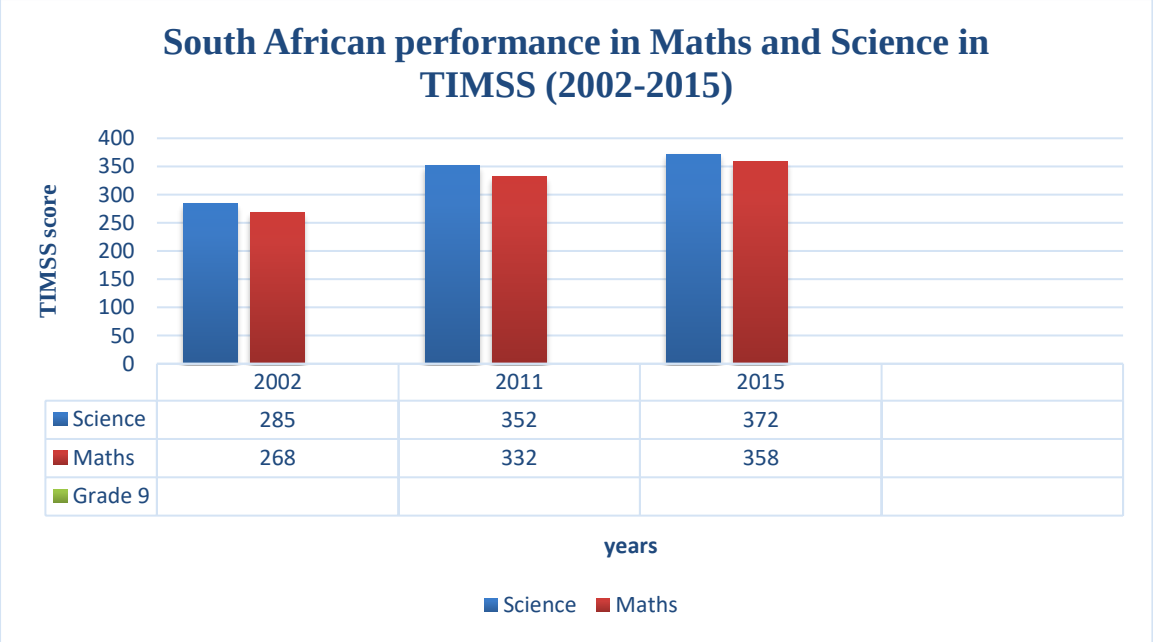


Figure 1-8: South Africa performance in Maths and Science TIMSS (2002-2005) (*source: Spaull et al., 2019)*

The performance of South Africa in the second international test of achievement, Southern and Eastern African Consortium for Monitoring Educational Quality (SACMEQ), was equally

poor. SACMEQ (2000) and (2007) demonstrated that there was no improvement in South African literacy and numeracy. In 2007, South African grade six ranked tenth in reading and eighth in maths, out of the fifteen participating countries. The study demonstrated that many learners could not read simple sentences and extract meaning. The figure 1.9 captures how member countries participated in 2000 and 2007:

Countries	Reading score		Mathematics score	
	2000	2007	2000	2007
1. Mauritius	536	574	585	623
2. Kenya	547	543	563	557
3. Tanzania	546	578	522	553
4. Seychelles	582	575	554	551
5. Swaziland	529	549	517	541
6. Botswana	521	535	313	521
7. Zimbabwe	504	508	-	520
8. South Africa	492	495	486	495
9. Zanzibar	478	534	478	486
10. Mozambique	516	476	530	484
11. Uganda	482	479	506	482
12. Lesotho	451	468	447	477
13. Namibia	449	497	431	471
14. Malawi	429	434	433	447
15. Zambia	440	434	435	435

Figure 1-9: Member countries participating in 2000 and 2007 ACMEQ ***(Source: DBE, 2008)***

The study shows that South Africa performed worse than countries in southern and eastern region, such as Kenya, Tanzania, Botswana and Swaziland. Studies conducted by Creemers and Reezight (1996) indicate that an average of only 10% to 20% of learner performance is related to school factors. This is because they are not the only factors that affect learner performance. According to Coleman et al. (1966) and Spaull (2013), socio-economic status plays a more significant role in learner achievement. This was demonstrated by the TIMSS scores. The performance of South African schools varied a great deal according to school type. The schools performed according to poverty index; with quintile one schools performing worse than all the groups. In TIMSS 2015,

> Mathematics for the different school types were: public no-fees schools 341 (3.3) points; public fee-paying schools 423 (10.0); and independent schools 477 (11.5). For

science, scores were: public no-fee school 317 (4.2); public fee-paying schools 426 (10.9); and independent school 485 (11.8) (Reddy et al., 2016, p. 7).

On the other hand, Edmond (1982), study on school improvement revealed that safety and orderliness was one of the most important correlates of school improvement. This was confirmed by other studies conducted by Lezotte (1991) and Lezotte and Snyder (2011). Is argue that poor performance in South African schools could be attributed to injustices of safety and orderliness that the learners and educators experience. Residents of Soweto experience numerous safety challenges. In this study, I used statistics of crime recorded in two police stations: Protea Glen Police Station and Diepkloof Police Station, which are in Soweto, to illustrate how unsafe Soweto is. The major types of crime recorded in the two police stations in Soweto included murder, assault, robbery, sexual offences, rape and sexual violence, property related crimes, drug related crime and car hijacking (Pelo, 2018).

Records of Protea Glen Police Station indicated that a total number of 73 cases of rape cases were reported in 2016/2017, while 69 were reported in 2017/18. Sexual assault crimes in the community had gone up, as 34 were reported in 2017/18 statistics, while 22 were reported in 2016/2017(Pelo, 2018). Similarly, Diepkloof Police Station (located in Soweto) reported high levels of crime rate, where sexual offence increased between 2014 and 2019. The year 2018 recorded 154 number of sexual offences, which was the highest. However, the number dropped in 2019, as shown in the figure 1.10.

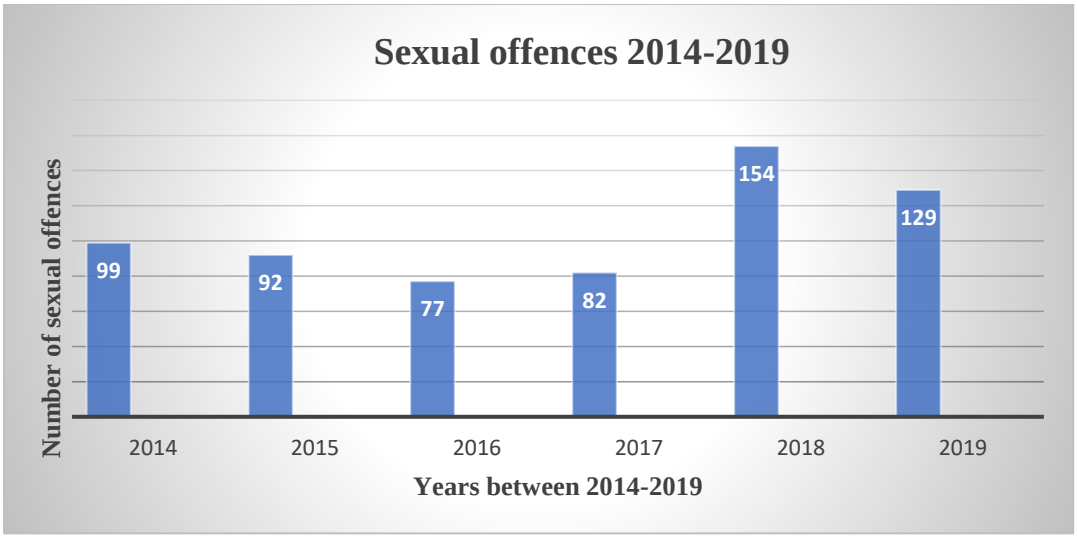


Figure 1-10: Sexual offences reported between 2014-2019 ***(source: police records)***

Another category of crime was assault with intent to inflict grievous bodily harm. Diepkloof Police Station recorded a total of 2644 of such cases between the 2014-2019. The highest number was recorded in 2018. The figure 1.11 shows the number of assaults with intent to inflict grievous bodily harm in respective years.

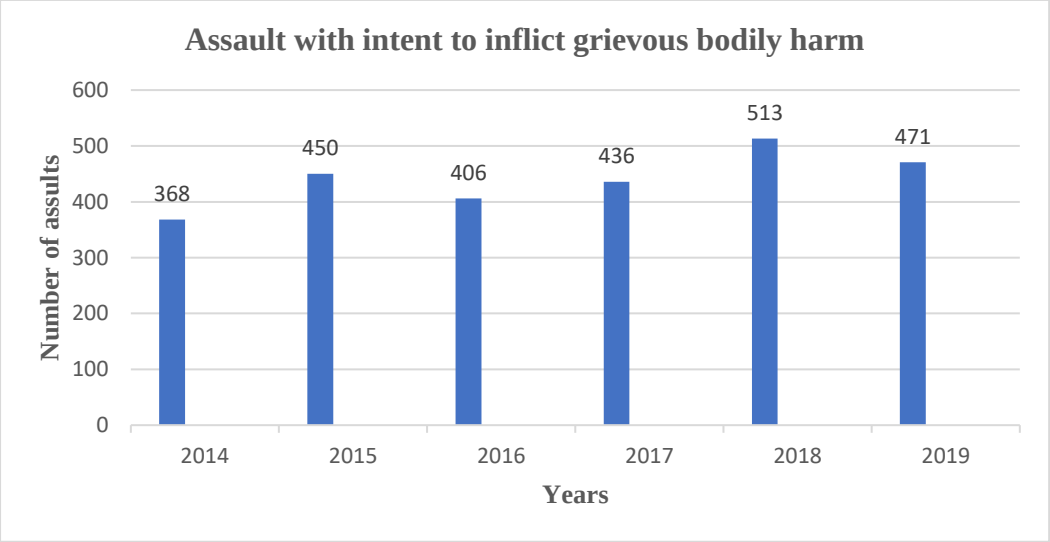


Figure 1-11: Assault with intent to inflict grievous bodily harm ***(source: police records)***

The station also recorded a large number of reports on robbery with aggravated circumstances between 2014-2019. The year 2019 recorded the highest number, 357 cases. The statistics indicated that robbery with aggravated circumstances had been increasing. The figure 1.12 illustrates the number of robberies with aggravated circumstances.

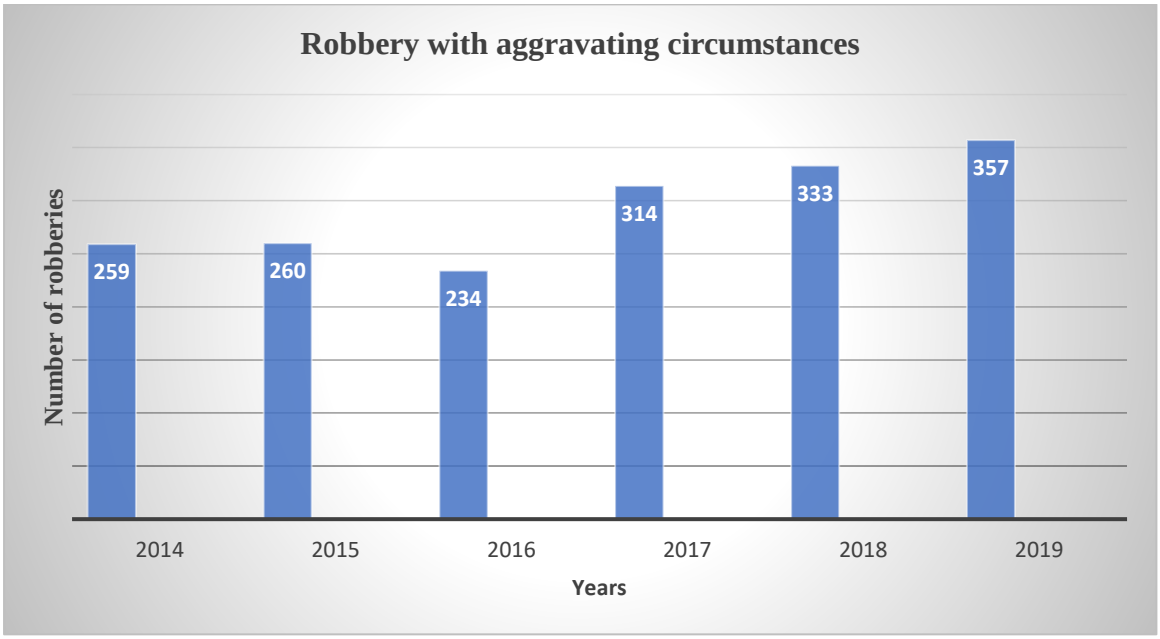


Figure 1-12: Robbery with aggravated circumstances (*source: police records*)

Diepkloof Police Station recorded other crimes, which are summarised in figure 1.13 between 2014-2019. The crimes recoded were malicious damage of property, burglary at residential premises, murder, drug related crimes, illegal possession of fire arms, commercial crime, theft out of vehicle, all theft not mentioned elsewhere and rape. However, there were no records of rape in the years 2014, 2016 and 2017, which does not mean that there were no rape cases in the area.

Nature of crime	**Years**					
	2014	**2015**	**2016**	**2017**	**2018**	**2019**
Malicious damage of property	282	270	337	339	365	370
Burglary at residential premises	321	344	376	333	382	346
Murder	30	37	27	39	41	41
Drug related crime	768	636	564	654	756	529
Illegal possession of firearm or ammunition	17	32	14	15	20	13
Commercial crime	137	120	158	163	180	226
Theft out of or from motor vehicle	198	212	198	221	204	179
Rape	-	-	-	6	17	11
All theft not mentioned elsewhere	580	636	581	544	509	573

Figure 1-13: Summary of other crime reported in Diepkloof Police Station ***(Source: Pelo, 2018)***

The number of crimes in Soweto may be more than what is reflected above, since crimes like sexual assault and rape always go unreported (Burton, 2008, p.20). Nevertheless, the number of cases reported demonstrate how Soweto is unsafe. 2018 and 2019 recorded the highest number of murder cases in the area. The records showed that the inhabitants of Soweto were not even safe at home. There were high cases recorded of burglary at residential premises, with 2018 recorded the highest. However, the figure dropped slightly in 2019 from 382 to 346. Another major problem was drug-related crime that was high, but the figures indicated that the problem was reducing gradually.

The violence in the community is reflected in schools, where there are numerous cases of violent acts, which are sometimes fatal (Burton, 2008, p.29). This was echoed by the Minister of Basic Education, Angie Motshekga (Pheto, 2018). She asserted that the high level of

criminality in the community affects schools. The latest national studies on school violence, conducted in 2012 by Burton and Leoschut, indicated that school violence is rife in South African schools.

Violence experienced in schools varied by province in 2012. This was consistent with what was observed in 2008 survey (Burton & Leoschut, 2013, p20). This could be as a result of numerous factors emanating from both within and outside the school premises, which combine to create an environment conducive to violence. The authors attested that the rate of crime recorded in a province may influence violence within the schools, so may the leaders' ability to handle safety related issues and monitory resources available to enhance physical infrastructure. Equally important are the interventions employed by the Provincial Department of Education to alleviate violence in schools. The impact of these elements of school violence might be, and regularly are intensified by community level elements, for example: access to liquor, drugs, firearm or gang activity. Figure 1.14 captures the level of school violence in the provinces.

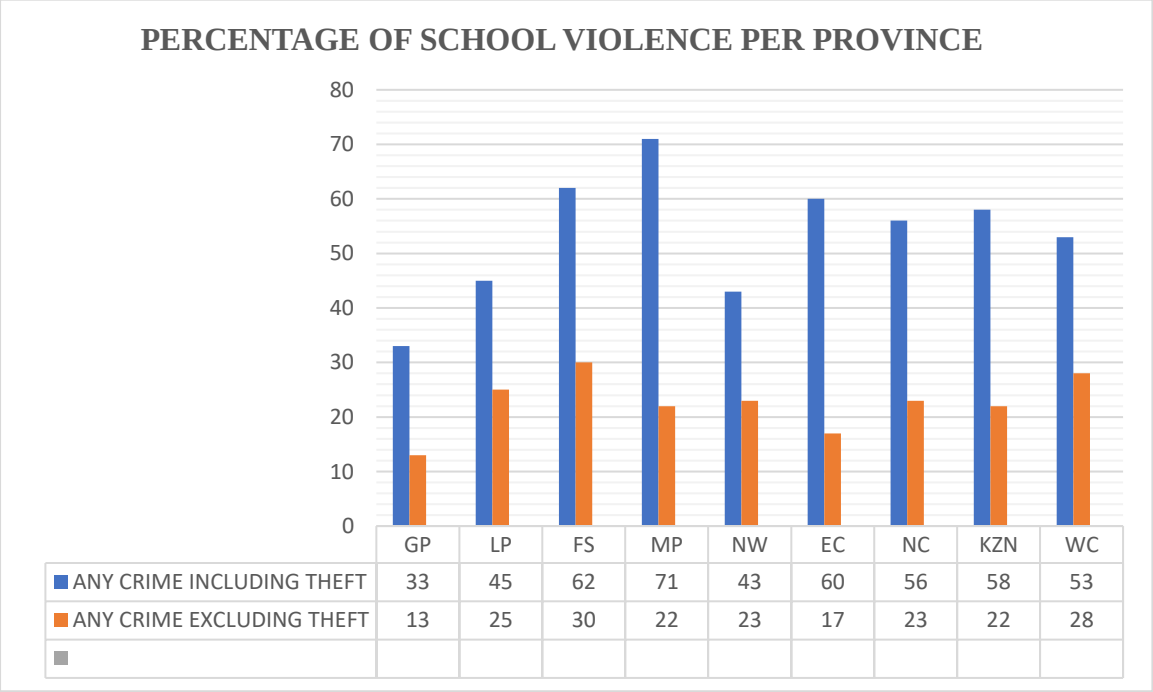


Figure 1-14: School violence per province (%) ***(source: Burton & Leoschut, 2013)***

In all the provinces, school violence was highest in Free State Province, with 30% of sampled learners in the region revealing an encounter of some form of violence in 2012. The Western Cape came in second, with 28%, followed by Limpopo, at a 25% rate of violent victimisation.

Out of the nine provinces, only Gauteng Province and the Eastern Cape Province recorded a violence rate of less than national average of 22%, as shown in the graph above.

However, a change in provincial trend was observed when property related crimes were incorporated in the study. Mpumalanga recorded the highest criminal acts in schools, at 71%. The next province was the Free State, at 62%, and then the Eastern Cape at 60%. Gauteng Province recorded the lowest degree of crime in schools.

Threats of violence were experienced in all the provinces. The most noteworthy rate of this type of violence was seen in the Western Cape (stated by 18.5% of learners), trailed by Limpopo (15.9%) and Free State (13.2 %). Assault was more prevalent in North West (9.6 %), Western Cape (9.2 %) and KwaZulu-Natal (8.2 %). On account of rape and sexual assault, the Northern Cape had the most elevated reported cases (a sum of 11.2%), trailed by Free State (9.2%) and the Western Cape (9.2 %). The highest number of robberies were reflected in the Western Cape (8.8%), the Free State (7.2%) and Mpumalanga (6%) provinces. In spite of the fact that property-related crimes, especially theft, were regularly reported over all the provinces, rates were most noteworthy in Mpumalanga (64.1%), the Eastern Cape (55.9%) and the Free State (52%). Figure 1.15 captures violence experienced by learners by province (%) for year 2012.

Another form of violence the learners experienced was corporal punishment. The 2012 National School Violence Study (NSVS) gives proof of corporal punishment inside South African Schools as a method of instilling discipline. Despite the fact that it was outlawed in South Africa in 1996 (see the RSA, 1996c; CRC, 1989). Generally, an aggregate of 49.8 of the learners sampled professed to have been caned or hit by an educator or principal as discipline.

Provincial rates of corporal punishment ranged from 22.4% to 73.7%, with the highest level of corporal punishment recorded in KwaZulu-Natal, at 73.7%. The next provinces were the Eastern Cape (66.9%), Mpumalanga Province (63.9%), the Free State Province (55.0%), the

	Threatened with violence	Assault	Sexual assault & rape	Robbery	Theft
Gauteng	9.0	4.1	0.7	2.2	23.8
Limpopo	15.9	3.8	3.8	4.9	34.5
Free State	13.2	6.4	9.2	7.2	52.0
Mpumalanga	11.0	6.0	7.3	6.0	64.1
North West	11.0	9.6	3.7	4.0	27.2
Eastern Cape	10.3	3.3	3.6	3.3	55.9
Northern Cape	7.2	6.0	11.2	3.6	48.0
KwaZulu-Natal	11.3	8.2	3.9	3.7	49.9
Western Cape	18.5	9.2	9.2	8.8	42.2

Figure 1-15: Percentage of violence experienced by learners per province ***(Source: Burton & Leoschut, 2013)***

North West province (39.9%), Limpopo Province (35.1%), Gauteng Province (22.8%) and the lowest was the Western Cape Province at 17.1%. Some of these safety issues have received media coverage, as discussed in chapter 2.

School violence is a complex phenomenon. The statistics above demonstrate the kind of violence South African schools experience. Violence ranges from bullying, assault, sexual assault, rape and being threatened with violence and robbery. Violence creates an atmosphere of fear and insecurity, thus affecting the quality of teaching and learning. The study explored how leaders in multiple deprived areas redress these injustices as a basis of school improvement.

1.7 Statement of the problem

It is every child's right to receive quality education in a safe and orderly environment. The South African government has put policies in place to uphold learners' rights to quality education and safety (see RSA, 1996c; RSA, 1996a). In addition, the government articulated this, through vision 2030, which states that:

> By 2030, South Africa should have access to education and training of the highest quality, leading to significantly improved learning outcomes. The performance of South African learners in international standardised tests should be comparable to the performance of learners from countries at a similar level of development and with similar levels of access. Education should be compulsory up to grade 12 or equivalent level in vocational education and training (National Development Plan, 2013, p.296).

However, this is elusive. A lot needs to be done if the vision is to be achieved. Scholars, like Lezotte and Snyder (2011, p. 12), attest that effective teaching and learning cannot take place if schools are not safe and orderly. These are major problems in a significant number of South African schools and especially those facing multiple deprivation. Safety problems are not only between learners, but also between learners and educators and between rival schools and rival gangs (Burton & Leoschut, 2013, p. 12; Ncontsa & Shumba, 2013, p. 2). Studies conducted by Mncube and Harber (2013) showed that violence originated from within the school, where teachers engaged in verbal, physical and psychological abuse. Their studies further revealed that 59% of learners reported to have sustained injuries due to corporal punishment. Moreover, the teachers failed to ensure learner safety through unprofessional conduct, such as frequent absenteeism or failing to attend to reported cases of safety. Burton (2008) conducted a similar study in school violence in South African schools. In his study, he found that 1.8 million of pupils between grades three and twelve (15.3%) had experienced violence in one way or another. While 12.8% of the learners had been threatened with violence, 5.8% had been assaulted, 4.6% had been robbed and 2.3% had experienced some form of sexual violence in school. Violence and other forms of unsafety incidents within schools, which have at times proven fatal, have been reported in the media in recent years.

The following stories made headlines in 2015: Four girls, aged between seven and nine years gang raped by older boys at Kutumal Molefi Primary School (Makhubun, 2015); a black boy stripped, painted white and sodomised with a broom handle at North Cape Boys School (Pupil painted white before rape, 2015); the Minister of Education denies responsibility in toilet death of a six year old, Michael Komape, of Mahlodumela Lower Primary School (Motshekga denies responsibility in toilet death, 2015). According to Seleka (2015), thugs had struck more than 280 times at Gauteng schools stealing computers worth thousands of Rands. In February 2015, six men held guards at gunpoint at Steve Biko Secondary School. Furthermore, Gauteng Department of Education spokesperson, Phumla Sekhoname, stated that the department was

aware of the passing away of a guard at Cosmos City Secondary School, as a result of a burglary where 28 computers were stolen.

The above accounts of safety issues in both the classroom and school grounds illustrate the lack of safety in schools. These trends suggest that the prerequisite environment for effective learning and teaching is increasingly being undermined by lack of safety and orderliness in schools. This negatively impacts on learner achievement (United Nation Children's Fund, 2001, p.1). In addition, safety is every child's right that should be protected. The next section looks at the objectives of the study.

1.8 Objectives of the study

The main objective of this study was to identify how school leaders perceived the injustices of safety and orderliness and the strategies they used to redress them. The assumption was that the strategies used to redress the injustices of safety would be successful if they shared a common understanding of what depressed safety and orderliness. In order to explore these issues, the study sought to address the following objectives:

i. To assess how school leaders perceived safety and orderliness as problems of social injustice

ii. Investigate how multiple deprivation resulting from maldistribution, misrepresentation and misrecognition affected the schools.

iii. Explore the strategies that leaders use to redress the injustices they face to make their schools safe and orderly.

1.9 Research questions

Following the stated problem and research objectives, the study was guided by the following research questions:

In what ways do leaders in schools facing multiple deprivation redress social injustices they face to make their schools safe and orderly, as a basis of school improvement?

This was further observed via the following sub-questions:

1) How do leaders perceive safety and orderliness as problems of social justice?

Studies tell us that both learners and educators experience different forms of physical and psychological safety challenges. This sub-question was posed to the leaders to establish their understanding of a safe and orderly school and to ascertain if they shared a common understanding of what that meant. It was assumed that they cannot effectively redress this injustice if they do not share a common understanding of a safe and orderly school. Secondly, it was to explore the injustices of safety that the schools faced. In addressing this question, all the principals, educators and learner representatives were interviewed to give an account of their understanding of a safe and orderly school. In addition, they stated how they were affected.

2) In what ways does multiple deprivation resulting from maldistribution, misrecognition and misrepresentation affect the schools?

There is a great deal of connection between safety and multiple deprivation resulting from maldistribution, misrepresentation and misrecognition. This assertion is supported by studies which indicate that schools located in multiple deprived areas experience a high rate of insecurity, such as robbery and violence. Furthermore, the schools cannot afford to implement safety strategies effectively, due to a lack of funds. The sub-question was asked to establish how the schools were affected by multiple deprivation. It was also to give a link between learner performance and safety if there was any. Since literature indicated that the two were connected.

3*) What strategies do the leaders use to redress the injustices they face to make their schools safe and orderly?*

In addressing this question, I sought to interrogate the social justice interventions the leaders employed in their endeavours to improve learner performance by making the schools safe and orderly. It was assumed that there were guidelines from DBE and support on how to do so. The question gave room for the leaders to discuss the structures and policies that they used, if they used any or any other strategy, at all.

Rationale and Significance of the Study

Education is crucial in shaping character and eradicating inequalities in the society. Consequently, quality education in a safe environment becomes human rights and social justice

issue (Fraser, 2010, p.23). It is therefore important that school leaders should create an environment that is safe and orderly, free from any form of threat if quality learning is to take place. However, learners in unsafe and multiple deprived areas are do not enjoy this. They are exposed to safety challenges which affected teaching and learning. Some of the safety challenges include robbery and theft, bullying, stabbings and learning in unsafe buildings. This grossly affect the quality of learning.

I argue that schools and learning environment should be safe if learner performance is to improve. The fundamental question in this research is in what ways can school leaders make schools safe and orderly as a way of improving learner performance? The study hopes to contribute to knowledge by developing a model that will help improve school safety in multiple deprived areas. The next section discusses justification of the study.

1.10 Justification for the study

The strategies leaders employ to redress the injustices of safety and orderliness as a way of school improvement is under researched. A lot of research in school improvement has focused mainly on leadership styles, teacher development, raising the bar and curriculum change as a way of school improvement (Hoachlander et al., 2001, p.20). Some have briefly highlighted the importance of incorporating the correlates of school improvement, which are worth elaborating upon in terms of how they should be done. Little is available, though, on how leaders in multiple deprived areas can make their schools safe as a basis for school improvement. Only two national studies have been conducted in the area but did not in cooperate multiple deprivation. Furthermore, studies on safety mainly focused on the intensity of learner violence, leaving out how leaders make schools safe and orderly. This is the gap in knowledge that this study seeks to address.

It is common in South Africa to equate poor learner performance with teacher incompetence and curriculum but not school safety. It is evident from literature that most schools in multiple deprived areas experience a great deal of safety problems both from within the school and from the communities where they are located Xaba (2006, p.164). This denies the learners their right to quality education, because effective teaching and learning cannot take place in an environment that is not safe and orderly. The study therefore, investigates how school leaders

redress the social justice issues they face to enhance safety and orderliness in their schools, as a basis of school improvement. Section 1.11 gives an overview of theory used in the study.

1.11 Theory

The theory underpinning this study is Nancy Fraser (2008) theory of social justice. I adopted the three dimensions (redistribution, recognition and representation) of Fraser's theory of social justice, using human rights approach to explore how safety in multiple deprived schools is perceived and can be enhanced to improve learner performance. Lezotte (2001, p. 6) argues that, in an effective school, "there is an orderly, purposeful, business-like atmosphere, which is free from the physical harm. The school climate is not oppressive and is conducive to teaching and learning". That is to say that, for a school to be effective, it must be safe and orderly. Social justice and human rights are central in equipping children with quality education, where learners are faced with safety challenges and multiple deprivation. This is because quality education is the right of every child (National Education Policy Act, 1996). The theory is discussed in detail in chapter two of the thesis. 1.12 discusses the conceptual framework.

1.12 Conceptual framework

I developed the conceptual framework from the concepts and beliefs that explained school improvement in unsafe and deprived areas (Robinson 2011, p. 18). This included theories of leadership, multiple deprivation and school safety. The section below gives a brief discussion of the methodological stance that was used in the study.

1.13 Methodological stance for the study

This section outlines the methodology that was used in the study. To have a better understanding of how leaders in multiple deprived areas enhanced safety in their schools, the study was situated within an interpretive paradigm to give I an understanding and interpretation of events, perceptions of leaders, the challenges they face and how they make the schools safe and orderly (Rubin & Bobbie 2010, p. 37). The interpretive paradigm gave room to generate rich data, as it utilises a number of methodological tools.

Research site

The research was carried out in quintile one secondary schools in Soweto. The schools were in a circuit that had the largest number of quintile one schools and was considered unsafe. This

area was sampled, because it had the highest indices of multiple deprivation (census 2011). From the literature reviewed, it was noted that schools that are located in such areas are bound to be affected by problems, such as violence, crime and deprivation, that emanated from the community and consequently affect school safety and orderliness and performance (Pitso et. al.,2014, p 337). Therefore, the study was set to investigate how the school leaders in these areas enhanced school safety and orderliness. This was discussed in detail in chapter five. Next is the study population.

Study population

The study targeted principals, educators and learner representatives in quintile one secondary schools in Soweto. According to the circuit head, the circuit had three schools that performed well against the odds. The schools and the respondents were therefore selected purposely. Three schools were sampled for the study. A total of three principals, six eductors and nineteen learner representatives were sampled for the study.

Data collection instruments and analysis

The instruments used comprised individual interviews, focus group interviews, observation and photos. The choice of the instruments was based on the need to collect as much data as possible from the school leaders, which could give insight into the leaders' perceptions and practices of enhancing safety. Triangulation was applied to the data from the instruments to establish evidence for the study (Yin, 2004, p.48). The data collected was analysed using Braun and Clarke's (2006) six-step framework of thematic analysis. It was appropriate for this study because it suits questions related to people's views and questions relating to the construction of meaning.

Data quality

Qualitative data has always been criticised as having many drawbacks. To address this, I therefore established trustworthiness and transferability, as described by Lincoln and Guba (1985).

1.14 Research ethics

According to Frankel and Wallen (2006), research ethics is concerned with the rights and interests of the research participants. This research involved human beings, therefore it adhered to research ethics principals. I first obtained permission form Wits School of Education and

then proceeded to Gauteng Department of Education, where permission was obtained to conduct research in the sampled schools. In addition, I established a good relationship with the participants and informed them of their rights. Furthermore, issues of anonymity and confidentiality were strictly observed. The next section presents delimitation of the study.

1. 15 Delimitation of the study

Since this was a PhD research, it was limited to scope. The research was restricted to only three quintile one secondary schools in unsafe environment. Leaving out primary schools that may experience the same challenges. It involved the three principals, six educators and learner representatives. Section 1.16 gives a preliminary literature review of the study.

1.16 Preliminary literature review

The motivation behind this section is to introduce an outline of literature before conducting the research to get a comprehension of what elements influence the study and to identify gaps existing within research that need to be addressed (McMillan & Schumacher, 2010, p. 73). In this study, the literature review was divided into three distinct, but complementary chapters. Thus, the research does not present a chapter "literature review" but integrates empirical studies and conceptual discussion. Chapter two discusses school safety and orderliness and the concept of multiple deprivation. This is done by discussing the conceptualisation of safety and orderliness. It also gives the history of injustices of violence in South African schools, the nature of violence and the magnitude of violence in the schools. In addition, it discussed the impact of safety issues on learners and other school personnel. This was followed by an overview of how school safety has been enhanced in other countries, including South Africa, and, lastly, safety measures stipulated by the Department of Basic Education and other stakeholders.

The second chapter discussed the concept of multiple deprivation, and the domains of multiple deprivation in South Africa. It further looked at how deprivation affects learners and the schools in general.

Chapter three focuses on school improvement and leadership. The discussion of school improvement was done by giving a background of school improvement through discussing major proponents of school improvement. These included Shannon and Bylsma (2007);

Sammons, Hillman, and Mortimore (1995); Edmond (1982) and Lezotte and Snyder (2011). The chapter discussed Lezotte and Snyder's correlates of school improvement and gave more emphasise on the correlate of safety and orderliness because it informed the study. In addition, it discusses leadership theories that can be used to enhance school improvement: instructional leadership, distributed leadership and transformational Leadership

The last chapter on literature review, chapter four, discussed the theoretical framework of the study. The study adopted Nancy Fraser's theory of social justice and human rights approach to understand safety and quality education. The chapter started by discussing the three dimensions of Fraser's theory of social justice and then linked it to school safety and orderliness. This was explained using a human rights approach. The chapters helped in locating the topic in related empirical research and to identify the gaps the research intends to address. The chapter also served in determining the methodology used and analysis of the data generated.

1.17 Intended contribution

The study intends to contribute to the body of knowledge since this area (role of leaders in creating safety as a basis of school improvement) is under-researched. The study intends to design a model that schools in unsafe and deprived areas can use to improve school safety and orderliness and, by extension, improve learner performance.

1.18 Preview of research report

The rest of the thesis is divided into eight chapters, as shown below:

Chapter one

Chapter one presents the study by discussing the background. It begins by discussing the country, South Africa, by focusing on the political, legislative, social and economic environments, as well as the environmental factors of South African Schools to give a better understanding of the study. This is followed by discussion of the problem statement, research questions, research objectives, significance and justification of the study. It further gives a justification for the methodology used, an empirical overview, intended contribution and, finally, an overview of the rest of the chapters.

Chapter two

Chapter two presents the conceptual foundation of the study. The first section discusses the concept and injustices of safety and orderliness. This is achieved by conceptualising school safety and orderliness, discussing school violence, giving the historical background of violence in South African schools. In addition, it gives the magnitude of violence in schools, using both empirical studies and media reports. This is followed by the implications of violence and studies for the manner in which various countries have tried to enhance school safety and orderliness. The section concludes with strategies recommended by the Department of Basic Education and other stakeholders.

The chapter also discusses the injustices of multiple deprivation, since the study was conducted in unsafe and deprived areas. It discusses the concept of multiple deprivation and the domains of multiple deprivation in South Africa. Lastly, it looks at how multiple deprivation affects the learners and the school in general.

Chapter three

Chapter three discusses the notion of school improvement and leadership that forms part of the conceptual framework of the study. It begins by looking at school improvement, focusing on the work of the major proponents of school improvement. The next section looks at theories of leadership that have been used in school improvement. The theories discussed include instructional leadership, distributed leadership and transformational leadership. The section further looks at the role of principals in South Africa, since they are the accounting officers.

Chapter four

Chapter three presents the theory used in the study. It discusses the three dimensions of Nancy Fraser's social justice theory using a human rights approach to give an understanding of how quality education and school safety are issues of social justice. The chapter begins by discussing Fraser's theory of social justice, followed by the historical perspective of human rights and how it can be implanted in unsafe and deprived schools to uphold learners right to quality education and safety.

Chapter five

Chapter five presents the research methodology that was used to explore the role of school leaders in school improvement and the challenges they face. It gives the justification of the paradigm chosen, the approaches and methods utilised to obtain and analyse data collected. Furthermore, it gives a detailed explanation of how the research site and the participants were chosen. Lastly, I conclude the chapter by highlighting how ethical issues were addressed.

Chapter six

Chapter six this study did not have a separate chapter for data presentation as done in some case. Instead chapters six and seven presented and analysed data. This chapter specifically presents and analyses data on leaders' perceptions of injustices that compromise safety and orderliness in their schools. It also presents the analysis about how multiple deprivation affects the schools. The data was from mainly individual interviews, focus group discussion, observation and photos.

Chapter seven

Like chapter six, this chapter presents the analysis of redistribution, recognition and representation strategies that leaders use to make their schools safe. Data used was from individual interviews, focus group discussion, observation and photos.

Chapter eight

Lastly, chapter eight will present an overall discussion of the major findings and state my major arguments about the role of leaders' in school improvement, contributions to the study, implications for practitioners, limitations of the study, recommendations and a summary of the study.

1.19 Conclusion of chapter

This chapter introduced the study area and ascertained the importance of the study through the background information given. There were numerous studies and media reports on school safety issues, such as school violence and infrastructural accidents. However, few studies investigated the social justice strategies that the leaders can implement to making schools safe and orderly as a basis of school improvement. The chapter began by discussing the background of the study to give an understanding of the problem and how it is linked to the objectives of

the study. This was achieved this by discussing the country, South Africa, where the study was conducted. I discussed the political, social, legal, economic and technological environments of the country.

Under the political environment, the chapter covered curriculum reform since the apartheid government used education to express their political agenda. I argue that this could have contributed to the injustices that are experienced in schools today. Next was the legislative environment. This section highlighted human rights conventions and policies that uphold learners right to safety and quality education. Some of the policies highlighted include RSA (1996a), NEP (1996) and the Employment of Educators Act of 1998. Next was the social environment, which covered language policy used in schools. It was noted that South Africa has eleven official languages. It further discussed parental involvement in South African schools. The discussion of both parental involvement and language policy were critical to the study, because they can be linked to school safety and orderliness. Economic environment gave an explanation of how the government redresses some of the injustices resulting from maldistribution through the quintile system. The schools were to raise the deficit, based on their budget. This makes multiple deprived vulnerable to burglary, because they cannot afford to install safety measures. Next were environmental factors, which covered green space and proximity to a highway. Most South African schools, especially those located in multiple deprived areas unlike their privileged counterparts serving mainly white learners do not have green space. This contributes to both physical and psychological safety issues. Likewise, schools located near highways are affected by noise, dust (and other forms of pollution) and accidents. From the national level, the study moved to the location where the study was conducted.

It captured the origin of Soweto: the socio-economic status of Soweto residents and the safety challenges they experience. I gave detailed statistics of major occupation of most residents and records of crime in the area. The purpose of this was to illuminate how the area is unsafe and deprived. It further gave an overview of the history of South African education and Bantu Education. This gave way to background of the study. I argue that the poor performance of South African schools in international tests could be attributed to the overwhelming safety issues that are experienced in most schools. This calls for the need to research ways in which to improve school safety.

The chapter gave a theoretical overview, conceptual framework and methodological approach used in the study. It concluded by giving a preview of the rest of the chapters. Chapter two will present school safety and orderliness and multiple deprivation.

2. CHAPTER 2: SCHOOL SAFETY AND MULTIPLE DEPRIVATION

2.1 Introduction

The previous chapter introduced the study. It captured the background, problem and the objectives of the study. It further gave an overview of the methodological approach used, a theoretical overview, expected contribution to the study and a preview of the rest of the thesis.

This chapter aims to conceptualise the context where the research was conducted. It therefore discusses the injustices of safety and orderliness and multiple deprivation that affects learners right to quality education. It begins by conceptualising safety and orderliness by exploring how it is perceived in other countries (Canada) and in South Africa, since the injustice of school safety and orderliness is a global problem. It further gives a historical context of school violence in the apartheid era. This is linked to the current situation of school violence. The chapter also discusses empirical studies on how leaders redress school safety and orderliness in developed countries, such as the United States and Canada. In addition, I explore studies on how the injustices are addressed in African countries, such as Zimbabwe, Kenya and South Africa. This part is concluded by discussing strategies that have been proposed for South African schools.

Section two of the chapter looks at multiple deprivation as a problem of maldistribution that affects the schools. It further gives the definition of multiple deprivation and the domains of multiple deprivation in South Africa. Lastly it gives a detailed discussion about the effects of the injustice of maldistribution on children since the learners are classified under children. Section 2.2 conceptualises safety and orderly schools.

2.2 Conceptualising safe and orderly schools

The Ontario Ministry of Education (2012) defines a safe and orderly school as “a place where all partners students, staff, parents and community members treat others fairly, with respect and kindness; and act in a socially responsible way towards all members of the school community, including students with special educational needs. It is an inclusive community, where diversity is affirmed with a framework of common values and where all members participate in decision-making and cooperate to promote the well-being of all (p.20)”. Such a school is characterised by: (a) caring and cooperative relationships (b) a framework of common

values that include-respect for all, rights and responsibilities, respect for individual differences (c) clear and consistent behavioural expectations; and appropriate and positive role-modelling by staff and students. While the discipline, safety and security unit of Gauteng Department of Education (GDE 2008) defines a safe school as one that is free from burglary and theft, physical and sexual abuse, gangsterism, drugs and alcohol, bullying, racism, dangerous physical structures and other threats (p.10).

Squelch (2001, p.138) propounds that a safe school is depicted by the presence of certain physical features for instance a secure wall, fencing, gates and buildings/structures that are in a good state of repair, and well-kept school compound. Associated with pointers of school safety are good discipline, a culture conducive to teaching and learning, professional educator conduct, good leadership and management practices and an absence or low degree of crime and violence. A safe and orderly school is therefore a healthy school, in that it is physically and psycho-socially safe. Bluestain (2011, p,6) affirms this by stating that a safe school offers physical, emotional and psychological safety for all the school personnel.

Quality education in a safe and orderly environment are human rights that every child is entitled to. These rights are enshrined in the South African constitution. Article 24 of the constitution of South Africa (1996) states that “everyone has a right to an environment that is not harmful to their health and well-being” and every child has a right to be protected from ill-treatment, neglect, abuse or degradation. In addition, the Gauteng Department of Education (GDE, 1997) recognises that these are social justice issues and proclaims that all learners and educators will be protected from all forms of physical or mental violence at schools. In order to redress this form of injustice, the leaders must guarantee that the school's physical spaces are usable, maintained and have safe facilities, which, above all, prevents injuries and gives safety and security.

However, most schools still face safety challenges. Studies conducted by Xaba (2006) indicated that most schools did not observe safety and security in their physical environment. The schools had cracks, broken doors and exposed foundations. In addition, the space between the classrooms were unkempt and poorly maintained. Likewise, Masitsa (2011, p. 165) attested that most schools experience injustices of unsafe conditions, threats of violence, poor resources and infrastructure, especially those located in deprived areas that historically suffered the

injustices of maldistribution of resources and misrepresentation. He added that such schools are vulnerable to attacks, such as robbery and other attacks from, and within, the community.

School safety is a problem and has been a problem in South Africa for decades with the leading form being violence in schools. This led to thousands of learners losing their lives. The next section therefore discusses the history of violence in South African Schools to better understand the current violence experienced in schools.

2.3 History of school violence in South African schools

Before discussing the history of violence in South African schools, it is better to define violence. There are a number of definitions of school violence, although there is no single, all-encompassing or universal definition. School violence has been defined as any action or threat of action resulting in intimidation, coercion, physical harm, or personal injury. "It can also range from bullying to violent deaths, including self-mutilation, suicide, and homicide" (Givens & Swearer, 2010, p.4). The definition of violence that informs this study is adopted from the World Health Organisation (WHO) 2002 report on violence and health. WHO (2002) defines violence as:

> The intentional use of physical force or power threatened or actual, (against oneself), another person, or against a group or community, that either results in or has high likelihood of resulting in injury, death, psychological harm, maldevelopment or deprivation (p.5).

The above definition includes self-inflicted harm and the inclusion of actual, and threats of, violence, as well as the inclusion of power and physical force. The term 'violence at school' or 'school violence' has been defined by the Centre for Disease Control (CDC) (2016, p.1) as "youth violence that occurs on the school property, on the way to or from school or school-sponsored events, or during a school sponsored event". A learner can be victim, a perpetrator, or a witness of school violence, which may also involve or impact adults like educators.

The injustice of violence in South African schools is not a new phenomenon. It can be traced back to the days of the apartheid government. According to Mnyaka (2006, p. 8), apartheid encouraged school violence: "it was a violent repression in itself and spawned violent resistance". Government sponsored violence was a common occurrence during apartheid

period, with schools being sites of violence (Vally, Dolombisa & Porteus, 1999, p.61). The young were actively involved in the liberation struggle against the oppressive policies that were meted out on them by the apartheid government (Seekings, 1993, p.20). This type of violence became the norm. It is therefore paramount to understand present day violence in South African schools with reference to the history of political and economic injustice and patterns of inequality in South Africa (Vally et al., 1999, p.40). This was elaborated by Hamber (1999, p. 114), who stated that "South Africans have a long history of socially sanctioning the use of violence to solve problems".

A case in point is the 1976 Soweto uprising. The uprising saw many students in the streets in protest of the injustices perpetuated by Bantu Education, which enforced that one half of all high school classes be taught in Afrikaans (Kallaway, 1991, p,30). Many youths abandoned schools, with some vowing to undermine the schools' ability to function. The learners organised widespread boycotts, strikes and rallies, damaged schools, attacked learners and educators who tried to attend school and made it difficult for administrators to maintain normal school activity. This was a retaliation against apartheid education (Vally et al., 1999, p.40). The government responded to this by killing over 1000 people, most of them being youths (Byrnes, 1996). The learners vowed to have liberation before education.

Studies conducted by researchers, such as Frankel (1993) and Klaasen (1990), suggest that many children have experienced violence with many preferring violence themselves. Current violent acts in schools and communities could be attributed to exposure to violent role models during apartheid, discipline from parents and other authority figures and the general acceptance of violent acts as a means to an end (Ward, 2007,p.12). The behaviour of children reflects the social environment to which they are exposed, and, in turn, the environment alters the children's behaviour (Ward, 2007). In his study, Burton (2008, p.60) found that children emulate what they see at home and the broader community in the school setting as well. This has been reflected in the current trends of violence witnessed in schools. The next section discusses current violence in South African schools.

2.4 Violence in South African schools

South African schools experience safety challenges that have continued to affect quality of education. School violence is major problem in South African schools. A recent report from

Dr Granville Whittle, Deputy Director-General, DBE suggested that the trend of school violence has reduced over the past few years. In 2013, the figure was reported at 14.9% and, in 2011, Statistics South Africa (Stats SA) reported it had gone down to 11.1% (DBE, 2019). However, Mhlongo (2017), supported by Grobler (2019), asserts that school violence in South Africa is still high. According to them, the latest statistics on school violence in South African schools are higher than that experienced in the United States of America, where, out of every 1000 learners, 57 experience violence of some sort.

Burton and Leoschut (2013, p. 26) indicated that more than a fifth (a total of 22%) of the sample had experienced some form of violence at their schools in the months preceding the study (from August 2011to August 2012). This figure means 1,020,597 secondary school learners nation-wide have succumbed to some type of violence while at school in the previous year. The rate was up by 0.2% from the 22% seen in the principal wave of the investigation, suggesting that violence in schools remained generally unaltered over the past four years (between 2008-2012). Furthermore, in 2019 a survey conducted by OECD Teaching and Learning International Survey (TALIS) indicated that "one out of three principals (34%) report the act of intimidation or bullying among their students occur at least weekly in their school, which is double the Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD) average (14%)".

In addition, about one out of four principals report weekly incidents related to the use or possession of drugs and/or alcohol at school; and vandalism and theft, which is comparatively not common in other countries. When considering theft of personal belongings, a study conducted by CJCP Burton and Leoschut (2013, p. 13) suggested that the general victimisation rate expanded fundamentally to 53.2%, showing that an aggregate of 2,445,756 secondary school students had succumbed to crime (including violent and property related crime) in the previous year.

Violence in schools has received significant media attention in South Africa (Burton & Leoschut, 2013, p. 27). Media reports often record terrible episodes, including various types of violence in South African schools, ranging from physical violence (such as beating and kicking); psychological and emotional violence; and sexual violence (such as unwanted sexual comments and touching) (De Wet, 2005; De Wet & Jacobs, 2009). For instance, incidents that hit the headlines include cases like the Hoërskool Driehoek walkway that collapsed claiming

four lives and injuring over twenty pupils (Dlamini, 2019); and the case of a five-year-old Michael Komape, a Grade R pupil, who suffered a gruesome death when the toilet collapsed and he fell in, on January 20, 2014 (Komape, 2014). There was also the story of 'another child (Lumka Mketwa) who died in a pit latrine at her school', Luna Primary School in Bizana in the Eastern Cape (Pather, 2018).

Then there was the case of a five-year learner, who was killed purportedly when individual learners pushed him before a heavy-duty lawnmower at a grade school in Soweto (Sapa, 2014). As if that is not enough, a report by the Education Member of Executive Chamber, Panyaza Lesufi, stated that schools had lost R120m in burglary and theft since the start of the academic year. He added that, out of 256 schools in the province, there had been 262 instances of robbery and vandalism detailed. In a breakdown of figures, the department said that, out of 15 districts in the province, Gauteng East was the most affected, losing more than R10.5m, while Ekurhuleni North was second, with losses of R4.2m due to theft and vandalism (Ngqakamba, 2019). The Clicks Foundation's office manager, Sihle Khanyile, also stated that they had lost 258 laptops in robberies and burglaries in schools in Gauteng since the beginning of the year. She further advised that the schools put up computer labs, alarm system and a strong room with a safe.

Latest media reports include the Forest High stabbing, where a nineteen-year-old (Mwela) is accused to have stabbed three other pupils, killing one of them (Daniel Bakwela) (Ngqakamba, 2019). In another news headline, a 48-year-old teacher, Sbonakaliso Nyawose, was shot and killed allegedly by an unknown man within the school premises (Dlamini, 2019). All these happened within the premises of the school, which clearly demonstrate the need to redress this injustice. The next section discusses the impact of violence in schools.

2.5 Impact of violence in schools

Violence within and outside the school affects most schools in South Africa. All forms of violence in school are social justice issues that infringe the fundamental rights of learners to quality education and safety. In addition, an unsafe and disorderly environment reduces the quality of education for all learners. The effect of school violence goes beyond the immediate physical harm that can result from the learner, or the psychological harm associated with either direct or indirect victimisation (Burton & Leaschut, 2013, p. 4). It has been observed that long

term effects of violence are more intense than short term effects. Immediate reactions may include physical, behavioural, emotional and cognitive response (U.S. Department of Health and Human Services, 2010). Physical response may include faintness or dizziness, hot or cold bodily sensations, tightness in the throat, stomach or chest and nausea or gastrointestinal distress among others. Behavioural reactions may include sleep disturbance, hypervigilance, interpersonal conflicts, avoidance of reminders of the trauma, inability to express feelings, withdrawal, and increased substance abuse. Emotional responses to trauma include shock, anxiety or fear, psychological numbness, grief and feelings of helplessness, hopelessness and vulnerability. Lastly, frequent cognitive reactions to trauma may include confusion or disorientation, poor concentration, complete or partial amnesia, flashbacks, self-criticisms, preoccupation with protecting loved ones and questioning of spiritual beliefs.

School violence can have a physical impact and it can cause psychological problems, permanent physical disability and long term physical or mental health (Baeva et. al.,2018, p. 81). Physical impact is the most common and may include mild or serious wounds, bruises, fractures and, ultimately, death by murder or suicide. Various studies have shown a correlation between corporal punishment and poor mental health (Naz. et al, 2011, p.11). Most of these studies have focused on harsh parenting, while some have focused on corporal punishment in schools. The studies suggest that victims of corporal punishment are likely to be passive and overly cautious and be afraid of expressing their ideas. In addition, they may become perpetrators of psychological violence. According to Effects of Abuse on Children (2010, p.8), children who are physically abused are less likely than other learners to internalise moral values and cannot resist temptation, help others, empathise with others, or exercise moral judgement of any kind. They tend to develop disorderly and aggressive conduct, such as fighting parents, siblings, school mates and boyfriends or girlfriends. These acts of aggression can be passed on from childhood to adulthood, where they hit their own children and so pass on the habit of violence. However, Thornberry and Henry (2013, p.14) argue that childhood maltreatment is not associated with an increased risk of becoming a perpetrator of maltreatment, whereas adolescent maltreatment is associated with a significant increase in the odds of becoming a perpetrator

Research has shown that learners who are victims of violence at school are bound to develop reactive attachment disorder. According to The Diagnostic and Statistical Manual 5th Edition

(2013), reactive mental disorder can be classified as a trauma and stressor related condition of early childhood caused by social neglect and maltreatment. Such children may have difficulty forming emotional attachment with others, less likely to show positive emotions, cannot seek or accept emotional closeness and may react violently when held or comforted.

The learners may display behaviour problems, which may be displayed as being unpredictable, difficult to control and have discipline problem. Such learners/children may elicit rage, violence, or self-harm. Such behaviours may interfere with effective teaching and learning (Champion, 2009, p. 42; Elbert et al., 2009, p.16). In addition, the learners' performance in class may be affected, which in turn leads to rejection by educators and fellow learners.

Other studies have shown that abuse or violence in childhood correlates with difficulties in working memory and decision making. In addition, such children/learners are more likely than their peers, who are not exposed to violence, to engage in risky sexual behaviour, drug and substance abuse and have problems with the law (Wilson et al, 2012, p.11). Furthermore, they are likely to be aggressive, fearful, defiant and act with rage. Violence associated with schools often results in truancy by learners, as they tend to become too scared to attend school in an attempt to avoid the violence. The is reflected in schools where the completion rate for learners from Grade R to matric is less than 50 % (DBE, 2010). It not only causes truancy, but also interferes with the learners' ability to concentrate in class or participate in other school activities, thus interfering with their performance. This is echoed by Silverstein et al. (2006, p. 796) who ascertain that "learners who experience high level of violence have low ability in reading, mathematics and general knowledge". Victims of school violence likely not to go to institutions of higher learning. In addition, they may develop low self-esteem and experience somatic symptoms of distress. This is mainly presented in form of restlessness and hyperactivity and movements like flapping of the hands or rocking. It is an indication of anxiety, depression, hyperactivity and it is also known to reduce frustration tolerance (Draper et al., 2008).

Research has also identified harmful effects of adverse childhood experiences (ACEs) (Frerrara et al., 2019, p. 3). ACEs, such as maltreatment or exposure to violence, impact negatively on the health of the learner. It is connected to health problems, such as the risk of cancer. They were also linked to limited physical activities, overweight and diabetes.

Other school personnel, like educators, are also affected by schools that are not safe and orderly. Espelage et al (2013, p. 15) reported that educators who experience violence in school often display symptoms of post-traumatic stress disorder (PTSD). According to Kataoka et al. (2012, p.2), to be diagnosed with PTSD, an individual must experience a traumatic event, "in which s/he perceives a threat to either self or other and experience distress (horror, fear, helplessness)". The main symptoms linked to PTSD are flashbacks, numbing, avoidance and hyperarousal. In their study, educators stated being the casualties of burglary, minor and genuine attacks, inconspicuous and plain dangers and property obliteration. It is not surprising, at this point, that studies have indicated that dread and uplifted degrees of stress that educators feel lead to burnout and less compelling work (Crafford & Viljoen, 2013). However, research conducted by Masitsa (2011, p. 171) on safety in township schools in the Free State Province indicates that educators were not affected by safety and orderly threats in schools.

Other studies conducted by Newman et al. (2004, p.34) found that educators and principals experienced long stretch outcomes, tallying illness, divorce, burnout and professional change. These authors found that, educators, explicitly, felt overlooked after the shootings. These feelings were heighted by reality that they were as regularly as conceivable expected to give emotional wellbeing to learners, although they were not qualified to do so.

Moreover, casualties of school violence may encounter Acute Stress Disorder (Plexousakis, 2019, p.20). ASD is portrayed by uneasiness, separation, and different pressure reactions, which happen within the month that the person has been exposed to a traumatic event. Basic manifestations of ASD incorporate mental desensitising, sense of being in a stupor, derealisation, depersonalisation and dissociative amnesia. The individual may also experience the occasion through repetitive pictures, flashbacks, considerations, dreams, or different side effects and may, in this way, stay away from occasions or circumstances that help the individual to remember the occasion. In the school, setting this might be shown by expanded non-attendance (Bryant, 2011, p. 25). The next section looks at empirical research on how schools have endeavoured to redress problems associated with injustices of safety and multiple deprivation.

2.6 Empirical research on how school leaders redress injustices of safety

The study focuses on how leaders can make their schools safe and orderly using social justice framework. It is therefore important to examine how the injustices of school safety have been redressed in other countries in order to locate the study in relation to current and historical empirical research. The examination of these studies helps in identifying the gap in knowledge that this study seeks to fill. I will therefore discuss empirical studies conducted in developed countries. This will be followed by research carried out in other parts of Africa. An unsafe and disorderly learning environment not only disrupts the classroom and denies learners quality learning (Dinkes, Cataldi & Lin-Kelly, 2007, p.35; Lezotte, 2010, p.12), but has a broader and lasting impact. Equally important, educators can suffer from emotional strain and burnout that damages their feelings of commitment and self-efficacy, leading to a negative depersonalising attitude towards learners (Hastings & Bham, 20013, p.17). The findings of these studies showed that school leaders generally enacted different mechanisms to redress the injustices of unsafe and disorderly schools. The following subsection provides an overview of studies conducted in developed countries.

2.6.1 Studies conducted in developed countries

This section will discuss empirical studies conducted in the United States of America and Canada, since most policies used in school safety originated from the two countries. This section will begin by looking at United State of America.

2.6.1.1 Studies conducted in United States of America

Over the past years, school safety has been a top agenda for policymakers at national, state and district levels. The three strategies that have been put in place are surveillance systems, prevention programmes and policies. Surveillance includes cameras, metal detectors and police presence in the school. Prevention programmes are outfitted towards expanding learners' pro-social practices and checking against anti-social practices/behaviours. School safety policies have been created to establish the significance of school safety as it relates to overall learner achievement and to give norms and rules to respond effectively to discipline and safety concerns. Surveillance systems have been proposed as a way of increasing school safety and decreasing school violence (Joong & Ridler, 2006, p.71; TCDSB, 2015).

Bracy (2011) conducted a study on students' perceptions and their interaction with various

modes of surveillance. Data from this study was gathered using an ethnographic study in two high security public schools situated in the mid-Atlantic region of the US. Cole High School's learner population comprised mostly white middle-class learners, with 11% of learners from low-income families. Vista High School, in contrast, comprised 75% white learners and 20% black learners, with 41% of its student body having a place with low-income family households (households were identified as low income if they qualified for breakfast programme). Data was collected from observation and individual face-to-face interviews. The participants were police officers, educators, all school administrators, disciplinary staff, learners and parents.

Most learners at the two schools in this study stated that their schools were safe places and felt that numerous security strategies were superfluous, while educators would in general consider security to be as a positive and important measure. This was corroborated by Vavrus and Cole's (2002, p.9) in the US mid-west, where most learners believed that their schools were safe. However, surveillance had negative effect on black learners by alienating them and stigmatising them as dangerous (Bracy, 2011, p.36).

Hankin, Hertz and Simon (2011) conducted an extensive review of research into the effectiveness of the use of metal detectors in reducing school violence. Every one of the studies reviewed used data that originated from a self-report survey concentrating on a scope of learners/staff impression of safety at school and learners' self-reports of weapon carrying or potentially exploitation. The findings showed mixed results. While Hankin et al. (2011, p. 63) established that there was some evidence that lower rates of weapon carrying were reported by students attending schools with metal detectors, they acknowledged that the implications of this finding were limited, given that the authors did not evaluate the association between metal detector use and weapon-related outcomes, such as rates of gun violence and weapon-related injuries.

Worryingly, a sizeable proportion of students in schools with metal detectors (7.8 percent) still reported carrying a weapon in school and learners in these schools were at equal risk of threats and fights, as students in schools without metal detectors. This indicates that the learners most intent on using a weapon to threaten or injure another person may be undeterred by the presence of metal detectors. Moreover, a study of middle and high school students showed that, in schools with principals reporting an average level of student problems, the presence of metal

detectors was actually associated with lower student perceptions of safety, rather than enhanced feelings of safety (Gastic, 2006, p.13).

Kupchik and Bracy (2010) conducted a study on inviting the criminal justice system (armed police officers) into the education space. The study was conducted in four public high schools in two states in Southwestern and mid-Atlantic regions in the United States of America. Two schools were sample from the two states. One school had a population of learners with a large low-income and racialised population, while the other mainly consisted of white middle-class learners. Data was collected by observation, that went on for six months, and interviews with 100 participants. The results showed the schools engaged police officers.

Learners felt safe with the presence of police officers in the school, because they were aware that the police officers had authority over them. In addition, the police officers at the schools recognised the learners' legal rights during circumstances that involved potential criminal consequences. Joong and Ridler, (2006, p. 38) argue that the effectiveness of surveillance systems in enhancing school safety remains an issue of debate, since most statistics of studies conducted in the US only manged to measure the extent to which the respondents were conscious of their behaviour and experiences and/or potentially the degree to which the respondents can admit to their encounters. Surveillance systems, such as police presences and/or cameras and metal detectors, in addition to prevention programmes have been considered useful for improving school safety.

In a three-year longitudinal mixed method study, conducted in Oklahoma in the United States, Lassen, Steele and Sailor (2006, p. 57) found that discipline (contributing factor to unsafe schools) was more effective when policies were combined with a whole-school Positive Behaviour Support Programme.

Data was collected at a middle school, with a population of 80% of learners coming from deprived neighbourhoods, based on the eligibility for students for free/ marked down value lunch. The Positive Behaviour Support Programme involved professional advancement of educators and school leaders, with a prize framework for learners who showed positive behaviour; and cooperative practices among learners, parents and educators who encouraged solid relations and positive practices. The results showed that the test scores increased each

year. Likewise, learners with less office discipline referrals scored higher on maths and reading tests. The findings of this study were improved in the light of the fact that, towards the start of the beginning of the study, Is spoke with the educators and school leaders to comprehend the hierarchical structure at the school and its extraordinary culture better.

In another longitudinal study, Bradshaw, Mitchell and Leaf (2010) investigate the impact of the Positive Behaviour Support Programme on learner violent behaviour and maths and reading test scores. The findings showed that the programme contributed to positive learner behaviour and test scores across a five-year period. Data was collected from Schoolwide Positive Behavioural Interventions and Supports from 37 public elementary schools, of which 21 were intervention schools and the remaining 16 were comparison schools in Maryland. Most of the learners at comparison schools were white, with less suspension and better reading abilities (Bradshaw et al., 2010, p.82). Like Lassen et al. (2006), the study on Positive Behavioural Support Programme in the school community's collaboration with learners' parents was instrumental in setting up closer and more grounded relationships that helped the improvement of the school climate.

Furthermore, Schools in the United States enforce a zero tolerance disciplinary policy, which requires school authorities to hand down explicit, consistent and harsh punishment, frequently as suspension or expulsion, when learners infringe certain school rules, regardless of whether the infringement was minor or unintended (Gjelten, 2017, p.26). Nevertheless, studies conducted by Levinsky (2016) in various districts on the use of zero tolerance policy exhibit the ineffectiveness of these disciplinary components and the inappropriate way they are applied to learners from racial minorities, learners with disabilities, those who are characterised as being consistent with behavioural problems and learners from low social economic background. The next subsection examines empirical studies conducted in Canada.

2.6.1.2 Studies conducted in Canada

Canada has utilised various strategies to enhance school safety and orderliness, just like the United States. In Canada, police involvement (School Resource Officers) in school safety became a fixture after the Ontario School homicide. It led to the introduction of police in the hallways and security cameras throughout the schools (Brown, 2014, p. 67). However, the current body of research on the effectiveness of police presence/School Resource Officer

(SRO) programmes is limited, both in terms of the number of studies published and the methodological rigour of these studies (James & MacAllion, 2013,p.42).

Fitzgerald (2010) analysed the relationship among youths' violent delinquency, parental monitoring and delinquent peers in Toronto schools. This included public schools in the Toronto District School Board and private schools in Toronto metropolitan area, excluding Catholic schools. Data was collected from 3184 learners from Grades 7 to 9. It was noted that learners were more likely to be violent when engaged in criminal activities, if they received little or no monitoring from their parents, who were not involved in their educational experience. Even though parental monitoring can be useful in dissuading delinquency among youth, it is still basic that the school climate boosts positive behaviour through policies and programmes (Fitzgerald, 2010, p.56).

In 2012, the Education Policy Department in Ontario endeavoured to improve inclusivity in schools by urging educators and school leaders to help learners who are keen on forming Gay-Straight Alliance group. This was formed with an aim of enhancing safety of sexual minority learners in a mixed-method study of Gay-Straight Alliance facilitators comprising educators, social workers, educational assistants and child and youth workers. The respondents were sampled from high schools and middle schools across Ontario (Kitchen &Bellini, 2013, p.19). Based on the surveys, over 78% of Gay-Straight Alliance facilitators appraised the general climate of their schools as safe for the most part, while over 56% evaluated their schools as safe for sexual minority learners. Even though this study examines the perspectives of Gay-Straight Alliance facilitators, it does not give information on the viability of Gay-Straight Alliances.

Another strategy used to redress injustices of school safety concerns are policies. The Columbine High School massacre, in April 1999 in the United States, and another school shooting, at W. R. Myers High School in Albert, Canada, that same year topped the list of crime stories in NBS, CSN broadcast (Centre for Media and Public Affairs, 2000). Madfis (2015) contended that this prompted for blanket solution, which led to the enactment of Bill 81in Toronto in 2001, which became the Safe School Act. This act was implemented in Ontario as a response to increasing school violence and offered a dynamic approach to discipline policy in the mid-2000s, because of government inquiries regarding expulsion and suspension of

disproportionate numbers of racialised learners and learners with exceptionalities (SSAT, 2006, p.70).

Blake et al. (2011) conducted a study on the effect of the Zero Tolerance Policy. The disciplinary approach of the policy greatly depended on suspension and expulsion. Blake et al. (2011, p.25) and Gregory et al. (2010, p.18) argue that policies based on Zero Tolerance philosophies, more often than not, advance exclusionary punishment that alienates and demotivates learners, even though they were initially implemented to advance school safety. The next section discusses studies conducted in Africa.

2.6.2 Studies conducted in Africa

While a considerable number of empirical studies on how to redress injustices of school safety has been conducted in developed countries, such as the United States and Canada, little has been done in African countries. The few studies that have been conducted show that all the countries have stipulated policies and programmes that aim to enhance safety and orderliness. However, most schools do not follow guidelines that are stipulated by the Department or Ministry of Education. This could be attributed to lack of knowledge on how to implement these policies.

Linked to this, is the lack of funds to implement the policies, since some of the strategies require a lot of funds for measures such as infrastructural design or the installation of security cameras and mental detectors. Above all, some of these strategies, such as the inclusion of sexual minority by forming Gay-Straight Alliance group (see Kitchen &Bellini, 2013), are alien to the African context in as much as the constitution recognises that population. The next sub-section will look at studies conducted in Kenya, Zimbabwe and South Africa where the study was conducted. It begins by discussing Kenya.

2.6.2.1 Studies conducted in Kenya

Safety and orderliness are also a problem in Kenya. Kenyan schools have experienced fire tragedies where many learners have lost their lives. For example, in 1998 fifty-eight learners died in a dormitory fire at Bombolulu Secondary School. In 2001 sixty-seven learners burnt to death and twenty- eight others were injured in another dormitory fire at Kyanguli High School. These and many more incidents of fire tragedies led the Ministry of Education Science and

Technology to formulate school safety policies that are mainly infrastructural (see Safety standards manual for schools in Kenya, 2008). It is, therefore, common that studies conducted in Kenya on school safety hinge on infrastructure or disaster preparedness.

Ronoh (2018) conducted research into the adequacy of safety procedures and infrastructure for school safety in Kenya. The study adopted a survey research design. Data for the study was gathered using questionnaires, an interview schedule and an observation schedule. In addition, document analysis was done on school policies, vision and mission statements and routines in relation to safety procedures. These included timetables and programme routine, memos, reports and staff minutes.

The respondents selected for this study were principals, educators, learners and other school personnel. Members of the community and education officers were also interviewed, as key informants. The sample size drawn was 210, which constituted 140 learners, 35 educators, 14 non-teaching personnel, 10 community members, 7 principals and 4 key informants.

From the studies, Ronoh (2018, p. 409) stated that schools strongly relied on reactive prohibitive policies and legislation to address the adequacy of infrastructure and safety procedures. There was a gap between safety policies in school environmental and infrastructural designs, as stipulated by Ministry of Education Science and Technology (2008, p.16), and reality in most schools especially those whose buildings were constructed many years ago. Half of the old buildings in schools had a conventional type of windows that did not pass the current required standards. In addition, the schools' environmental and architectural designs did not adequately enhance school safety, and most were characterised by the lack of elaborate fencing and surveillance. These findings are in line with Statistics & Mines (2017, p. 49), which explains the negative results of the lack of proactive measures in strengthening procedures and infrastructure for safety. The next sub-section looks at the strategies school leaders in Zimbabwe used to make schools safe.

2.6.2.2 Study conducted in Zimbabwe

In Zimbabwe, Ngara and Magwa (2015) conducted a case study on School Safety: Practices and Issues in Gweru Urban Schools in Zimbabwe. The study used Casey's (3015) check list to establish how school safety and orderliness were enhanced. In their study, they found that the four sampled schools had some degree of safety, even though they were safety challenges.

Forty-seven participants stated that their schools enhanced safety and orderly measures by fencing the school campus. In addition, 41 participants mentioned that security guards were used to promote safety. Connected to this, 22/25 imparted the view that the use of one entrance to the school was another safety measure that was enhanced within the schools.

The schools had strict learner code of conduct and fire extinguishers. The majority of the participants stated that the expulsion of learners, whose behaviour put the safety of others at risk, was another mechanism the schools used to improve safety and orderliness. Boarding schools went further and had screens on the dormitory doors. Lastly, the schools had first aid kits and guidance and counselling services for learners. It is clear that very little has been done to explore strategies used to make schools a safe space for both learners and educators. The next section looks at studies conducted in South Africa, where the research was conducted.

2.6.2.3 Studies conducted in South Africa

Injustices of school safety and orderliness are a major challenge in South Africa (see Burton, 2008, Burton and Leoschut, 2013). However, the role of leaders in redressing this has not received significant attention. There are no national studies conducted and published on how school leaders enhance school safety to improve learner performance. In addition, there is no single research that has attempted to provide a holistic insight into how school leaders make schools safe and orderly. Nevertheless, it is worth noting that there are polices stipulating how schools can be made safe and orderly, as stated in RSA (1996a), but the extent to which they are implemented remains a mystery. Studies that have been conducted into school safety in South Africa include one by Netshitahame and Vollenhoven (2002, p.31), who examined the extent to which the safety of learners is ensured in the rural public primary schools in the Soutpansberg East Circuit in Northern Province. Furthermore, it was aimed at identifying practical implications of the maintenance of physical facilities and the implementation of safety policies for education management, together with the school governing body.

Safety policies and programmes existed and were applied at 10% of the schools. At another 20%, safety policies existed but were not applied to ensure safety, while 70% of the schools had no safety policies or programmes and nothing was done to ensure safety for the learners on the school property, or during official school activities. This was contrary to RSA (1996a), which requires schools to have clear safety policies and programmes. Furthermore, most

schools did not have safety committees, but had one educator who handled safety related issues. Much as RSA (1996a) and the Canadian Safety School Task Force (1994, p. 340) recommend that schools establish a safety committee and sub-committees to address safety issues. These schools were therefore faced with numerous safety problems.

Xaba (2014) conducted a study into the effectiveness of the implementation of safety and security measures at public schools in South Africa. He found that safety and security measures are not implemented effectively. What was noticeable was that there were attempts to make schools safe and secure, but these were not systematic. The schools had organised structures like school safety committee and policies, but they were not fully functional. Some principals mentioned that they monitor the school campus and have installed metal detectors to control the carrying of weapons in school. In addition, they have erected parameter fence to control access. Subsequently, they responded to safety and security issues as they occurred. It was noted that these schools still experienced some safety threats, therefore a lot still needs to be done in this area.

The overview of empirical studies conducted in South Africa indicated that there were no previous studies on how school leaders enhance school safety holistically. In addition, the few studies that were conducted either focused on physical safety, leaving out behavioural safety or psychological safety. The findings from these studies suggested that some schools did not have school safety guidelines. The few that were implemented they implemented haphazardly with no consistency.

In addition, schools that had metal detectors to control the carrying of weapons, perimeter fences and access control still experienced safety threats. This supports the notion that no single approach can work. There may have been a need to incorporate guidance and counselling, or to increase the number of personnel to help monitor learners.
The next section discusses interventions for school safety and orderliness that has been proposed for South African schools.

2.7 Redistributive and recognition strategies for alleviating safety and orderliness

In response to learners' right to safety, a list of enactment was passed after 1994. These laws and guidelines were done for the assurance of children, when all is said in done and, explicitly,

children as learners. The UN Convention on the Rights of the Child (1989) and the South African Constitution (1996) have both made extraordinary rights for children as exploited people and culprits of wrongdoing (Redpath, 2007). Article 19 of the UN Convention obliges the government to take all estimates conceivable to shield children from injustices, such as savagery and misuse, while Article 40 gives unique rights to children accused for criminal activities (Redpath, 2007, p.42).

In South Africa, The Child Care Act of 2005 and Section 10 of the South African Schools Act of 1996 accommodate the assurance of learners against physical and mental harm (DoE, 2005; DoE, 1996). Masitsa (2011, p.166) asserts that the expectation of section 10(2) of SASA (RSA,1996a) prohibits the scourge of corporal punishment on learners by school personnel, which is with regards to the Constitution of The Republic of South Africa. The Constitutional right of people, for the most part encapsulated in section 12(1)(c) and (e) and 28(1)(d) of the Constitution that states:

> to be free from all forms of violence from either public or private sources [and] not to be treated or punished in a cruel or inhuman or degrading way [and] children in particular‟ to be protected from maltreatment, neglect, abuse or degradation.

Key policies illuminating and pushing for justice in South African schools include the National School Safety Framework; Safety in Education Partnership Protocol between the Department of Basic Education and the South African Police Service (SAPS); the Regulations for Safety Measures at Public Schools; the National Strategy for the Prevention and Management of Alcohol and Drug Use among Learners in Schools; the National Drug Master Plan; and the National Anti-Gangsterism Strategy.

2.7.1. The National School Safety Framework

The National School Safety Framework, created by the Department of Basic Education (DBE), Centre for Justice and Crime Prevention (CJCP), and other key-administrative partners, centres around an "entire of school approach" to violence counteractive action and safety advancement in schools (CJCP, 2016, p.12; European Agency for Safety and Health at Work, 2013,p.41; Shaw, 2005, p.5). As such, this Framework distinguishes the basic job of all school partners in guaranteeing a complete way to deal with safety in the school condition. The reason for this

Framework is "to make a safe, violence and risk-free, steady learning condition for learners, educators, principals, school governing bodies and organisation" (CJCP, 2016, p.10).

The National School Safety Framework, together with the Regulations for Safety Measures in Public Schools, requires each school to actualise the accompanying approaches: a) a School Safety Policy b) a School Safety Plan c) a strategy on school safety d) a Code of Conduct for Learners. School wellbeing/safety mediations are to be observed by the Safe School Committee in each school (CJCP, 2016, p,8; DBE, 2012).

Every school is required to direct a yearly overview. The National School Safety Framework gives the review formats to these yearly reviews, which are to be led with all school partners, including students, teachers and principals. The discoveries of the study are to be aggregated into a yearly school safety report that should be submitted to the corresponding District Safe School Coordinator. Educators are to forward any case of violent criminal activities committed by learners to the nearest police station. In addition, they are to report cases of learners they suspected to be abused at home (DBE, 2015). The next section looks at safety in education partnership protocol.

2.7.2 Safety in Education Partnership Protocol

In 2011, the South African Police Service (SAPS) and the DBE drew up the Safety in Education Partnership Protocol (RSA, 2013; DBE, 2016; CALS, AVON Foundation for Women & Ford Foundation, 2014). This Protocol identifies these two government stakeholders as primarily responsible for ensuring safety in schools, during school hours (CJCP, 2016; RSA, 2013; DBE, 2016). It expects them to cooperate to make safety committees in schools and to guarantee that all schools are linked with a neighbourhood police station (RSA, 2013; DBE, 2016). It calls for school-based crime avoidance projects to avert and lessen crime among learners and to improve the general wellbeing in schools and Early Childhood Development Centres (CJCP, 2016; DBE, RSA, and SAPS, 2011). Another key part of this Protocol is the prerequisite for all schools to create safety episode reporting mechanisms, guarantee stringent access control; and authorise the restriction of access to risky weapons and unlawful substances at school (DBE, RSA, and SAPS, 2011). This is followed by school partnership with non-governmental organisations.

2.7.3 School partnership with Non-Governmental Organisations (NGOs)

According to Rollison et al. (2013, p. 3), partnerships between the government and non-governmental organisations (NGO) division have likewise been created to counter school-based crime and violence. Youth violence reduction programmes in schools, for example South African National Council of Alcohol and Drug Dependence (SANCA) Centre for the Study of Violence and Reconciliation's (CSVR) Safe Schools programme, which is a result of the association between the South African Police Services (SAPS) and the DoE, plan to make schools in which the personnel are generally safe of physical and emotional damage. These projects perceive that crime and violent conduct are results of cultural issues and that wellbeing in schools couldn't be the schools' private obligation, yet that networks expected to get required too.

In attempting to get networks included, NGOs have, in this manner, executed projects and undertakings in networks of need. Khulisa Social solutions works with corporations and the government to coordinate and facilitate projects on poverty alleviation, ex-offender rehabilitation, crime reduction, victim empowerment and community uplifting. Lawyers for Humans Right (LHR, 1979) provide free legal services to vulnerable, marginalised and indigent individuals and communities to protect their constitutional rights. Community policing Relation promotes and facilitate community interest in police supervision to build partnerships with community structures, in order to achieve improved police accountability, community trust and increase safety. The South African National Council of Alcohol and Drug Dependence (SANCA) helps schools with the prevention of drug abuse in schools and the treatment/rehabilitation of learners who were dependent on drugs.

A portion of these ventures have proven to be more fruitful than others, yet they all have their shortcomings (Griggs, 2012, p. 13). Endeavouring to address crime and violence, large numbers of these associations decided to address social issues inside the network or school. Various activities centre around instructing and preparing educators, learners, the school board and Department of Education authorities (Griggs, 2012, p. 13). Notwithstanding, others focused on social issues (for example, crime, HIV, bigotry, sex brutality and injury) through expanding discourse and policy improvement and formulation. Positive conduct change is additionally tended to numerous NGO programs. Notwithstanding this, not one project has

demonstrated to be completely fruitful, as prevalence rates keep on ascending as discussed in the following segment.

2.7.4 Regulations for Safety Measures at Public Schools

The Regulations for Safety Measures at Public Schools, Regulation 1128 of 2006, demand that all schools in South Africa are to be free of drugs, liquor and hazardous weapons. As a component of these guidelines, people are restricted from entering a school on the off chance that they have expended liquor or unlawful substances, or in the event that they have a perilous weapon with them. On the off chance that there is a solid motivation to believe that somebody at a school is in possession of any of these things, a police officer, the principal or that school, or an explicitly assigned individual is permitted to search this person.

Extra procedures planned for tending to and reacting to the utilisation of liquor and unlawful substances in schools are the National Strategy for the Prevention and Management of Alcohol and Drug Use among Learners in Schools and the National Drug Master Plan. Next section looks at National Anti-Gangsterism strategy.

2.7.5 National Anti-Gangsterism Strategy

In June 2016, the South African Cabinet affirmed the National Anti-Gangsterism Strategy (WC DOCS, 2017). This Strategy recognises the critical negative effect that gangsterism has on schools located in gang ridden neighbourhoods (NICOC, 2015). The Strategy further tries to anticipate and react to gang brutality/violence and remediate the effect of this viciousness, through various activities. These activities incorporate school-based just as community-based intercessions. The Strategy emphasises the significance of guaranteeing the effective usage of the National School Safety Framework, the National Strategy for the Prevention and Management of Alcohol and Drug Use among Learners in Schools, and the Safety in Education Partnership Protocol. An impediment, in any case, is that it doesn't itself give any new proposals or down to earth recommendations for adequately addressing school violence. Next section outlines school bases crime prevention programme.

2.7.6 School Based Crime Prevention Programme

In recent years, the SAPS has made school safety a priority. This focus was emphasised in the 2016/17 SAPS Annual Report. Notwithstanding the Safety in Education Partnership Protocol,

SAPS and the DBE have additionally built up a Schools-based Crime Prevention Programme. The Medium-Term Strategic Frameworks (2015-2019) of the two Departments encourages the execution of this programme.

The objectives of the programme include:

> 1) Strengthening of school safety committees in addressing crime and violence in schools. 2) Connecting schools with local police stations. 3) Mobilising communities to take ownership of schools in their areas. 4) Raising awareness among learners about violence and its impact. 5) Encouraging schools to establish crime/safety reporting system at their school. 6) Implementing of school-based crime prevention programme in collaboration with relevant provincial, district and local officials. 7) Specialised operations for hotspot schools, including visible policing and patrols and 8) closure of illegal shebeens and liquor outlets within a 500m radius of schools (SAPS, 2017).

2.7.7 School safety guidelines

School safety guidelines in yet another strategy that has been used to redress injustices experienced in schools. Gevers and Flisher (2012) gave a framework for preventing violence in schools based on the recommendations developed by Burton (2008, p. 103-106). Below are some of the recommendations

> The Department of Basic Education should track the adherence of schools to minimum safety standards and efforts to prevent and respond to school violence, particularly through regular data collection on school violence and prevention programs. 2) School policies and strategies, including a definite implicit code of conduct, advancing non-violence and setting out proper responses and ramifications for violence as per the Department of Basic Education's base gauges of safety should be executed and plainly conveyed to every one of those inside the school network. 3) School staff should be educated and supported in effective and suitable classroom management and be considered responsible for violence inside the schools by upholding school non-violence strategies with fitting methods and any staff who commit violence in the school should be quickly and definitively restrained. 4) Get youths' input when designing such programmes and be sure to make them available throughout the year and accessible to all. 5) Research efforts need to be increased so that programmes are effectively monitored and evaluated to inform programme improvement and generalisability to other schools. 6) Planned,

co-ordinated and consistent extramural activities should be organised to involve learners in positive leisure activities after formal school hours (Gevers & Flisher, 2012, p. 206-207).

The above recommendation has not been fully implemented. Educators still complain of policies that are imposed on them with no training at all. The next section looks at bullying interventions in schools.

2.7.8 Bullying interventions in schools

Various researchers have come up with different ways of controlling bullying in schools. Olweus and Limber (2010, p. 11) assert that schools should not tolerate bullying. This ought to be incorporated inside the school policy and all educators and staff must be prepared in how to screen and mediate when bullying happens. In addition, clearly stated rules against bullying, which state ramifications for such conduct, should be displayed in the classrooms. On the same note, Farrington and Ttofi (2009, p. 88) recommend that children ought not to be left without supervision when they are at school, as this improves the probability of bullying.

Schools must refrain from unfortunate victim accusation and guarantee that culprits get firm control in a timely manner (Olweus & Limber, 2010, p.14). Bullying can also be controlled if educators conduct mediations with children who are bullies to encourage pro-social behaviour (Olweus & Limber, 2010; Frrington & Ttofi, 2009). Most importantly, the school should meet with the guardians of both culprit and the victim (Farrington & Ttofi, 2009, p. 88). Gender based violence is yet another common injustice in South African schools, therefore it is important to discuss how it can be controlled in schools.

2.7.9 Addressing sexual violence against girls in South African Schools

The Sexual Violence against little girls in Schools in South Africa (SeVISSA) is an activity run by the CJCP in a joint effort with the University of Cape Town and Comic Relief. The SeVISSA venture is, as of now, being run in 40 schools in Gauteng, Limpopo, Eastern Cape and the Western Cape. The motivation behind this project is “to reduce violence against children, but particularly girls, in South African schools, and thereby improve their access and performance at school, enhancing their educational outcomes and that of all school children” (CJCP, 2017, p.10). The mediation includes a) executing of the National School Safety Framework in the schools associated with the undertaking; b) sharing key results and lessons

gained from the intercession with outer partners, including presenting the mediation at conferences; c) publishing research findings.

From the above, it is worth noting that an entire school approach and a synergistic, intersectoral approach are vital to the viability of safety/wellbeing activities in schools. Secondly, many learners have little to do after school and are in danger of participating in reprobate conduct. Thus, there is a genuine requirement for the improvement of positive after-school programmes at schools. Other provinces in South African organise after school programmes to keep the learners away from engaging in dangerous activities after school. Some of these are discussed in the next section.

2.7.10 After School Game Changer programme

The After-School Game Changer is a community-oriented activity between the Western Cape Government, the City of Cape Town, various NGOs and common society associations (WCG, 2018). This programme aimed at ensuring "regular and consistent participation of learners in after school programmes will improve learner outcomes, reduce school dropout rates and reduce risk taking behaviour'' (WCG, 2018, p.5). This was consistent with the Alliance (2017, p. 4) argument that learners who were engaged in after-school programmes were less likely to be involved in bad activities.

Other school safety interventions include Bom Combat School Intervention; the Sozo Educentre and Butterfly Art Project's Sozo Educentre Programme; Gun Free South Africa's Gun Free Zones in Schools initiative, the International Centre of Non-Violence's project Promoting Non-Violence in Schools and the Bridges School Drug and Alcohol Programme. Since the research was conducted in an area that has faced maldistribution of resources, it is therefore important to discuss multiple deprivation in the next section.

2.8 Understanding multiple deprivation

The working definition in this thesis follows that of Townsend 1987,who defined people as deprived if "they lack the types of diet, clothing, housing, household facilities, fuel, environmental, educational, working and social conditions, activities and facilities which are customary" (Townsend, 1987, p.131). On the other hand, poverty can be perceived as lack of resources, which lead to deprivation. This is in line with Townsend's argument that people are

poor if "they lack the resources to obtain the type of diet, participate in the activities and have the living conditions and amenities which are customary, or at least widely encouraged or approved in the societies to which they belong" (Townsend, 1979,p. 31). Deprivation, therefore, refers to people's unmet needs, while poverty refers to the lack of resources to meet those needs. Multiple deprivation is the accumulation of single dimension or domains of poverty (Townsend, 1987).

The South African domains of multiple deprivation was developed from the 2001 census data and comprises five domains and thirteen indicators (Noble, Barnes, Wright et al., 2009, p.8-15). The indicators are elaborated in Table 2.1.

South Africa is a country of extremes. Minority group are wealthy, while a large population of South African nationals live in multiple deprivation, a social justice issue that affects a large population of South African nationals, particularly children. According to Meintjes et al (2008, p. 14), approximately 60% of South African children live in multiple deprivation. It is worth discussing child deprivation as a result of maldistribution of resources in south Africa, since it has enduring effects on children. The South African Index of Multiple Deprivation for Children (SAIMDC) was generated from census 2001, where five domains of deprivation were established with a total of fourteen indicators. The domains included: the income and material domain, the employment domain, the child education domain, the living environment domain and the adequate care domain (Barnes et.al. 2008, pg. 4). The next section discusses income and material deprivation domain.

Domain	**Definition**	**Indicators**	**Comments**
Income & material domain	Proportion of people in a specified area experiencing income and material deprivation.	1. Number of people living in household with less than the stipulated income level. 2. Number of people living in a household without a refrigerator. 3. Number of people living in a household with no television or radio.	Income level less than 40% of the national average household income mark the critical watershed.
Employment deprivation domain	Proportion of people in specified area living in households, where people experience involuntary unemployment.	4. Number of people who are officially unemployed. 5. Number of people who are not working due to disability or illness.	Unemployment is closely related to poverty in many ways including lack of income and other forms of social deprivation.

Health deprivation domain	Proportions of people in a specified area living in households, where relatively high numbers of people die prematurely.	6. Years of potential life lost.	Measured by comparing the ages of people under 75 who die in households.
Education deprivation domain	Proportions of people in households in a specific area with low levels of education.	7. Proportions of adults aged 18 to 75, with no schooling at secondary level.	Lack of parental education up to secondary level has implications with regard to family capacity to support children with school learning.
Living environment deprivation	Proportions of people in a specific area living in poor quality environment.	8. Number of people living in a household with no piped water within 200m. 9. Number of people living in household lacking either flushing toilets or ventilated pit latrines. 10. Number of people living in households with no electricity for lighting. Number of people living in households with no telephone access. 11. Number of people living in shacks	Relates to material deprivation.

Figure 2-1: Domains and indicators of deprivation ***(Source: Maringe and Moletsane, 2015)***

2.8.1 Income and material deprivation domain

This domain aimed at capturing the number of children below eighteen that are faced with income and material deprivation in a given area. Research shows that children, living in households that are faced with income deprivation, are deprived of other resources (Jensen, 2009, p.17). However, Census 2001 does not touch on child specific material deprivation. It covers the number of children living in a household that has income below 40% of the mean equivalent household income. In addition, it captures the number of children in households with neither refrigerators, television nor radio. The next is the employment deprivation domain, which affects children directly or indirectly.

2.8.2 Employment deprivation domain

The employment deprivation domain aimed at measuring the number of children below eighteen living in households where no adult was employed. Children living in such households were likely to suffer from deprivation associated with no employed adult. Employment

deprivation was arrived at by calculating the number of children living in households where there was no adult (persons eighteen and above) in employment by the total number of the child population. Next is the education deprivation domain.

2.8.3 Education deprivation domain

The education domain purposed to capture the scope of children's educational deprivation in a particular area. The indicators of this domain measured educational advantage. It captured children who were one or more year behind in school and children who did not attend school. The question of Census 2001 tackled the number of children aged between age nine and fifteen, who were in the wrong grade based on age. Next was the number of children, between the age of seven to fifteen, who were not attending school. The indicators were then calculated and added. The next section looks at the living environment deprivation domain.

2.8.4 Living environment deprivation

The living environment domain aims at establishing children living in impoverished quality environment. A number of indicators were used to measure the quality of children's livelihood. The indicators included the quality of housing, amenities within the dwelling and access to living space. The indicators used were: 1) Number of children living in a household without piped water inside their dwelling or yard within 200 metres 2) Number of children living in a household without pit latrine with ventilation or flush toilet 3)Number of children living in a household without the use of electricity for lighting or 4) Number of children living in a household without access to a telephone or 5) Number of children living in household that is a shack or 6) Number of children living in a household that is crowded (Nobel et al., 2001, p. 8-15).

The sample portion of children living in households experiencing one or more of the above domains was calculated by the total child population. The next section outlines adequate care deprivation.

2.8.5 Adequate care derivation domain

This domain of deprivation aimed at capturing children below eighteen who lacked adequate care. It is worth noting that the census did not provide for indicators that determined if children receive adequate care. That notwithstanding, the portion of children at risk of inadequate care can be detected. The main determiner of groups of such children are those living in child-

headed households and with no adult care givers, who live with neither their biological mother nor father. This is mainly attributed to labour migration of parents, or due to death of parents as a result of HIV/AIDS (Foster, 2000, p.56; Tsegaye, 2008, p.16). Such children are usually taken care of by foster parents or relatives, but they stand a high chance of inadequate care form these care givers. In addition, they may face instability that needs reacclimatising to the new state (Henderson, 2006, p. 84). This domain was guided by the following: 1) Number of children whose mother and father are no longer alive or not living in the household 2) Number of children living in a child headed household. A sample of children experiencing either forms of indicators was calculated by dividing sample with the total population of the children.

It was established that about 81% of children experienced material deprivation nationally, with a total of 50% experiencing employment deprivation. The highest domain of deprivation was living environment deprivation, with 77%. Adequate care domain of deprivation was at 25% (census, 2001). In addressing education, 24% of children were found to be in the wrong grade for their age and 6% of school-going age were not in school. Multiple deprivation, as discussed above has numerous impacts on both adults and children. The next section discusses the effects of multiple deprivation on learners/children.

2.9 Effects of multiple deprivation as a problem of maldistribution and misrecognition

Multiple deprivation as a problem of maldistribution and misrecognition has enduring effects on children's outcome and is a grave matter in South Africa, where more than 60% of children below the age of eighteen are estimated to be living in multiple deprivation (Meintjes et al., 2008). "It erodes the future of children and hampers any attempt to educational reform" (Capra, 2009, p. 76). The implications of living in deprivation are overwhelming and can affect children even before they enter school.

According to the American Psychology Association (APA) (APA, 2015), children are affected by deprivation though out their life. The effect is grave in the early stages of their lives. APA (2015) further states that deprivation is closely associated with low birth weight, behavioural and emotional problems, poor physical health, low birth weight and poor academic performance. In addition, it affects emotional development, cognitive development and social development of an individual particularly children.

The effect of deprivation on cognitive development is supported by a large body of research, which suggests that income affects school readiness (Masten et al., 2012, p.9; Luther & Cicchetti, 200, p.41). Many children from low deprived households experience delays in early cognitive and social-emotional development, with skills below those of children from affluent households (Campbell & Von Stauffenberg, 2008, p.57). For this reason, children from deprived households tend to score poorly on standardised measures of literacy and numeracy, compared to children from affluent families (Halle, Terry-Humen, Lavelle & Calkins, 2006; Masten et al., 2012). This achievement gap is present as early as Kindergarten level (Yoshikawa et al., 2013).

Various scholars argue that school readiness begins at home. Readiness begins when young children talk to parents and other people at home. Studies conducted by Barr and Parrett (2007) showed that children from deprived households have smaller vocabulary, because of less use, or because of exposure to less complex language. This translated to reading readiness and various types of subject matter.

As earlier stated, deprivation can also affect the weight of a child at birth. This translates to other complications. Mc Laughlin and Stansell (2013, p.26) assert that children who are underweight at birth are at a higher risk of having learning disabilities, which may include intellectual impairment, lower level of numeracy and literacy and grade retention. Several studies attest to this negative effect of multiple deprivation. Barkley (2006) and Bigelow (2006), in their studies, found that mothers living in multiple deprivation stand a chance of giving birth to children with hyperactivity disorder, or some form of mental retardation.
Similarly, Jensen (2009, p. 7) identified four main ways in which multiple deprivation impacts on individuals. He listed them as “emotional and social challenges, acute and chronic stressors, cognitive lags and safety issues”. He further elaborates that children faced with multiple deprivation challenges grapple with emotional instability due to an unsafe environment, inadequate care, poor personalised interaction and complex responsibilities they are faced with.

Selye (1976) argues that stress can either be chronic or acute. Acute stress occurs when an individual is exposed to extreme trauma such as abuse or violence, while chronic stress can be experienced when one is exposed to intense stress over a period of time. The two types of stress

affect children physically, psychologically, emotionally and, ultimately, academically and socially.

Learners are affected academically mainly in form of cognitive lags, which is presented in different ways. It has been noted by various researchers that there is a correlation between multiple deprivation and cognitive lags presented as low IQ, poor literacy and numeracy, poor academic achievement and grade retention (Blanden & Machin, 2010, p.49; Schoon et al., 2012. P.8). This was contrary to children from economic advantaged environments, who displayed high cognitive abilities (APA, 2013. P.10).

It has also been observed that learners from multiple deprived households are likely to have poor health. Gladstone et al. (2008, p. 479) found that, in Vellore, India, a large sample of the study participants from multiple deprived households had poor health. It was estimated that about one-fifth of them had respiratory and gastrointestinal problem right from infancy. Learners from multiple deprived households are also likely to suffer from other conditions, such as anaemia and otitis media (Ackan el al., 2019, p. 18). Acute otitis media can be defined as effusion in one, or both, middle ears, accompanied by one more sign of acute illness including earache, ear tugging, fever, irritability lethargy, anorexia, vomiting or diarrhoea. According to Berliner (2005, p. 32) persons who suffer from otitis media recurrently are likely to have hearing impairment which may affect language development and consequently difficulty in hearing. Such learners learn less because they miss school frequently due to ill-health compared to those from privileged households.

In addition, children from deprived households more often than not are known to be under-nourished (Atinmo, 2009, p.541). Under nutrition has diverse effects on children below eighteen years. It can affect the developing brain, which ultimately leads to behaviour problems and learning difficulty. Alamy and Bengeleoun (2012, p. 1464) endorsed this, by further explaining that “nutrition affects the central nervous system by altering morphological, biological and physiological characteristics”.

Multiple deprivation weakens the ability to parent adequately. Tobach and Schneirla (1968, p.31) described parenting as “a biological and social process that includes birthing, providing for basic physical needs and offering protection until the child is able to care for himself”.

Halpern (1990) adds that parenting not only meets the survival needs of the child, but also includes mediation of the environment, responsiveness to the child's mood, communication and emotions, consistency in responses to the child and physical and emotional availability to the child. Parents shape their children's behaviour. Parenting ability is weakened by living in conditions characterised by deprivation and the effects of stresses associated with deprivation on psychological well-being.

According to 'Family stress model', living in poverty can put pressure on spousal relationships. The pressure can contribute to depression and increased family disfunction (Conger et. Al., 2000, p.41). The model assumes that the problems caused by poverty lead to poor parenting. This includes a lack of guiding children's behaviour, lack of warmth, poor monitoring of children, inconsistency and display of aggression by care givers or siblings. Figure 2-2 is 'family stress model'.

It has been observed that parents living in multiple deprived households tend to be harsh towards their children. They use more punitive measures, rely on corporal punishment, are less consistent and more likely to be coercive, than parents from privileged households (Fontes, 2005. P.8). The underlying cause of this poor parenting skill is associated with distress experienced by parents living in deprivation (Conger et al., 2000, p.16). On the contrary, Kaiser and Delaney (2013) note that deprivation alone does not warrant harsh parenting strategies and outline factors that include education background, family history and parental beliefs. Gershoff (2008) asserts that harsh parenting, such as administering physical punishment, contributes to child aggression, antisocial behaviour, low academic achievement, poor relationships, mental health problems and loss of morals.

Deprived households are limited to a neighbourhood. They reside in neighbourhoods that are deprived. People living in such neighbourhood are generally more likely to be victims and/or perpetrators of crime. According to Stark (2007), poor neighbourhoods are characterised by lower levels of informal supervision, surveillance and reprimand by adults. To affirm this, Lee (200), Messner and Tardiff (1986) and Stretesky et al. (2007), in their research, state that neighbourhoods with high cases of murder are those with high levels of economic disadvantage.

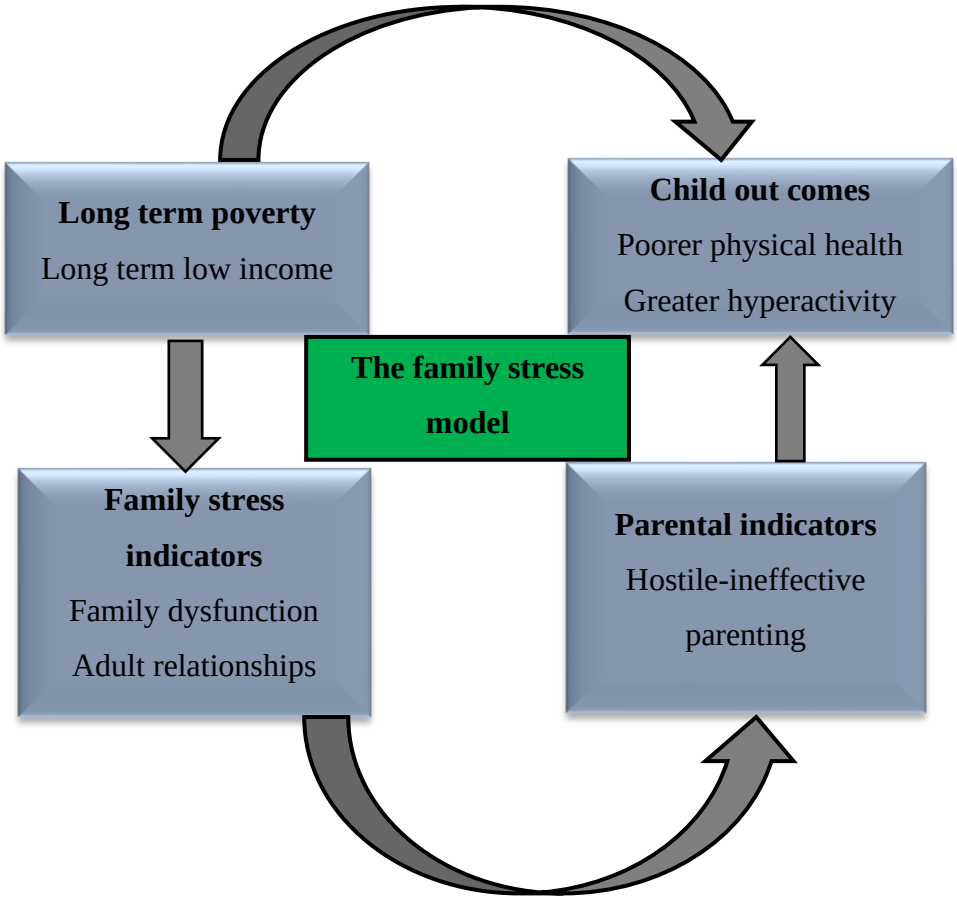


Figure 2-2: Family stress model (*Source: Ahmend, 2005, p.2)*

This suggested a causal relationship between deprivation and murder. However, the impact of multiple deprivation on other sorts of crime, like aggravated assault and burglary, are less clear and more mixed (Stretesky et al., 2007, p.64).The impact of this violence in the neighbourhood and within the family structure inhibits both academic and social development of children in poverty (Schwab-Stone, et al. 1999, p.27).

Evans (2004) stated that multiple deprived parents do not show interest in their children's schoolwork. Research confirmed similar patterns. He added that low-income parents are less involved in their children's school. According to Jensen (2009, p. 9), who asserts that "children from deprived households are more likely to believe that their parents are uninterested in their activities, to receive less positive reinforcement from teachers and less homework help from babysitters". This perception affects how they relate with others.

Research shows that learners from deprived households can face educational discrimination, which may eventually affect their future. The dropout rate of these learners is significant,

compared to their privileged counterparts. A report from the United States Department of Education (USDOE, 2012) demonstrates that learners from multiple deprived households had a high dropout rate of about 59%, compared to their counterparts from privileged households, who had a dropout rate of 1.3%. This contributes to the cycle of poverty.

Learners from multiple deprived homes stand high chances of getting pregnant and engaging in criminal activities (Roosa, Jones Tein & Cree, 2003, p. 55). Such learners grow without supervision and start taking adult responsibilities at an early age. In addition, such children are bound to consume alcohol, take cigarettes and engage in other risky behaviour, due to the lack of after-school supervision. This echoes Escarce's (2003, p. 1231) assertion that the impact of socioeconomic status on households, neighbourhoods and schools assures that poor and low-income adolescents arrive at adulthood in worse health and engage in risky and more dangerous behaviours compared to their counterparts from affluent household". The government has, therefore, come up with various measures to alleviate multiple deprivation that schools are confronted with as discussed in chapter two.

2.10 Conclusion

This chapter sought to discuss safety and orderliness in schools and multiple deprivation. This was achieved by conceptualising safety and orderliness. It demonstrated how safety and orderliness is a social justice problem by capturing the historical context of school violence in South Africa. This was then linked to the current state of safety problems in South African Schools and media reports on school violence and other forms of fatal accidents in schools. The chapter also examined empirical studies conducted in developing countries and African countries on how such injustice can be redressed to make schools safe and orderly. Evidence from the studies examined shows that school leaders in African countries did not have clear guidelines on how to enhance school safety. They did not adequately implement policies and programmes recommended by the Ministry/ Department of Education either, because they were constrained by resources, or they did not know how to implement them. A few schools that endeavoured to make their schools safe and orderly were not consistent.

It is evident that studies conducted in African countries on school safety and orderliness focused more on the nature and impact of school violence, leaving out how other dimensions of safety and how leaders can redress them. This is the gap the study intends to bridge by

exploring how leaders in multiple deprived areas redress these injustices as a way of improving learner performance in South African school context. The second section of the chapter gave an understanding of multiple deprivation as a problem of maldistribution and misrepresentation. It further discussed how the various domains of deprivation (employment, living standard, education, material and care) affect learners. Chapter Three discusses school improvement and leadership.

3. CHAPTER 3: SCHOOL IMPROVEMENT AND LEADERSHIP

3.1 Introduction

Chapter two discussed school safety and multiple deprivation. This chapter discusses school improvement and leadership. The first section explores effective schools. Within this section, there is a brief review of historical development of effective school movement and correlates of effective schools developed by the proponents of school improvement, such as Edmond, Sammons, Hillman and Mortimore, Shannon and Bylsma, Lezotte and Lezotte and Snyder. This is followed by the assumptions of Lezotte and Snyder's correlate of effective schools. It is worth mentioning that some of the work cited may seem old, but they give a clear understanding of school improvement as developed by the proponents. The second section discusses leadership, under which the focus will be the conceptualisation of leadership, the role of principals in school improvement and the theories of leadership that have been used by leaders in challenging circumstances to improve learner performance. The theories to be discussed are instructional leadership, transformational leadership and distributed leadership. The next section discusses effective school movement.

3.2 School effective movement

Quality education is a social justice, and human rights, issue, therefore to better understand how to achieve them, it is important to begin by discussing the Effective School Movement. This began in the early seventies with an aim of identifying schools that were instructionally effective for poor learners. The movement was a response to the federal paper written by James Coleman, a prominent education researcher (Effective Schools, 2012). He stated in the paper that public schools didn't make a significant difference. He credited the learners' family background as the main reason for student success (Suber, 2012, p. 4). He further elaborated that learners from low socioeconomic background could not perform well, regardless of what the schools did. Major researchers at that time, such as Edmonds, Brookover and Lezotte, refused to accept this report and were determined to dispel Coleman's paper. The research was not only done in America, but also in the United Kingdom where, however, it was conducted only in secondary schools.

In 1979, Edmond and other researchers looked at achievement data from schools in major cities around the country, where learners were from low social economic backgrounds. Edmond

studied fifty-five inner city schools in Detroit and 20 schools in inner city New York (Suber, 2012). The research was conducted in schools where the majority were poor. With time, researchers found many schools that were instructionally effective for poor learners and identified practices, which were important determiners of student achievement (Edmond, 1979, p. 18; New York State Office of Education Performance Review, 1979).

Edmond (1982, p. 4) outlined that "an effective school need not bring all learners to identical levels of mastery, but it must bring an equal percentage of its highest and lowest social classes to minimum mastery." In his definition, an effective school would enable the middle class to establish the "standard of proportionate mastery" and facilitate the identification of a school as improving or declining as the proportion of the lowest social class demonstrating mastery rises or falls.

Nationwide, these researchers found schools where poor children were learning, but were shocked as to why certain schools made a difference and others did not. What were some schools doing differently to result in poor children demonstrating high levels of learning? Effective school researchers found similarities in the practices which positively impacted student achievement (Edmonds, 1979; Madden, Lawson, & Sweet, 1976). The authors "supported the premise that all children can learn and that the school controls the factors necessary to ensure student mastery of the core curriculum" (Lezotte & Snyder, 2011, p. 1). Research on effective schools is vast. Various studies have analysed the factors that characterised effective schools. The various analyses employed slightly different categories to summaries the results of numerous studies but came to the same conclusions. They also used different methods to categorise the important characteristics of effective schools. The number of characteristics or correlates varies from five to ten. However, the concepts are similar across all the studies, regardless of how they are grouped into categories or correlates. Discussed below are some researchers who have studied school improvement.

3.3 Edmond's first generation of effective schools

Edmonds (1979), a pioneer of effective school research, identified the most indispensable characteristics of effective schools, which later became known as the First-Generation Correlates of Effective Schools. These correlates appeared repeatedly in high performing

schools, despite the schools' demographics or social economic levels (Effective Schools, 2012).

> They have strong administrative leadership without which the disparate elements of good schooling can neither be brought together nor kept together. 2) Schools that are instructionally effective for poor children have a climate of expectation in which no child is permitted to fall below minimum but efficacious levels of achievement. 3) The school's atmosphere is orderly without being rigid, quiet without being oppressive, and generally conducive to the instructional business at hand. 4) Effective schools get that way partly by making it clear that pupils' acquisition of basic school skills takes precedence over all other school activities. 5) When necessary, school energy and resources can be diverted from other business in furtherance of the fundamental objectives, 6) There must be some means by which pupils progress can be frequently monitored (Edmonds, 1979, p. 22).

Edmond later modified the first-generation correlates of school improvement to second-generation correlates of school improvement. He hoped that the next model will be more effective in enhancing learner performance.

3.4 Edmond's second-generation correlates of school improvement

Edmond saw the need to revise the correlates later in 1982. He condensed the original six into five as follows:

> The principal's leadership and attention to the quality of instruction. 2) A pervasive and broadly understood instructional focus. 3) an orderly, safe climate conducive to teaching and learning. 4) Teacher behaviours that convey the expectations that all learners are expected to obtain at minimum mastery and 5) the use of measure of pupil achievement as the basis for programme evaluation (p. 4).

Other researchers reviewed Edmonds correlates of school improvement and modified them. The next section is an outline of Sammons, Hillman and Mortimore's correlates of school improvement.

3.5 Sammons, Hillman and Mortimore's correlates of effective schools

Sammons, Hillman, and Mortimore (1995) reviewed school effectiveness research and outlined eleven correlates of effective schools as follows:

> 1) Professional leadership 2) Shared vision and goals 3) A learning environment 4) A concentration on teaching and learning 5) Purposeful teaching 6) High expectations, 7) positive reinforcement 8) Monitoring progress 9) Pupils right and responsibilities 10) Home-school partnership 11) Learning organisation (Sammons, Hillman & Mortimore, 1995, p. 8).

3.6 Shannon and Bylsma correlates of effective schools

Shannon and Bylsma (2007) reviewed numerous studies of schools in which learners were performing better than was expected, based on their demographic characteristics. They then produced nine correlates as:

> 1)A clear and shared focus 2) High standards and expectations for all learners 3) Effective school leadership 4) High levels of collaboration and communication 5) Curriculum, instruction and assessment aligned with standards 6) Frequent monitoring of learning and teaching 7) Focused professional development 8) A supportive learning environment 9) High levels of family and community involvement (Shannon & Bylsma, 2007, p. 24).

More research was done on school improvement. Lezotte, on the other hand, came with seven correlates of school improvement that leaders were to implement, if their schools were to improve. The next section outlines Lezotte's first generation correlates of school improvement.

3.7 Lezotte's first generation correlates of effective Schools

Research for school improvement continued. Likewise, Lezotte (1991) reviewed the effective school research. He produced the following seven Correlates of Effective Schools that could be used to improve schools facing challenging circumstances and make them more effective:

> High expectations for success 2) Strong instructional leadership 3) Clear and focused mission 4) Opportunity to learn and time on task 5) Frequent monitoring of student progress 6) Safe and orderly environment 7) Positive home-school relations (p. 8).

Lezotte and Snyder (2011) refined these correlates further. These were used to guide this study, because Lezotte has been a pioneer of school improvement for nearly five decades. His research with Snyder is one of the latest and most comprehensive reviews of effective school research that is widely employed by practitioners and researchers in the field. Furthermore, his correlates are more relevant to the South African context. Most schools in South Africa face injustices of safety and multiple deprivation. Hence, the study investigates how safety and orderliness (one of Lezotte & Snyder's correlates of school improvement) can be enhanced as a basis of school improvement.

Lezotte and Snyder further developed the second-generation correlates. They stated that schools can move to second generation only after achieving the first generation. Lezotte and Snyder (2011) emphasise that their definition of effective school is embedded in the learning-for-all, focus on results and the two pillars of quality and equality. They define effective schools as:

> characterised by high overall student achievement with no significant gaps in that achievement across the major subgroups in the student population. The effective school is built on the foundation of high expectations, strong leadership, unwavering commitment to learning for all, collaboration, differentiated instruction and frequent monitoring of student progress (Lezotte and Snyder, 2011, p.15).

They further define an effective school as an organisation that is sustained through the interdependence of all stakeholders committed to the learning-for-all mission and strategies for monitoring the mission.

The mission learning-for-all relates to Education for All (EFA). It stipulates that schools should address the needs of all learners, regardless of who they are, their socioeconomic background, academic ability and where they come from in order to realise high academic achievement. They also emphasised the importance of results. Equally important is the emphasis on equity and quality. This means that every learner must be granted quality education with equal education opportunity. These concepts are rooted in an effective school guarantee that high expectations apply to all learners, including learners in unsafe and deprived areas. Therefore, the next section discusses Lezotte and Snyder's correlates of school improvement in detail.

3.8 Lezotte and Snyder's correlates of effective schools

3.8.1 High expectation for success

The effective school has a climate of high expectations. Educators believe that all learners can, and will, obtain mastery of the intended curriculum and educators believe in their own ability to help all learners achieve mastery (Lezotte & Snyder, 2011, 39). Research has shown that an educator's sense of effectiveness is positively related to learners' success (Meiers &Beavis, 2005, p. 7). Lezotte and Snyder (2011, p. 40) asserts that high expectations for learners' success begin with educators first having high expectations for themselves and are confident that they possess the necessary knowledge and skills to provide learners with quality learning experience. The educator's sense of effectiveness in teaching affects the learners' sense of worth in learning. If the educators believe that all learners can learn, their actions within the classroom and their expectations of learners will have a positive impact on learner achievement. "On the other hand, when educators' expectations are low learners become disinterested in learning, loos focus and hence perform poorly" (Tucker & Stronge, 2005, p. 35).

3.8.2 Clear and focused mission

Effective schools have clearly articulated missions focused on successful learning for all learners and a shared understanding and commitment to institutional goals, priorities, assessment procedures and accountability (Lezotte & Snyder, 20011, p. 67). To support this assertion, Haberman (2004) states that the principal should articulate clear and focused mission that focuses on academics. The mission should clearly stipulate the content matter to be mastered by learners. He further explained that it is important that the clear and focused mission must also be communicated to all staff, learners and parents and the instruction and curriculum materials must be aligned to the mission. Lezotte (1990) described the clear and focused mission, as clearly articulated with a staff that understands and is committed to instructional goals, priorities, assessment procedures and accountability.

For a mission to guide behaviour, it must be clear enough for everyone to know and understand. When all members of the school community agree with, and support, a mission and work towards the same direction, the result is maximum output (Lezotte & Snyder, 2011).

Research shows that an important common feature of the best schools is a sense of shared responsibility for improvement (Nick, 2004, p.47). Putma (2014, p. 24) argues that this shared responsibility should be closely linked to instructional goals, so that educators have a scene of direction.

The clear and focused mission correlate is important in the establishment of a successful school, because it provides a sense of direction for the improvement in learner performance. The next is opportunity to learn and time on task.

3.8.3 Opportunity to learn and time on task

The opportunity to learn and time on task correlate emphasises the importance of educators in understanding their learners. Educators can achieve this by checking their entry behaviour, socio-economic status and prior knowledge in order to meet their learning needs adequately. This helps educators build their knowledge of the learners and utilise instructional time well. Lezotte and Snyder (2011) noted that two thirds of the gap in measured student achievement, between privileged learners and learners that are multiply deprived, can be attributed to a gap in the opportunity to learn. Learners that are deprived have fewer enrichment opportunities than their privileged counterparts. The opportunity to learn gaps between privileged and multiply deprived learners are evident from an early age because of the varying degrees of exposure to reading materials, to language in general and health care and safety, all of which can affect the child's readiness to learn (Moyo, 2013, p.16; Lezotte & Snyder, 2011).

Lezotte and Snyder noted that "learners tend to learn the things on which they spend time" (p.75). The difference in learning opportunities is such that "learners that are disadvantaged typically have less access to the important building blocks of school readiness and, as a result, enter public schools about two years on average behind their more advantaged counterparts" (p.76). Lezotte and Snyder assert that schools must close the learning gap, making sure that each student is provided enough time and appropriate experiences to learn in the way that a school puts its mission into action (Lezotte & Snyder,2011, p.76).

The combination of more time and appropriate learning experience is important. However, time alone is not enough if it is not well utilised. Extended learning time (ELT), a commonly used remedy in school improvement, is extremely beneficial for disadvantaged learners (Midkiff & Cohen-Vogel, 2015, p. 15). ELT can close the opportunity-to-learn gap that learners from multiple deprived households exhibit. (see McMurer, 2015). The gap is mostly created in the

hours outside of school, when privileged children have access to reading materials and a conducive learning atmosphere.

ELT can be effective if well implemented. It can incorporate benefits, such as positive learner development of at-risk learners, increased school community engagement and physical and emotional health benefits for learners (Durlak, Weissberg & Pachan, 2010, p.8). Closing the learning opportunity gaps can be achieved by providing learning time.

3.8.4 Instructional leadership

Lezotte and Snyder (2011, p. 51) explain that, in an effective school, the principal acts as an instructional leader "by persistently communicating the mission to the staff, learners, parents and the larger community". They further argue that the principals must understand the principles of effective instruction and use that knowledge in the management of the instructional programme. Research has shown that good leadership is key to student achievement (Hallinger & Lee, 2013, p. 306).

Lezotte and Snyder maintained that strong instructional leadership means that the school leader must be knowledgeable about the teaching and learning process, must continue to learn about the process and must be able to convince others to follow. They define leadership as "the ability to take a 'followership' to a place where they have never been and are not sure they want to go" (Lezotte &Snyder, 2011, p. 53). That is to say that, leaders ought to develop and maintain a followership and act as change agents by "communicating a clear and compelling vision of where they are attempting to take their organisations and establish a trusting relationship with followers" (p. 53). Leaders must also provide guidance, encouragement and support in the process, including opportunities for continuous learning (p.53). They argue that the leader must be trustworthy, competent, forward-looking and enthusiastic.

3.8.5 Safe and orderly environment

A safe and orderly environment is where school leaders can lead, educators can teach, and learners can learn. It is a prerequisite for effective teaching and learning. Furthermore, it provides the setting for other activities to be implemented successfully. In an effective school, "the school culture and climate are conducive to teaching and learning" (Lezotte &Snyder, 2011, p.101). Lezotte and Snyder noted that, for this correlate to be implemented successfully:

> First, all adults (especially the educators) must commit to the proposition that, while at the school, they are on duty all the time and everywhere … Second, all the adults (especially the educators) must commit to the proposition that they will behave with consistency around the agreed-upon rules and regulations of the school (Lezotte & Snyder, 2011, p. 102).

Furthermore, they stipulated that the educators must take responsibility for the disciplinary climate of the entire school. They are to enforce a learner code of conduct and must be consistent with the discipline administered. They are to supervise everything that happens within the school premises and attend to any problem that may arise. Lezotte and Snyder (2011) state that effective schools' research reveals that effective schools do not leave discipline in the hands of any individual, but rather have "consistent expectations for behaviour and discipline across the school" (p.102). They argue that a safe and orderly environment should also have cooperative and nurturing surroundings with a sense of community that: a) foster a culture of respect and academic achievement b) addresses the learners basic needs of connecting, so they develop a sense of belonging, of competence to do well, of choice over what topics to learn and of enjoyment to keep them engaged (Lezotte& Snyder, 2011). A safe and orderly environment is more than the absence of disruptive behaviour, but, instead, is a learning community with an atmosphere where learners are motivated and engaged and, therefore, less likely to cause disciplinary problems.

Studies conducted on learners' perception of feeling safe showed that high achieving schools did keep learners that participated in the focus groups from feeling unsafe. However, both educators and learners felt safe when they were in school, where they believed the adults were "caring and helpful and rules were clear, consistent well communicated and consistently applied (Bosworth, Ford & Hernandez, 2011, p. 197).

In conclusion, the safe and orderly correlate has as much to do with creating a positive school culture of engagement and respect among learners, educators and staff, as it does in providing neat and orderly physical surroundings. In a culture of learning, respect and caring, behavioural issues and disciplinary action seldom occur. Below is a summary of first, and second-generation characteristics of safe and orderly schools.

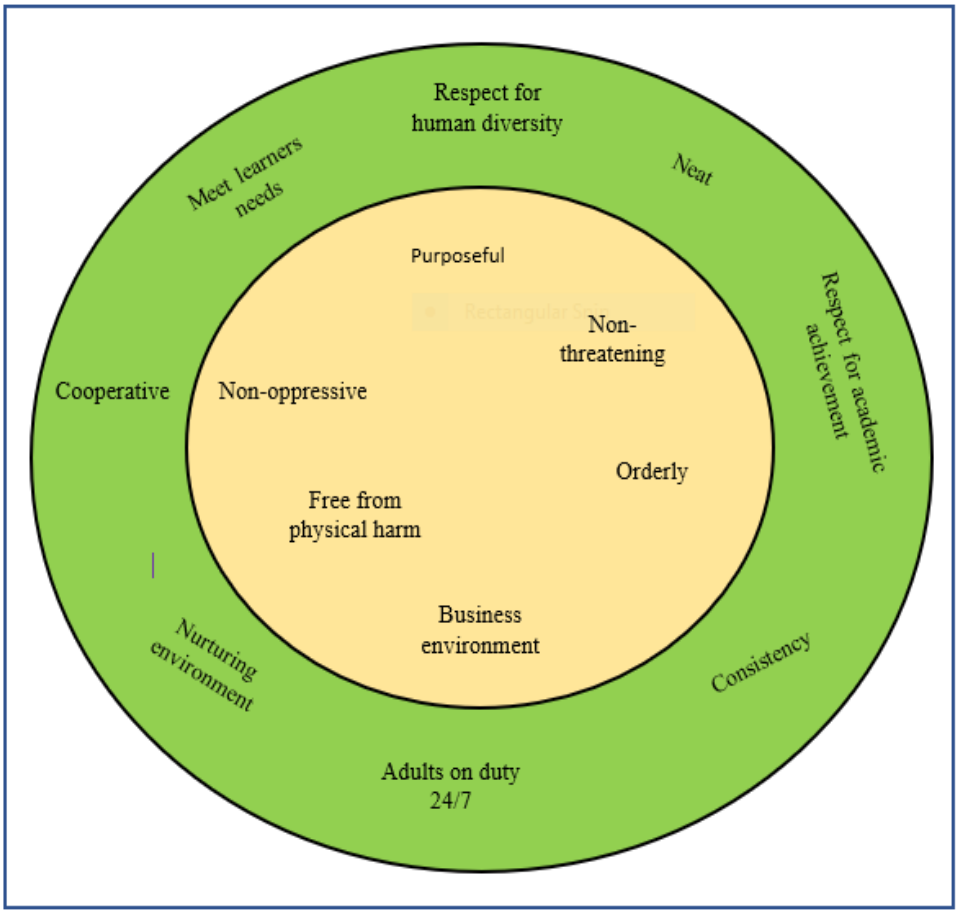


Figure 3-1: First- and second-generation characteristic of safe and orderly schools (*Source: Adhola)*

3.8.6 Frequent monitoring of student progress

In effective schools, learner performance is assessed frequently to evaluate and modify instruction and monitor learners' progress. Lezotte &Snyder (2011, p. 91) state that schools "use assessment information as the basis for changing instructional game plan". Their study shows that:

> the more frequently student progress is monitored, and instruction adjusted accordingly, the more quickly the school will achieve its learning-for-all mission … On the other hand, if the teacher or the school is not going to adjust what they are planning to do based on the results of the learners monitoring, why bother monitoring at all (Lezotte & Snyder, 2011, p. 92).

The authors argue that testing is only part of the monitoring process, but not necessarily the

best way of measuring student progress. To them, effective monitoring "must be defined as any review of student work that is accompanied by timely corrective feedback …and may be based on a variety of activities, including oral responses, written assignments, teacher-student conference, teacher-made tests, and observations of learners performance" (p. 92). This form of assessment is ideal, because it enable teachers and learners to make necessary adjustments from the feedback they get.

Feedback is critical in monitoring progress. Positive feedback promotes effective learning. If learners are monitored frequently and given positive feedback, they will understand where they are in learning and how to improve. Research shows that feedback influences learning (Hattie, 2009, p.68). Frequent monitoring and providing constructive feedback to learners, followed by necessary adjustments to teaching, are important to learners' learning. Lezotte and Snyder noted the importance of a positive home-school environment. The next section looks at positive home-school relations.

3.8.7 Positive home-school relations

In an effective school, parents and other stake holders are familiar with the school's mission and the leadership provides a variety of opportunities for them to support it. Lezotte and Snyder assert that a positive home-school relationship can be used as a follow up to a safe and orderly environment. Furthermore, parental involvement contributes to learner performance regardless of learner background, positive behaviour among learners and adapting well in school (Henderson & Mapp, 2002, p. 24).

In their studies, Gutman and Midgle (2000) noted that combined support from parents and school had a significant effect on learners. They reported three key influences. They stated that parental involvement should include talking to learners about school, checking homework, attending school events and volunteering at school. In addition, support from educators should involve taking time to help learners and being supportive rather than critical. This intern makes them feel they belong at school, feel accepted, respected and included. The above support from both educators and parents helps learners with school life. It makes them feel valued and safe and thus improves their performance. This is also emphasised in the South African Constitution, which, under the Bill of Rights, stipulates that parents have the duty to send their children to school.

The act further stipulates that parents are equal partners in the school and therefore should contribute to matters affecting their children. They are expected to be part of the school governing body and help with the formulation of a learner code of conduct and with discipline. They should also support the school in financial areas where the government cannot. Unfortunately, learners who need partnerships like these, such as those from deprived homes, rarely benefit from such partnerships (see Epstein, 2009). Lezotte argued that, for schools to improve, it is paramount that they implement all the seven correlates of school improvement. However, in this study, the major focus was on one correlate. I sought to investigate how leaders can redress the injustices of safety and orderliness as a basis of school improvement (Lezotte, 2010; Sparks, 2011). The injustices that schools face cannot be adequately addressed without effective leadership. It is accordingly imperative to discuss the strategies leaders use to achieve this. The next section discusses leadership theories that have been used to improve learner performance under such circumstances. It begins by conceptualising leadership.

3.9 Conceptualising school leadership

Schools, like other organisations, consist of groups of people (such as educators, learners, principals, parents and other personnel), who work together in different ways like learning, teaching, managing and leading, supporting and so on, in order to meet shared goals (Cross & Rice, 2000, p.13). The authors characterised a school as an organisation in which all stakeholders are involved in joint planning, action and assessment for student growth and school improvement. Schools need leaders who ensure that things are going in the right way. Therefore, school leadership has become a priority for the educational policy agenda internationally (Pont et al, 2008, p.49). It is considered critical in school improvement with effects on pupil learning (Leithwood & Levin, 2005, p.7; Robinson, 207, p.30). Since this study aims to explore how leaders redress the injustices of safety and orderliness as a basis for school improvement, understanding the role leaders play is very important. The concept of leadership requires an elaborate exploration. This section begins by reflecting on definitions of leadership and concludes with a brief review of effective school leadership.

There are numerous definitions of leadership. Leading Yukl (2013, p. 2) to argue that "the definition of leadership is arbitrary and very subjective. Some definitions are more useful than others, but there is no 'correct' definition." Cuban (1988 as cited in Bush & Glover, 2003, p.17)

states that “there are more than 350 definitions of leadership but no clear and unequivocal understanding as to what distinguishes leaders from non-leaders”. Thus, leadership may be defined as affecting the ideas and actions of the followers, being aware of the needs and requests of group members and, consequently, directing their energy to achieving these needs.

Northouse (2016, p. 6) believes that there are many ways to conceptualise leadership and presents key components essential to the leadership phenomenon: 1) process 2) influence 3) team 4) goals and objectives. He defines leadership as “the process whereby an individual influences and empowers team members towards goal achievement”. Likewise, Bolman & Deal (2003) say that leadership is intangible, because it exists only in relationships and in the imagination and perceptions of people that are involved in a particular context. Leaders are expected to persuade or inspire, rather than coerce or give orders, and they are expected to produce a cooperative effort and to pursue goals that transcend narrow self-interest. Bush (2014, p.5) states that the dimensions of leadership may be identified as a basis for developing a working definition. He looks at leadership as influence; leadership and values; and leadership associated with vision.

Yukl (2013, p.3) cited various definitions of leadership.The main idea that runs throughout the definitions is that leadership is about helping the group move forward by utilising the effect of individuals, who complement and enhance each other’s skills, linking the group to the strengthening unit of a common purpose. The conclusion then is that leadership is the process of influencing people in the accomplishment of common task. However, in order to ensure their effectiveness, organisations, including schools, need effective leadership. It is worth noting that, for a school to be effective, other personnel (such as educators and learners) need to be involved in leadership (Diamond, 2013, p.86). In as much as there are various levels of leadership in a school, the principal is considered the accounting officer. It is therefore necessary to discuss the role of the principal in section 4.10.

3.10 The role of school leaders (principals) in school improvement

The role of South African school principals has evolved (Murphy, Goldring &Porter, 2007, p. 26). Previously, they needed a deep knowledge of management functions, finance, personnel, and resources. In most South African schools, the principal played the role of head of school and was the authoritarian in control. Principals were sometimes visible in the school but had

many extra activities other than being a school principal. Some of these roles did not support school improvement. For a school to be effective, the principal has to play the key role of leadership (Lezotte 2010, p.7).

Effective school leaders foster a rich learning environment for learners and other personnel (Barth, 2002). They facilitate democratic dialogue that values all voices, builds trust (Bryk & Schneider, 2002, p. 43) and promotes shared understanding and a sense of shared responsibility across classrooms and with parents (Elmore, 2008, p. 75). A safe and orderly environment is a crucial factor in improving student achievement. When principals show a concerted effort in this area and achieve these kind of leadership goals, they become crucially positive factors in student development (Lezotte & Snyder, 20011, p.37).

In South Africa, the duty of the principals to manage teaching and learning in a safe space was enacted through the formation of the School Management Teams (SMT) as per the South African Schools Act of 1996. The principal is the accounting officer for the school and is accountable for learner achievement. This implies that the principal has a duty to influence learner achievement and to lead instruction in the school. It is vitally important that the principal be informed, highly skilled and knowledgeable.

The 2007 South African Standard for School Leadership (SASSL) states that school principals need to know the national curriculum and understand practices of effective teaching and learning. In addition, they are to support curriculum delivery; collect and analyse data; and use research to inform and improve practice.

On the other hand, Bush and Glover (2009, p.34) propose that, for principals to influence learner achievement, they ought to oversee the curriculum across the school to ensure that lessons take place; and evaluate learner performance, through scrutiny of examinations results and internal assessment. Furthermore, they should ensure that HoDs monitor the work of educators within their learning areas, arrange a programme of class visits, followed by feedback to educators and give appropriate learning and teaching feedback to educators.

These activities assign core duties for principals to undertake in managing learning. They highlight the importance of principals being the foremost driver of these tasks. It is an

enormous task for an individual to undertake and accomplish adequately, due to the deprived context of the majority of South African learners and the poor conditions of many schools. It is worth discussing leadership theories that leaders in schools facing challenging circumstances have used in school improvement.

3.11 Theories of leadership

Studies indicate that there is no single leadership theory that can be used to redress the injustices that unsafe and multiple deprived schools face. Scholars, like Maringe and Moletsane (2015, p. 357); Caldarella, Hallam and Brown (2014, p. 446), therefore recommend a 'cocktail' of leadership theories, which include instructional, distributed and transformational leadership. In addition, Chiko, Naicker and Mthiyane (2015, p.155) assert that approach-based leadership is effective in schools that struggle with the injustices of maldistribution. The next section begins by discussing instructional leadership.

3.11.1 Instructional leadership

Instructional leadership has become an increasingly important aspect of school improvement (Hoy& Miskel, 2013, p. 29). This was influenced by the shift from principals being administrators to instructional leaders (Kaya & Göcen, 2013, p. 59). This shift was due to research, which found that effective schools usually had principals who stressed the importance of instructional leadership (Lezotte & Snyder, 2011, p. 51; Duze, 2012, p. 113), which is conceived differently by different scholars and researchers. Some call it 'curriculum leadership', while others, such as Mullan (2007, p. 230), describe it as the 'jurisdiction of the principal', where the principal understands the curriculum management and the change process for the whole school. Likewise, Joyner, Ben-Avie and Comer (2004, p. 93) perceive instructional leadership as the critical element in improving student achievement. Vornberg (2002, p. 166) views instructional leadership as, "working directly with educators, group improvement, professional development, curriculum improvement and action research implementation".

Southworth (2002, P. 79) states that "instructional leadership is strongly concerned with teaching and learning including the professional learning of educators as well as student growth". According to Bush (2007), instructional leadership is a very important dimension, because it targets the school's core activities, which are teaching and learning:

> Instructional leadership focuses on the teaching and learning and on the behaviour of educators in working with learners. Learner influence is targeted at student learning via educators. The emphasis is on the direction and impact of influence rather than the influence process itself (p. 401).

Its functioning definition refers to school-based leadership focused on assisting educators in classroom practice (Najumba,2013, p. 490). Hallinger and Murphy (1985, p. 221) outlined three dimensions of instructional leadership. The dimensions are: 1) defining the school mission 2) managing the instructional programme 3) promoting a positive school learning climate. Based upon this framework, Hallinger and Murphy (1985) developed the Principal Instructional Management Rating Scale (PIMRS) an instrument which has been used widely to measure the frequency with which school principals engage in, or are observed engaging in, the specific functions identified. The PIMRS was designed to be completed by principals themselves, regarding their own instructional leadership behaviour, and also by educators and

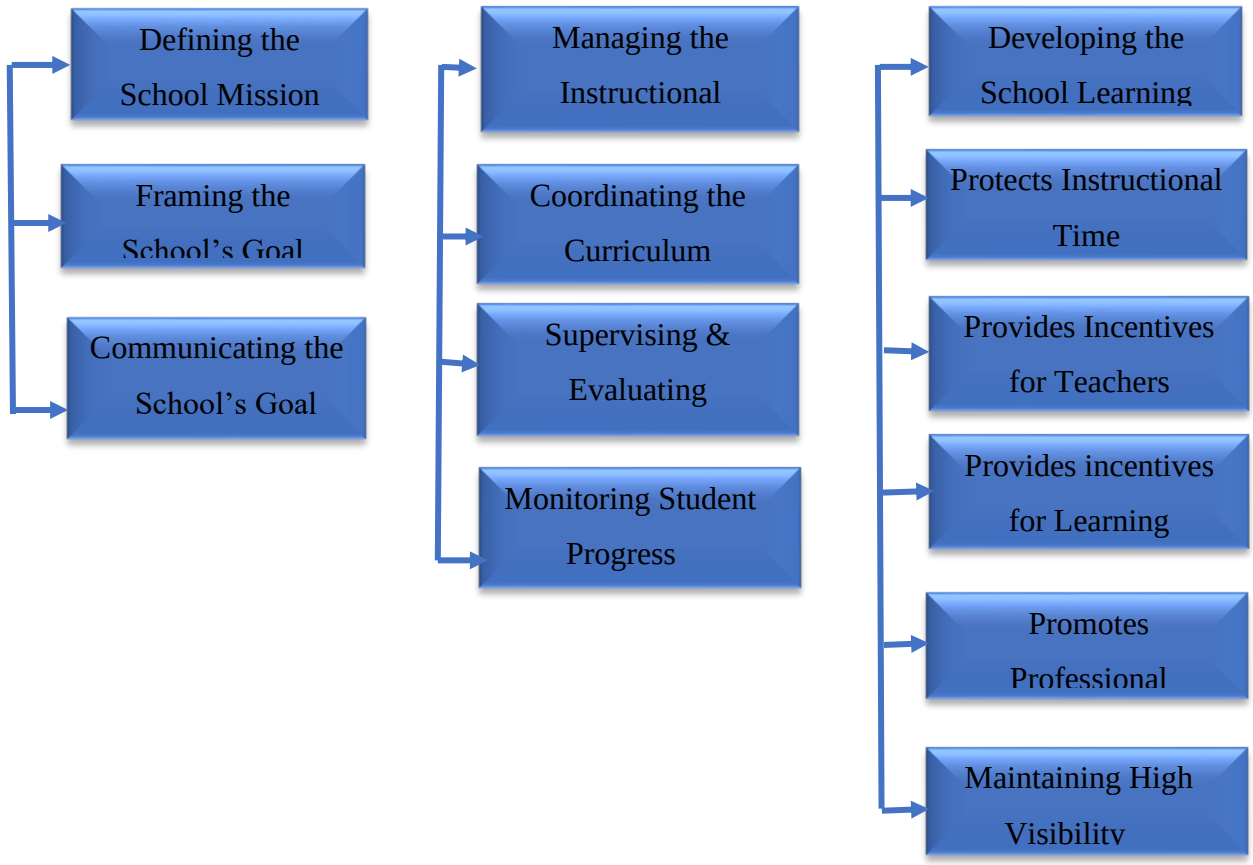


Figure 3-2: PIRMS framework ***(Source: Hallinger 1983; Hallinger & Murphy, 1985, p. 221)***

principal supervisors. These dimensions were further outlined as the ten instructional leadership functions. The PIRMS is show in the figure 3.2.

In order to understand the leadership functions and principals' role in instructional leadership, Hallinger (2005, p. 4) suggested three dimensions for the functions for the role of instructional leadership principals that are stated above. He developed these ideas by reviewing previous research describing the relationship between leadership and student achievement. Southworth (2002, p. 77) noted that instructional leadership was occurring along multiple dimensions and synergising a number of practices.

3.11.1.1 Defining the school mission

This dimension outlines two functions: framing and communicating the school's goals. It focuses on the principal's role in establishing the main purpose of the school. The goals of a school are determined by the principal, or in cooperation with the staff. The dimension focuses on the principal's role together with the staff in making sure that the school has clear, measurable, time-based goals on the academic progress of learners by prioritising educators' work. Furthermore, the principal is responsible to inform other stakeholders about the goals of the school, so that they support and integrate it into daily practice. Lastly, the principal should model the goals and mission (Hallinger & Lee 2013, p. 309).

3.11.1.2Managing instructional programme

This dimension, managing the instructional programme, focusses on the co-ordination and control of instruction and curriculum. It incorporates the three leadership functions:
coordinating the curriculum; supervising and evaluating instruction; and monitoring learner progress (Leithwood et al. 2006; Lunenburg & Lunenburg, 2013). This dimension assumes that coordinating the academic programme is the key responsibility of the principal, who is expected to supervise and monitor teaching and learning in the school (Heck & Hallinger, 2004, p. 31).

Supervising and Evaluating Instruction

It is the responsibility of the principal to ensure that the formulated goals are being translated into practice at the classroom level. This involves coordinating classroom objectives with those of the school and evaluating classroom instruction. It also includes provision of support to educators and monitoring instruction through classroom visits (Hallinger et all.,1996, p.138).

Coordinating Curriculum

The principal should ascertain that the school curricular objectives are closely aligned with both the content taught and the achievement tests used by the school. This can be supported by interactions among educators within grade levels on instructional and curricular issues. (Spillance, 2006).

Monitoring Student Progress

Effective schools place the emphasis on monitoring learners' progress. The tests are used to assess learners' strengths and weakness, to evaluate the instructional programme and to formulate assignments. The principal's role in this area is to discuss the results with the educators (Leithwood & Strauss, 2010).

3.11.1.3 Promoting a Positive Learning Environment

The third dimension, promoting a positive school environment, includes several functions: protecting instructional time, promoting professional development, maintaining high visibility and providing incentives for educators and for learning. This dimension aligns with the notion that effective schools develop high standards of expectations and a culture of continuous improvement. It is, therefore, the responsibility of the instructional leader to align the school's standards and practices with its mission and to create a climate that supports learning (Leithwood & Sun, 2012). From the above discussion on dimensions of instructional leadership, various scholars affirmed that the key player in instructional leadership is the principal.

Instructional leadership has been criticised for being the role for the principal only. Scholars, like Bush (2013, p.7), assert that the principal doesn't have the ability to serve as the only instructional leader or school leader for the whole school without the significant cooperation of other educators. This calls for the principal to involve other leaders and educators to achieve learner success (Marks & Printy, 2003, 374). Instructional leadership, therefore, should centre

on distributed leadership. As mentioned earlier, it is not vested on the principals alone, but is shared with other school personnel within the schools: educators, heads of department and members of the representative councils of learners. Moreover, Robinson et al. (2008, p. 665) propose instructional leadership, which stresses the joint effort of the principal and educators on curriculum and instruction. The next section discusses distributed leadership.

3.11.2 Distributed Leadership

Different scholars have given different theories to distributed leadership. Elmore (2004, p. 4) proposed that distributed leadership permits those within an institution to lead according to their knowledge. This is linked to the idea that people have different beliefs, skills and knowledge, which will, in turn, establish the context for how they will contribute. On the other hand, Grenda and Hackmann (2014, p.55) state that distributed leadership is a budding possession of people within an organisation in which everyone intermingles. Within this theory, there are two types of ideas: theory is generally circulated; and distributed leadership (DL) is a determined act. To Tashi (2015, p.16), DL is more than authorising others to lead, it is developing the abilities of others to become leaders within their Organisation. In DL, everybody strives towards the same objectives and also guides each other's practices.

On the other hand, Spillane (2006, p.31) based his theory of DL on the following three concepts: leadership is the main goal; leadership is disseminated among everyone, depending upon the school; and its condition and the school's condition outlines the practice of leadership. According to the author, distributed leadership is held out as a way to reform schools, improve student learning and increase teacher satisfaction, retention and effectiveness. Spillane's (2004, p.114) framework on distributed leadership provides the theoretical lens to better understand how leadership is distributed and supported in the school. Spillane, Halverson and Diamond (2004, p.25) further argue that a distributive perspective is about leadership practice, which is a product of the joint interactions of school leaders, followers and the aspect of their school situation, such as tools and routine. They further explain that leadership is not just a component of what a school head, or in reality some other individual or group of leader knows or does. Rather it is the exercises engaged in by leaders in interaction with others specifically around specific tasks (Spillane et al., 2004, p.24).

In this case, people in both formal and informal roles take responsibility in leadership activities. Furthermore, anything a leader does influences, and is influenced by, other leaders. The next section outlines the elements of distributed leadership.

3.11.2.1 Elements of distributed leadership

Spillane et al (2004) identified four key elements related to distributed leadership. They include context, leadership tasks and roles, task enactment and interaction.

***Context**:* Leadership is distributed in an interactive web of actors, artefacts and situations. For this reason, Spillane et al (2004, p.27) assert that, in order for leaders to lead effectively, they must adapt their behaviours to the characteristics of their staff and context. A distributed perspective, drawing from active theory, emphasises that the situation is not something that is outside, but is rather a key element of leadership activity. The element of context has three key aspects: tools; policies and routines; and organisational structures. These aspects can either define or constrain leadership practice.

Leadership task and roles: Spillane's (2006, p. 145) perspective on distributed leadership emphasises the interdependence between leadership activities or practices. Rather than focusing chiefly on the social interaction of individuals as opposed to Ogawa and Bossert's (1995, p.238) perspective that focused on the "network of roles" that exist between multiple individuals that make up organisational quality. Spillane et al (2004, p.147) outline several leadership functions, which include: constructing and selling a vision; developing and managing a school culture that values trust and collaboration; procuring and distributing resources; and supporting teacher growth and development. These are some of the areas where leadership can be distributed.

Interactions

The distributed perspective of leaders focuses on how leadership practice is distributed among formal and informal leaders. Understanding how leaders in a school and district work together, as well as separately, to execute functions is an important aspect of the social distribution of leadership practice (Spillane et. al., 2004, p.16).

The key point in distributed leadership framework, as illustrated by Spillane, Halverson and Diamond (2004, p.18), is the interdependence between the different elements that make up leadership activity. Interdependency arises when the leadership task depends on the various elements of leadership: leaders, followers and particular tools of artefacts. Distributing leadership and working interdependently depends on multiple leaders working together, each bringing different resources-skills, knowledge, perspectives, which are needed to accomplish a particular task.

Distributed leadership involves multiple individuals executing tasks in an interactive way and in a certain situation. Principals can, therefore, facilitate distributed leadership in schools, through creating and nurturing a suitable school climate and promoting school conditions, where it is important for educators to work together, share good practice and learn together in teams. To maximise educators' potential, principals can encourage educators and other school personnel to develop and share their skills and solve some safety problems without necessarily referring them to HoDs or the principal. Ultimately, principals should provide time, space and opportunities for teachers to work together. The next section looks at transformational leadership.

3.11.3 Transformational Leadership

"Transformational leadership" was coined by James Victor Downton in 1993 in his book, *Rebel Leadership: Commitment and Charisma in a Revolutionary Process* (Jessop, 1974). He sought to examine the leader-follower relationships as it applied in social movements. He articulated the concept of a transformational "rebel" leader as having followers who strongly identified with the charismatic personalities of their leaders. Transformational leadership was later expanded by James MacGregor Burns, in his book *Leadership* in 1978 (English, 2006). His leadership theory focused on motivation and morality.

Burns also added the moral aspect to his theory, where the leader aspired to be a moral example to his followers. Burns further restated his earlier work's focus that there are moral and ethical implications for the work of a leader, which implies that further research is needed.

Transformational leadership is tied to facilitating the redefinition of a people's crucial vision and mission of the renewal of their commitment and the rebuilding of their systems for

objective achievement. According to McCleskey (2014, p.120), transformational leaders behave in certain ways in order to raise the level of consciousness and commitment from their followers about desired outcomes. That is, effective transformational leaders develop trust and respect from those they lead and try to gain their confidence through their words, conversations, insights and initiatives. The feelings of trust, admiration, royalty, dignity and respect associated with transformational leaders motivate followers to do more in their work and to attain unexpected outcomes.

Various scholars researched and modified Burn's theory of transformational leadership. For the purpose of this study, I will discuss Bass and Avolio's model and Leithwood's model. This is because research shows that they have been used by leaders in schools that face injustice of inequality and quality of learning.

3.11.3.1 Bass and Avolio's Model

Bass and Avolio (2004) critiqued, and built on, Burns earlier work. They asserted that transformational leaders have the following five "I" s of transformational leadership:



Figure 3-3: Transformational leadership as identified by Brass& Avolio (*Source: Bass and Avolio, 1994)*

1) idealised influence attributes 2) idealised influence behaviours 3) inspirational motivation 4) intellectual stimulation 5) individualised consideration. See the illustration in Figure 3-3.

They stated that a leader who embodies the idealised influence-attribute instils pride in others for being associated, puts the group first before self-interest, acts in ways to build self-respect and displays a sense of power and confidence. Leaders who exemplify idealised influence-behaviour have a moral compass and discuss what is important to them. They consider moral and ethical consequences of their decision-making. Transformational leaders with inspirational motivation behave in a motivational, optimistic and enthusiastic manner (Odumeru & Ifeanyi, 2013, p. 356). They have the ability to create a team vision, or plan and confidently express achievement. On the other hand, leaders who "stimulate their followers' effort to be innovative and creative by questioning assumptions, reframing problems and approaching old situations in new ways" form intellectual stimulation (Bass & Avolio, 2004, p. 102). Finally, a leader who has individualised consideration brings a positive mentor or coach-type mentality to lead their followers is focused on the individual. A supportive climate will exist and focus on one rather than the group.

Transformational leadership was received in education in the nineties, as part of a general reaction against the top-down policy driven changes that dominated in the eighties. Research was consequently conducted using the transformational leadership model (Hallinger & Heck, 2009, p. 115). Section 3.11.3.2 outlines Leithwood's model.

3.11.3.2 Leithwood's Model

Leithwood and his colleagues adopted the work of Burns and Bass into the educational environment. Leithwood's conceptual model has yielded knowledge on a leadership model in education (Leithwood et al 2002). Leithwood, Begley and cousins (1994) described transformational leadership as:

> … 'transform' implies major changes in the form, nature, function and/or potential of some phenomenon; applied to leadership, it specifies general ends to be pursued although it is largely mute with respect to means … we consider the central purpose of transformational leadership to be the enactment of the individual and collective problem-solving capacities of the organisational members, such capacities are

exercised in the identification of goals to be achieved and practices to be used in their achievement (Leithwood et al, 1994, p. 7).

Leithwood (1994 as cited in Bush, 2009, p.77) used the following eight dimensions to describe transformational leadership: building school vision, establishing school goals, providing intellectual stimulation, offering individualised support, modelling best practices and important organisational values, demonstrating high performance expectations, creating a productive school culture and developing structures to foster participation in school decisions. Below is a summary of Leithwood's model.

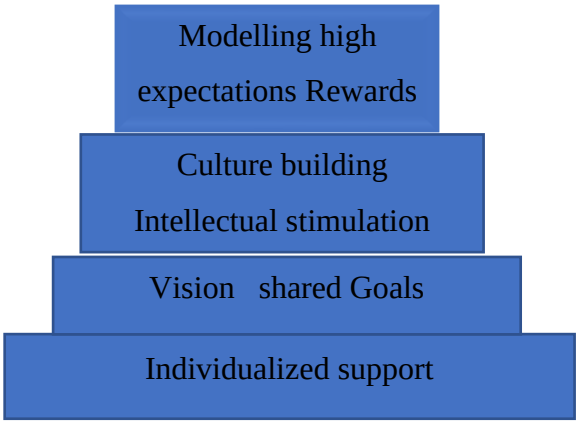


Figure 3-4: Leithwood's Transformational Model ***(Source: Leithwood et al., 1998)***

The model assumes that leadership in not vested only on the principal but is shared with the educators. Secondly the model is grounded in understanding the needs of individual staff, rather than 'coordinating and controlling' them towards the organisation's needs. In other words, the model tries to influence people from bottom-up rather than top-down. Transformational leadership was found to be effective for school improvement as it involved all the stakeholders. I recommend that the leaders should strengthen distributive leadership and instructional leadership to improve school safety and learner performance. In addition, they should adopt an asset-based approach to maximise the assets and skills they have to redress the challenges they are facing. The next section gives a summary of the chapter.

3.12 Conclusion

The study purposed to investigate social justice strategies that leaders use to make their school safe and orderly, as a way of improving learner performance. It was, therefore, necessary to

discuss school improvement and the role leaders play in making this possible. The chapter opened by discussing school improvement. It gave a background to the movement of the school improvement and the major researchers that contributed towards it. The study adopted Lezotte and Snyder's (2011) correlates of school improvement, because Lezotte is one of the pioneers of school improvement. Lezotte and Snyder's seven correlates of school improvement are: High 1) expectations for success. 2) Strong instructional leadership. 3) Clear and focused mission. 4) Opportunity to learn and time on task. 5) Frequent monitoring of student progress. 6) Safe and orderly environment. 7) Positive home-school relations. Next, the section discussed leadership, because there is a close link between leadership and school improvement. The leadership theories discussed included instructional, distributed and transformational leadership. I concur with scholars, like Chikoko et al. (2015) and Maringe et al (2015), who assert that, for such schools to succeed, they must use a cocktail of leadership theories. Chapter four discusses theory used in the study.

CHAPTER 4: THEORY: SOCIAL JUSTICE THEORY USING HUMAN RIGHTS APPROACH

4.1 Introduction

The previous chapter captured school improvement and leadership. This chapter discusses the theory adopted in the study using a human rights approach. Neuman (2014, p. 56) defines a theory as an explanation of a specific social phenomenon that identifies a set of casually relevant factors or conditions. School safety and quality education are social justice and human rights issues. Therefore, this study adopted Nancy Fraser's social justice theory to interrogate human rights and the social justice issues in unsafe and multiply deprived schools that school leaders are confronted with, in their endeavor to improve learner performance. The following section discusses human rights from the international level to the policy documents in schools that uphold quality education and safety as social justice and human rights. The section discusses human rights to give an understanding of learners' right to safety and quality education. It begins by giving a detailed discussion on human rights, as stipulated in the United Nations Universal Declaration of Human Rights.

4.2 The United Nations Universal Declaration of Human Rights (UNUDHR, 1948)

The current global human rights are contained in the United Nations Universal Declaration of Human Rights (UNUDHR) of 1948. Human Rights are those basic standards without which people cannot live in dignity. They are basic rights and freedoms, to which all humans are entitled, often held to include the right to life and liberty, freedom of thought and expression and equality before the law (Ferdousor, 2008, p10). Kant (2000) adds that to violate one's human right is to treat the person as though he or she were not a human being. The United Nations Universal Declaration of Human Rights regards education as a human right. Education, as a human right, is deemed necessary for human development, freedom and survival. Article 26 of The Universal Declaration of Human Rights states:

1) Everyone has a right to education. Education shall be free, at least in the elementary
2) and fundamental stages. Elementary education shall be compulsory. Technical and professional education shall be made generally available based on merit.

3) Education shall be directed to the full development of the human personality and the strength of respect for human rights and fundamental freedoms. It shall promote understanding, tolerance and friendship among all nations, racial or religious groups, and shall further the activities of the United Nations for the maintenance of peace.

4) Parents have a prior right to choose the kind of education that shall be given to their children (UN Universal Declaration of Human Rights, 1948).

From the above, we get an understanding that education is seen as human right and social justice issue and is therefore compulsory at primary level. Access to primary education is also seen as tied to the development of human personality and important for developing respect, understanding, tolerance and friendship among people and maintenance of peace, which is very important in schools. Education thus plays an important role in human development and peace and the development of non-destructive relations among people. With this in mind, many societies view education (at least primary and secondary education) as a genuine public good that should be provided to children until they outgrow their childhood vulnerabilities and inexperience to become contributing members of society (Arrey, 2008, p.13). It is also a way of reducing poverty caused by injustices of maldistribution of resources. Many existing international laws and UN documents have been created to promote and protect the right to education, such as the International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights (ICESCR), Convention on the Rights of the Child (CRC). Section 4.3 discusses the International Convention on Economies, Social and Cultural Rights.

4.3 International Conventional on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights (ICESCR)

International Convention on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights (1966) helped to establish legal mechanisms from which nations have implemented, supported and assessed effective social structures necessary to provide for just educational opportunities. For instance, Article 13 section (1) of the International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights stipulates:

> The States Parties to the present Covenant to recognise the right of everyone to education. They agree that education shall be

> directed to the full development of the human personality and the sense of its dignity, and shall strengthen the respect for human rights and fundamental freedoms. They further agree that education shall enable all persons to participate effectively in a free society, promote understanding, tolerance and friendship among all nations and all racial, ethnic or religious groups, and further the activities of the United Nations for the maintenance of peace (Article 13, section 1).

The forgoing highlights the need to recognise the fundamental nature of having a right to education and the instrumental value of education. Section 2 of Article 13 further stipulates:

2) The state parties to the present Covenant to recognize that, with a view to achieving the full realisation of this right:

a) Primary education shall be compulsory and available free to all
b) Secondary education in its different forms, including technical and vocational secondary education, shall be made generally available to all by every appropriate means and, in particular, by the progressive introduction of free education
c) Higher education shall be made equally accessible to all, on the basis of capacity, by every appropriate means, and, in particular, by the progressive introduction of free education
d) Fundamental education shall be encouraged or intensified as far as possible for those persons who have not received or completed the whole period of their primary education
e) The development of a system of schools at all level shall be actively pursued, an adequate fellowship system shall be established and the material conditions of teaching staff shall be continuously improved (ICESCR, 1996).

From the above, the injustice that may arise as a result of maldistribution, misrecognition and misrepresentation are redressed by stipulating that children and young people have the right

to free primary education and secondary education, regardless of race, gender or disability or if they are in detention or are refugees. Children and young people are given a voice in matters affecting them, such as choosing different subjects when in secondary school. This should include the option of technical and vocational training, so they should not have to focus on academic subjects, if they do not want to.

Furthermore, the government should support children and young people in education by first making efforts to reduce dropout rates from school. Secondly, make sure educators create a safe and conducive environment by avoiding the use of violence against children or young people. Thirdly, make sure educators do not publicly humiliate children or young people. Lastly, make sure children or young people are not bullied by their teachers or classmates. This supports Lezotte's (1996, p.5) argument that learning can only take place in a safe and orderly environment. The Convention on the Rights of Children (CRC) draws from ICESCR to articulate children's right to just education, as discussed in the next section.

4.4 Convention on the Rights of the Child (1989)

The convention draws from the International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights (ICESCR) to articulate learners' right to education. Article 28 of CRC stipulates:

> 1. States Parties recognise the right of the child to education and with a view to achieving this right progressively and on the basis of equal opportunity, they shall, in particular:
>
> (a) Make primary education compulsory and available free to all
>
> (b) Encourage the development of different forms of secondary education, including general and vocational education, make them available and accessible to every child, and take appropriate measures such as the introduction of free education and offering financial assistance in case of need
>
> (c) Make higher education accessible to all on the basis of capacity by every appropriate means;
>
> (d) Make educational and vocational information and guidance available and accessible to all children
>
> (e) Take measures to encourage regular attendance at schools and the reduction of drop-out rates.

2. States Parties shall take all appropriate measures to ensure that school discipline is administered in a manner consistent with the child's human dignity and in conformity with the present Convention.

3. States Parties shall promote and encourage international cooperation in matters relating to education, in particular with a view to contributing to the elimination of ignorance and illiteracy throughout the world and facilitating access to scientific and technical knowledge and modern teaching methods. In this regard, particular account shall be taken of the needs of developing Countries (CRC, 1989, Article 28).

From the above, every child has a right to primary education, therefore state parties should address the injustice that may depress this. They are to make education free and compulsory to all. Wealthy countries should help poorer countries achieve this right. Discipline in schools should respect children's dignity, so, for children to benefit from education, schools should be run in an orderly manner without the use of violence. The government should therefore ensure that school leaders review their discipline policies and eliminate any discipline practices involving physical or mental violence, abuse or neglect. The convention views education as a social justice issue and places high value on it. To uphold this, young people are encouraged to seek guidance and to reach the highest level of education of which they are capable.

Furthermore, Article 29 section1of CRC stipulates:

1. States Parties agree that the education of the child shall be directed to:

(a) The development of the child's personality, talents and mental and physical abilities to their fullest potential

(b) The development of respect for human rights and fundamental freedoms, and for the principles enshrined in the Charter of the United Nations

(c) The development of respect for the child's parents, his or her own cultural identity, language and values, for the national values of the country in which the child is living, the country from which he or she may originate and for civilisations different from his or her own;

(d) The preparation of the child for responsible life in a free society, in the spirit of understanding, peace, tolerance, equality of sexes, and friendship among all peoples, ethnic, national and religious groups and persons of indigenous origin;

(e) The development of respect for the natural environment (CRC, 1989, Article 29).

Article 29 argues for the need for recognition justice. It calls for parties to recognise both human dignity and the inherent right of each child and the need to establish appropriate educational environments capable of promoting and modelling this. School leaders can create a conducive environment by enhancing learner sense of safety by eliminating violent behaviour among learners and teachers and ensuring that the school premises are also safe. Furthermore, they should focus on the diverse abilities of each learner. The article stipulates the importance of promoting and protecting an educational environment that strives to balance the child's ability with the child's family and cultural identity and to be directly relevant to the child's socioeconomic circumstances.

Apart from Article 28 and 29 of CRC that directly deals with education. there are four other articles that articulate the need to establish an environment that is child friendly. Article 2, for instance, emphasises the importance of respecting the rights of all children, regardless of background, ability, sex, ethnicity or any other factor that might distinguish one child from the next. This is a stipulation that is important when it comes to educating the learners in a multiple deprived area, where girls are forced to take care of younger siblings or contribute towards the household economy (see Cockburn & Dostile, 2007; Emerson & Souza, 2008). It also applies to the education of immigrates that are discriminated against. Article 3 stipulates the best interest of the child should be the primary concern of all actions and decisions that may affect the child particularly safety and health. It ensures that all actions are made in the best interest of the child, however, it is necessary for the child to participate in this process. On the other hand, Article 5 address the need to consider the significance of parental/guardian moral obligation in raising their children. This includes disciplining the children in a manner that contributes positively to the capacities of the child, which should be administered in a humane manner.

Article 4 and 27 obliges the state to address economic, cultural rights of the children. Article 27 states:

1) State parties recognise the right of every child to a standard of living adequate for the child's physical, mental, spiritual, moral and social development.

> 2) The parent(s) or others responsible for the child have the primary responsibility to secure, within their abilities and financial capacities, the conditions of living necessary for the child's development.
> 3) States Parties, in accordance with national conditions and within their means, shall take appropriate measures to assist parents and others responsible for the child to implement this right and shall in case of need provide material assistance and support programmes, particularly with regard to nutrition, clothing and housing (Article 27 of CRC, 1989).

From the above, children have a right to live in a way that helps them reach their full physical and mental, spiritual, moral and social potential. For this to happen, they should have access to adequate food and housing. Good nutrition is essential for children to reach their potential, while safe environment and well-maintained housing are necessary to ensure their development. Parents and care givers are responsible for making sure that children are provided with food, clothing and shelter. However, children in multiple deprived areas lack these basic rights. The convention employs states to respond appropriately to assist such children by providing material assistance and support programmes, such school nutrition, clothing and housing.

South Africa ratified various human right treaties, such as UDHR of 1948, UNESCO CDE of 1960, ICESCR of 1966, CRC of 1989, ECCPR and ACRWC, in the period, 1994-1996 (Davel 2000, p. 199). By doing so South Africa consented with the international world to abide by international laws (Dugard 2005, p. 27). Having discussed the recognition of international conventions on quality education and safety as a social justice issue and human rights. The following section continues with children's right to education and safety in South Africa by first addressing how it is articulated in the constitution of The Republic of South Africa of 1996.

4.5 The constitution of South Africa

Social justice and human rights issues are articulated in the Constitution of South Africa (1996). The Constitution of South Africa was formed to redress the injustices of apartheid that were perpetuated through education. The preamble of the constitution states:

> We the people of South Africa,

> Recognise the injustices of our past,
> Honour those who suffered for justice and freedom in our land;
> Respect those who worked to build and develop our country; and
> Believe that South Africa belongs to all who live in it, united in our diversity.
> We, therefore, through our freely elected representatives, adopt this
> Constitution as the supreme law of the republic so as to –
> Heal the divisions of the past and establish a society based on democratic
> Values, social justice and fundamental human rights;
> Lay the foundation for a democratic and open society in which
> Government is based on the will of the people and every citizen is equally
> Protected by law;
> Improve quality of life of all citizens and free the potential of each person and
> Build a united and democratic South Africa able to take its rightful place
> As a sovereign state in the family of nations.
> May God protect our people.
> Nkosi Sikelel' iAfrica. Morena boloka stejhaba sa hero.
> God seen Suid-Africa. God bless South Africa
> Mudizimu fhatutshedza Africka. Hosi Katekisa Africa
> (RSA, 1996c, p.1).

We can see that the constitution engages with very important issues. First is the recognition of historical injustices committed during the apartheid era. Second, is the establishment of democracy based on a culture of human rights.

The constitution acknowledges the history of South Africa and the injustices committed under apartheid rule (Christie & Collins, 1990, p.62). The nation was segregated under racial and ethnic lines by the creation of the Lands Act of 1913. This contributed to multiple deprivation and safety issues experienced in the black community. Furthermore, the blacks received inferior education. This was a gross violation of human rights. The constitution therefore attempts to "heal the divisions of the past". The constitution therefore seeks to readdress the "injustices" and the "divisions" created by apartheid.

The constitution was laid on a foundation of justice, democracy and human rights. The constitution is adopted through the freely elected representatives and is based on the will of the people. Learners' right to quality education and safety are articulated in the constitution, under the Bill of Rights. Section 4.51 discusses learners' right to quality education and safety as stipulate in the constitution.

4.5.1 Bill of Rights

Chapter two of The Constitution of the Republic of South Africa of 1996 (Bill of Rights) articulates human rights. It addresses the importance of democratic representation and participation, and a commitment to culture based on human rights. Most of all it recognises education as a human right.

Article 29 of the Bill of Rights emphasises the importance of education and gives the following provisions:

1) Everyone has a right: a) To a basic education, including adult education and b) To further education, which the state must take responsible measures to make progressively available and accessible
2) Everyone has the right to receive education in the official language of their choice in public educational institutions, where that education is reasonably practicable. In order to ensure the effective access to, and implementation of, this right, the state must consider all reasonable education alternatives, including single medium institutions, taking into account: a) Equality b) Practicability c) The need to redress the results of past racially discriminatory laws and practice (RSA, 1996c).

The Bill of Rights has strong implication for schooling in South Africa. It ensures that everyone has a right to basic education and that formal equality provisions exist. Furthermore, antiracist measures are put in place to counteract the injustices that were experienced in the apartheid era, such as unequal distribution of funds to schools based on race and safety issues (Hyslop, 1976, p.456). Lastly, everyone has the right to receive education in the official language of their choice, where that education is feasible. The Bill of Rights further articulates the rights of children in pushing this agenda. Article 28 of the Bill of Rights recognises the right of children and stipulates:

1) Every child has the right to: a) a name and a nationality from birth b) family care or parental care and to appropriate alternative care when removed from the

family environment c) basic nutrition, shelter, health care services and social services d) be protected from maltreatment, neglect, abuse or degradation e) protected from exploitative labour practices and g) not to be required or permitted to perform work or provide services that

2) are inappropriate for a person of that child's age

or

3) place at risk the child's well-being, education, physical or mental health or social development (RSA, 1996c).

Article 28 of the Bill of Rights stipulates that children have a right to family/parental care, basic needs (such as food, clothing and shelter) and health care services. Furthermore, it gives provision for protection of children from exploitation and mistreatment that is detrimental to their well-being; education, physical, mental health and social development. Educators are, therefore, expected to enhance learner safety while in school (see SACE 1987). The Act gives the educators the responsibility of making sure that learners are safe both in school and at home. They are expected to enhance physiological and psychological safety by attending to anything that may cause harm to learners while in school. This includes the school infrastructure being well maintained to avoid any form of accidents. Furthermore, they should meet the learners' physiology needs, such as warm and food (see Maslow's hierarchy of needs, 1943).

However, an estimate of one fifth of children are orphaned and at least 64.5% live in multiple deprivation (SAHR Commission, 2018). They experience food insecurity and they struggle to access services such as sanitation and water. Additionally, they are exposed to high levels of violence, both at home and in school. This hinders their access to basic education (UN, 2012). Thus, the constitution seeks to protect and promote children's rights. Drawing from the constitution, the government of South Africa has further articulated children's' right to quality education and safety in policy documents, such as the South Africans Schools Act of 1996 and the National Education Policy Act of 1996. This study sought to investigate how school leaders can redresses injustices of safety and orderliness as a way of promoting learners' right to education. The next section therefore discusses the relevant policies addressing school safety and children's right to quality education.

4.6 Policy documents on children's right to education

The South African government upholds children's right to safety and quality education. Consequently, it has formulated various policy documents that promote these, which are discussed in this section. The policy documents discussed are the National Education Policy Act of 1996 and the South African Schools Act of 1996. Section 3.6.1 discusses National Education Policy Act of 1996.

4.6.1 National Education Policy Act (1996)

The National Education Policy Act (NEP) draws from the South African Constitution to articulate humans right in education. As such, article 4 (a) of NEP Act of 1996 states:

> The policy contemplated in section 3 shall be directed towards the advancement and protection of the fundamental rights of every person guaranteed in chapter 2 of the constitution, and in terms of international conventions ratified by parliament (NEP Act, 1996).

From the above, the National Education Policy Act is grounded on constitutional provisions of fundamental rights in education. It also locates South African education within the framework of international conventions ratified by the parliament. Some of these include the Convention on the Rights of the Child (CRC), Education for All campaign (EFA) and the elimination of discrimination and violation of human rights in education, with regard to treating learners with dignity. This includes instilling discipline in a humane way.

Article 4 (a) of NEP Act, like the constitution recognises everyone's right to basic education and issues of equitable access and reasonable practicability. The Act further provides for free choice in the acquisition of education, in terms of institution to be joined and medium of instruction to be used.

The Act advocates for the inclusion of learners with HIV/AIDS in schools, while simultaneously providing measures for protecting other learners and educators from being infected by HIV/AIDS. Equally important, it stipulates how to handle learners with drug addiction and dependence without condemning them and the provision of the support they need. This helps in controlling discipline in schools which is usually as a result of drug abuse.

The provision of the constitution and NEP Act are brought to the level of the school through the South African School Act of 1996. The next section discusses South African Schools Act.

4.6.2 South African School Act (1996)

The South African School Act of 1996 brings the provisions of the constitution and National Education Policy Act to the level of the school. It is mainly concerned with organisation, governance, funding of schools, promotion of democracy and developing a culture based on social justice and human rights in education, such as safety and orderliness in schools. The preamble states:

> Whereas this country requires a new national system for schools which will redress past injustices in educational provision, provide an education of progressively high quality for all learners and in so doing lay a strong foundation for the development of all people's talents and capabilities, advance the democratic transformation of society, combat racism and sexism and all other forms of unfair discrimination and intolerance, contribute to the eradication of poverty and the economic well-being of society, protect and advance our diverse cultures and languages, uphold the rights of all learners, parents and educators, and promote their acceptance of responsibility for the organisation governance and funding of schools in partnership with the state… (RSA, 1996a).

From the forgoing, the South African School Act reinforces the provisions made by the National Education Policy Act of 1996 and is pegged on the constitutional provisions. Access to education and safety as social justice and human rights are formally endorsed within South African legislation.

The Act has a provision for compulsory school attendance. Article 3 section (1) of the SASA states:

> Subject to this Act and any applicable provincial law, every parent must cause every learner for whom he or she is responsible to attend a school from the first school day of the year in which such learner reaches the age of seven years until the last day of the year in which such learner reaches the age of fifteen years of ninth grade, whichever comes first (RSA, 1996a).

This indicates that the Act places emphasis on compulsory school attendance by learners from the ages of seven to fifteen, or from grade R to grade nine (see also EFA). The Act acknowledges that, at this age, the learners are young and therefore gives the parents or the caregivers the responsibility of ensuring that they (learners) attend school as is expected of them.

Furthermore, the SAS Act promotes attendance by ensuring that the school environment is safe and conducive for learning, as stated in Article 10:

1) No person may administer corporal punishment at school to a learner.

2) Any person who contravenes subsection (1) is guilty of an offence and liable on conviction to a sentence, which could be imposed for assault (SASA, 1996a).

The above legally protects the child from all forms of abuse, including physical and mental violence, maltreatment or exploitation, sexual abuse and injury. It emphasises this by prohibiting the administration of corporal punishment and initiation practices to learners. Whoever does any of these is guilty of an offence and liable for conviction.

Article 35 of RSA (1996a) redresses past inequality in education by setting up a quintile system in all public schools. The quintiles are from one to five, with quintile one graded as the most deprived. The quintile system helps with the allocation of funds in an equitable way, whereby the most deprived schools (quintile one) are exempted from paying fees. 'No fee schools' gives learners from multiple deprived households equal opportunity to attend school (DBE, 2012). Furthermore, the government carters for teaching and learning resources. This aims at improving learner performance and protecting learners from exploitation or child labour. It also reduces the dropout rate in schools.

Learners performance is pegged on school safety (see Lezotte 1996, p.5; Lezotte &Snyder, 2011, 12). RSA (1996a), under the Regulations for Safety Measures at Public Schools (2001), stipulates that public schools are not exempted from complying with the provision of any other applicable law that is intended to support such applicable laws. In this regard, section (4) of Regulations for Safety Measures at Public Schools declares public schools to be violence and drug-free zones. It prohibits anyone from carrying, possessing or storing any dangerous objects in the school premises, except in officially designated areas identified by the principal, or the

deputy principal. In addition, it prohibits possession of illegal drugs on the school premises, or entry into the school under the influence of illegal drugs or alcohol. It also prohibits any form of violence or disturbance that can negatively affect school activities.

Section (5) of regulation for safety measures limits access to public school premises. Sub-section (1) states:

1) Subject to the constitution, laws and national and provincial policies, the Head of Department (HoD) or the principal of any public school may and for such timeframes as may be necessary-
    a) Take such steps as he or she may consider necessary for the safeguarding of the public school premises as well as for the protection of the people therein; and
    b) Direct that the school may only be entered in accordance with the provisions of sub-regulations (2) (RSA, 1996a).

The above empowers the school principal, or the HoD to enhance school safety by screening those who enter the school premises for drugs or dangerous objects. The principals have a right to search anyone on the premises without warrant. Furthermore, the principal and/or the HoD may require such persons entering the school premises to furnish them with their identification and declare what they have and can bar them from accessing the school if they feel they are can be a danger to the learners and the school personnel. Safety is also reinforced by school uniform.

The RSA (1996a) further gives guideline to the school governing bodies on practices related to school uniform, to ensure that it does not deter access to education and does not infringe on the constitutional rights of the learners. The guide also seeks to reduce the cost of school uniforms, particularly for learners form multiple deprived areas, so that they are not excluded from school or participation in school programmes. Most importantly, the SASA sees school uniform as a way of reducing discipline problems, increasing school safety, enhance learning environment. In addition to:

> Assisting school officials in the early recognition of persons not authorized to enter school; 2) Help parents and learners resist peer pressure that leads children to make unnecessary demands for particular and often expensive clothing; 3)

> Decreasing theft, particularly of designer clothing, jewellery and expensive foot wear; 4) Minimizing gang violence and activity; and 5) Helping learners concentrate on their schoolwork (National guidelines on school uniform, 2006).

Section 8 of the South African Schools Act provide that governing body of the public school must adopt a code of conduct. This should aim at establishing discipline and conducive environment to facilitate effective teaching and learning in school. It states that the code must reflect the Constitution of South Africa and constitutional democracy, human rights and transparent communication. Furthermore, the code of conduct must inform learners of the way in which to conduct themselves to promote positive discipline, self-discipline and exemplary conduct. It is equally important to understand the scope and obligations that states must fulfil in providing right to education. This is discussed under 4A legal framework in section 4.7.

4.7 The 4A legal framework

Tomasevski (2002) constructed what is known as the 4A framework, which maps out the scope and nature of the obligations of the state to fulfil the rights to education as stipulated by international laws. According to him, for the states to meet the prescribed legal standards, they must ensure that education is firstly available. Availability of the right of education implies that functioning educational institution and programmes must be available in sufficient quantity. This requires government-funded education system especially in multiple deprived areas. The government should provide buildings, sanitation, safe drinking water, trained educators, teaching material, libraries, computer facilities and information technology. (SAHRC 2006, p. 10).

Secondly, education must be accessible, which incorporates three overlapping dimensions. To begin with, education must be made accessible to all without unfair discrimination (see Bill of Rights, 1996). Next, education must be physically accessible, that is schools should be within safe physical reach. Schools must also be accessible to people with disability to exercise their right to education. Lastly, education must be economically accessible, that is, it must be affordable to all. In terms of the human rights instruments, there is a distinction between accessibility to primary, secondary and higher education, with primary education being made free and compulsory for all (UNESCO, 2003). Secondary education is being funded under the quintile system (RSA,1996a).

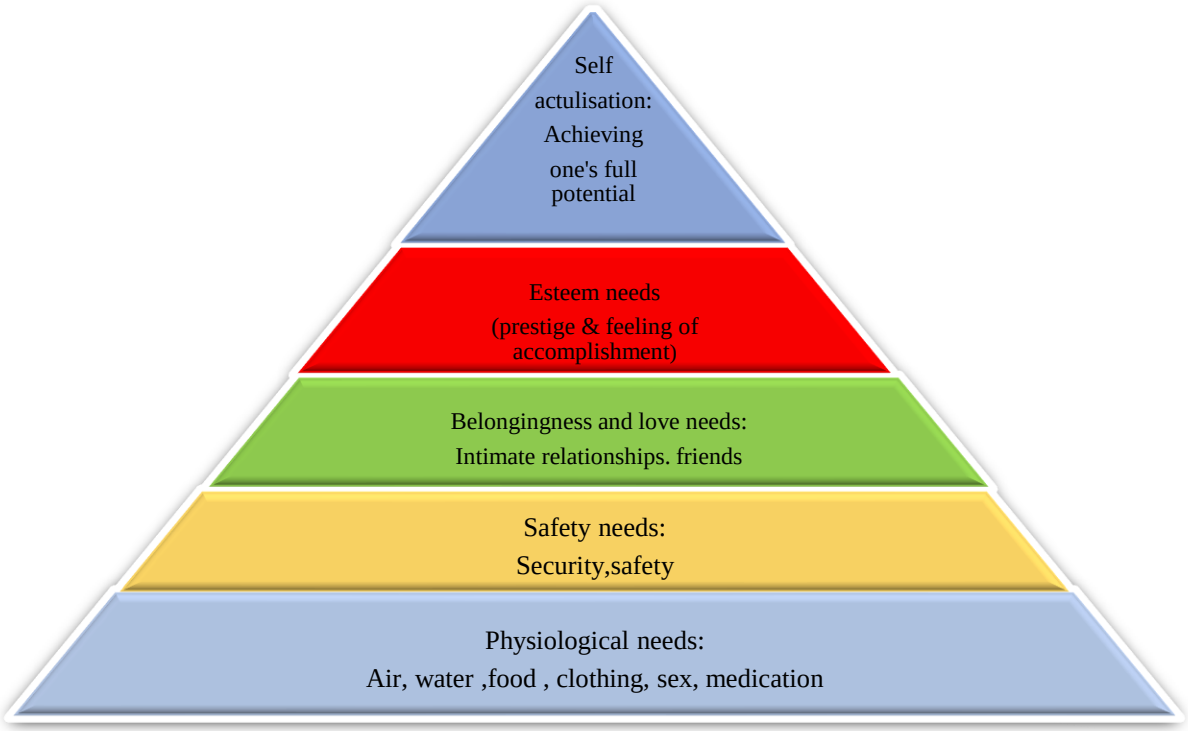
Third is the acceptability of the right to education. This refers to the substance of education that is, quality of education, including curricula and teaching methods. The quality, content and teaching method should be acceptable in terms of relevance and culturally appropriate for both learners and parents. Some of the rights arising from government's obligations to make education acceptable include medium of instruction, respect for religion and making schools safe free from bullying and threats, such as corporal punishment (see RSA 1996a, Article 10).

Fourthly is the adaptability of the right to education, which refers to the capacity of the education system to adapt to the diverse and changing needs of the learners, parents and communities. The adaptability of education requires schools to adapt to CRC principles of the best interest of the learner. This includes whether or not education is adaptable in a manner to include the education of learners from unsafe and multiply deprived areas. In South Africa, there was a need for curriculum reform since apartheid education grossly violated human rights, as already discussed in Chapter One. The next section discusses the theory adopted in the research, linking it to a human rights approach to give an understanding of enhancing school safety as a basis of school improvement.

4.8 Theory

Various theories have been used to explain school improvement in unsafe and multiple deprived areas. Among the theories that have been used include the contingency and Maslow's hierarchy of needs. Contingency theory is based on the premise that what makes a behaviour effective is dependent on situational factors (contingency factors), which can be both internal and external (Creemer & Reezigt, 2005, p.413), while Maslow's hierarchy of needs (1994, p. 342) assumes that human development process aims at self-actualised being. Maslow (1994) presented this theory as a pyramid-like structure covering five levels of needs: (1) physiological (2) safety (3) love and belonging (4) esteem (5) self-actualisation. These needs describe the pattern that human motivation goes through. He believed that human beings possess a set of motivation systems that are not related to rewards or unconscious desires. Maslow asserted that individuals are motivated by unsatisfied needs on each level, with an understanding that people are incapable of paying attention to higher-level needs when lower level needs are unmet. Once they are met, only can they cease to be motivators and the individual moves to the next level. Below is Maslow's hierarchy of needs.

Figure 4-1: Maslow's Hierarchy of needs (Source: Maslow 1994)



For learners and other school personnel to feel safe from both physical and psychosocial harm in a school setting, it would mean that the school premises are free from all forms of threat (see DBE, 2012). This would enhance learner performance. However, these theories have been criticised by scholars, such as King-Hill (2015, p. 55). This section, therefore, discusses how Fraser's social justice theory using human rights approach can be used to interrogate how schools, located in unsafe and deprived areas, can be made safe, as a way of school improvement. There was a need to use social justice theory using human rights approach, due to the complex nature of safety issues under such circumstances. The theory was used to give an understanding of how school leaders in unsafe and deprived areas enhance safety and orderliness to improve learner performance. Section 4.9 begins by discussing Fraser's theory of social justice and then linking it to school safety.

4.9 Nancy Fraser's social justice theory

Social justice is based on human rights and equality. It can be assessed based on distribution of wealth, opportunities for personal activity and social privileges. Fraser (2003) proposed a theory of justice that takes participatory equality as its normative foundation and takes redistribution, recognition and representation as its dimensions. The dimensions are discussed below.

4.9.1 Fraser's dimensions of social justice Redistribution

Fraser introduced the first two dimensions of social justice with the following annotations:

> In today's world, claims for social justice seem increasingly to divide into two types. First, and most familiar, are redistribution of resources and wealth. An Example include claims for redistribution from the North to the South, from the rich to the poor and (not long ago) from the owners to workers. To be sure, the resent resurgence of free-market thinking has put proponents of redistribution on the defensive. Nevertheless, egalitarian redistributive claims have supplied the paradigm case for most theorising about social justice for the past 150 years (Fraser, 2003, 7).

Redistribution focuses on socioeconomic inequality. According to Fraser, socioeconomic injustices occur when economic structures ensure people do not have the resources to participate as equals. They suffer from distributive injustice via class structure of the society. The three main types of socioeconomic injustices include "exploitation (others benefiting from the fruits of one's labour), economic marginalisation (when one is confined to undesirable or poorly paid work, or denied access to income) and deprivation (being denied an adequate material standard of living)" (Fraser, 1996, p. 7). Any one or a combination of these results is not only an imbalanced resource allocation, but also the perpetuation of economic injustice due to imbalance of power. A redistributive model of injustice is a key feature of inequality and schooling in South African schools. Section 4.9.2 looks at the redistributive injustices in South African schools.

4.9.2 Injustices of maldistribution in schools

Most South African schools, particularly quintile one schools, are in areas that are multiply deprived. The schools are faced with inequitable distribution of resources and the effects of maldistribution (Agbor 2012, p. 6; Gater & Isaacs 2012, p.18). Fraser's dimension of distributive justice recognises that schools are not equitable in their distribution of teaching and learning materials. Furthermore, learners are not positioned to benefit from them (Mills, 2012, 14; Tikly & Barrett, 2011, p.7).

A socially just school should, therefore, provide learners with relevant resources to improve their performance. It is, therefore, important to equip learners in unsafe and multiple deprived area with relevant resources like secure a learning environment, security personnel, stationery to enhance their performance. This argument is supported by scholars, like Sarra (2003), who ascertain that it is important to assist learners in marginalised areas to excel in exams as their counterparts who are more privileged. It has also been observed by other scholars that there is a link between deprivation, poor performance and social dysfunction (Webster & Kingston, 2014, p. 8; Valdez 2007, p.59). Section 4.9.3 looks at human rights approach and redistributive justice.

4.9.3 Human rights approach and redistributive justice

Redistributive initiatives have mainly focused on allocation of funds and resources to learners, based on the socio-economic need to support increased school participation and achievement. In South Africa, the government formulated quintile system to categories schools according to need. In addition, it has No-Fee Policy, as stated in RSA (1996a). Quintile one schools are schools considered very poor. Poverty ranking is based on income level, dependency ratio and literacy rate in the immediate community (Graven, 2014, p.16; Hall & Giese, 2008, p.104). The No-fee schools policy abolishes fees for learners in quintile one schools from grade R to grade 9. The schools are then allocated funds to cater for fees that would have been paid per learner. School fee exemption policy is also used to cater for deprived learners who do not attend quintile one schools. According to Dass and Rinquest (2017, p.25) their parents can get full, or partial, exemption from paying fees, depending on their income and the number of school-going children they support. Above all, children on child support grants and those in foster care are automatically exempted from paying fees (see Grinspun, 2016; SASA, 1996 on exemption of parents from paying fees).

Furthermore, the government initiated a feeding programme through the National School Nutrition programme (NSNP). The NSNP targets all quintile 1 to 3 schools, which are also no-fee paying schools, and selected special schools for learners with disabilities. The programme was to address poverty and under-nutrition among learners (Adelman et al., 2008). The targeted learners receive balanced cooked meals and sometime are given portions to take home.

Another redistributive initiative that targets deprived learners is the Child Support Grant (CSG) under the Social Assistance Act of 2004. According to Grinspun (2016, p.31), CSG improved learner performance. It was hoped that learners who received CSG resumed school immediately after delivery. In addition, it improves school enrolment and quality learning.

Other redistributive initiatives include issuing of free uniforms to learners that cannot afford and scholar transport to needy learners that come from far (DBE, 2009). Distributive initiatives also aim at supporting at-risk learners, for example expectant learners and teen mothers. Such learners are given emotional and material support by school-based support teams (SBST). A distributive understanding of justice has been the main focus when dealing with social justice perpetuated by class disadvantage, through the inequitable distribution of educational resources. However, such an approach is limited since recognition also constrains learners' performance. The next section focuses on Fraser's dimension of misrecognition.

4.9.4 Misrecognition

The concept of recognition is defined in the Oxford Dictionary (2008) as "acknowledging something or someone's existence, validity or legality, according notice to, discovering or realising the nature of, to treat as, realise or admit that, and to know again or identify as knowing before." The variation in definitions of the concept demonstrates its complexity. Furthermore, recognition theorists have little agreement as to what constitutes recognition, what it does, for what and for whom (Kompridis, 2007). Recognition theorists, such as Honneth (1995), Taylor (1994) and Fraser (1995), draw from the Hegelian idea that identity is constructed through a process of recognition. However, they approach it differently (see Thompon, 2006). Taylor's focuses on the nature and validity of recognition claims in culturally diverse societies that include groups with different values and interests. Honneth's concern is to build a theory that is grounded in the concept of recognition as the essential element in human interaction and group identity. Honneth (1995, p. 129-132) identifies three dimensions of recognition adopted from Hegel: love, rights and solidarity. Like Honneth, Fraser identifies three forms of misrecognition as:

> Cultural domination (being subjected to patterns of interpretation that are associated with another culture that is alien/hostile to one's own); non-recognition (being rendered invisible via the authoritative representational, communicative, and interpretive practices of one's culture); and disrespect

> (being routinely maligned or disparaged in stereotypical public cultural representations and/or everyday life interactions (Fraser, 2008, p. 14-15).

Fraser is clear that misrecognition is not simply psychological harm caused by being a member of a marginalised group and that cultural injustice is as serious as economic injustice. Fraser argues that,

> Misrecognition is not simply to be thought ill of, looked down on, or devalued in others' conscious attitudes or mental beliefs. It is rather to be denied the status of full partner in social interaction and prevented from participating as a peer in social life… because of institutionalized patterns of interpretation that constitute one as unworthy of respect or esteem (Fraser, 2008, p, 58).

According to Fraser, recognition is not just an instrument of self-realisation, but a tool for acquiring full status as human partners in social interaction (Kompridis, 2007, p. 254). Therefore, she argues that we should attend to patterns and structures that make some individuals and groups inferior, excluded, wholly or simply invisible (Fraser, 1995, p.70). This validates her emphasis on fairness of redistribution of resources. It is important to note that the three theorists define the importance of 'misrecognition' and 'non-recognition' concepts that have saliency when considering learner safety (Thomas, 2012). Section 4.9.5 discusses Fraser's dimension of recognition in schools.

4.9.5 Misrecognition in schools

In the school setup, young people who are marginalised experience schooling as less positive. Misrecognition is shaped in schools in the form of lack or reward and mainly by unsafe environments, such as harassment, violence, being ignored, silenced or having one's existence denied and discriminated against by educators and learners alike (Smyth,2006, p. 40). The principle of recognition, therefore, makes demands on school leaders to identify and be sensitive to things that make the school personnel feel unsafe. This not only involves identifying factors that depress school safety and orderliness, but also make schools a safe space for all the personnel (Gershoff, 2017, p. 6). Section 4.9.5.1 looks at how recognition can be enhanced in schools using a human rights approach.

4.9.5 1Human rights approach to recognition in schools

Recognition can be enhanced in schools by respecting the children's dignity. The leaders can do so by reviewing discipline policies and eliminating any discipline practices involving physical or mental violence, abuse or neglect (CRC, 1989). Article 29 of the Convention on the Rights of the Child further argues for the need to recognise both human dignity and the inherent right of each child and the need to establish appropriate environments capable of promoting this. Osher et. al (2010) assert that school leaders are, therefore, tasked with the responsibility of creating a conducive learning environment, by eliminating any form of violent behaviour among learners and educators and ensuring that the school premises are safe.

Recognition and redistribution are related and are addressed in South Africa under the South African Schools Act (1996). Article 10 of the Act protects children from all forms of abuse. This includes protection from physical and mental abuse, maltreatment or exploitation, sexual abuse and injury. This is emphasised by prohibiting the administration of corporal punishment and initiation practices to learners. It further addresses safety issues caused by multiple deprivation by recognising the learners' physiological needs (see article 35).

RSA (1996a), under Regulations for Safety Measures at Public Schools (2001), stipulates safety regulations for public schools. It prohibits possession or storing of any dangerous object within the school premises. In addition, it prohibits possession of illegal drugs and substances within the school or entering the school while under the influence of drugs or alcohol. Furthermore, it prohibits any form of violence or disturbance that affects the smooth running of the school's activities.

Recognition is also enhanced via a learner code of conduct, which guides learner behaviour, thus controlling any form of activity that may compromise safety within the school or disrupt learning activities. Section 4.9.6 discusses Frasers's third dimension, representation.

4.9.6 Misrepresentation

Fraser introduced a third dimension of social justice, representation, to her work as a response to the challenges of an increasingly globalised and trans-national world. According to her, misrepresentations "occur when political boundaries and/or decision rules function to deny some people, wrongly, the possibility of participating on par with others in social interaction

including, but not only political arenas" (Fraser, 2008, p. 279). In other words, issues of representation involve who belongs in discussions about social justice and misrepresentation occurs when someone is unfairly excluded from a discussion that affects them.

Fraser asserts that issues around justice were assumed to take place among citizens of a nation, who appealed to their leaders to address the injustice. However, injustice is often beyond national boundaries, and cannot be addressed within a nation. Expounding on this assertion she notes that:

> Many observe that social processes shaping their lives routinely overflow territorial boundaries…decisions taken in one territorial area often have an impact on the lives of those outside it, as do the actions of transnational corporations, international currency speculators, and large transnational investors… faced with global warming, the spread of HIV-AIDS, international terrorism and superpower unilateralism, many believe that their chances for living good lives depend at least as much on the processes that trespass the borders of territorial states as those contained within them (Fraser 2008, p. 273-274).

Fraser further divided this into three levels of misrepresentation. The first level is ordinary-politics, or the *what* of justice. This type of misrepresentation is experienced within a nation. Issues of ordinary political injustice could include whether the electoral system offers meaningful representation to minorities. Another debate is whether the minorities are adequately represented. Fraser identified a second level of misrepresentation as misframing. She stated that:

> misframing arises when a community's boundaries are drawn in such a way as to wrongly exclude some people from the chance to participate at all in its authorized contest over justice… Far from, the universe of those entitled to consideration within the community in matters of distribution, recognition, and ordinary-political representation (Fraser, 2009, p. 19).

Misframing discusses issues around who is entitled to receive just distribution, recognition and representation in a given circumstance. Lastly, the third level of misrepresentation is meta-political.

The meta-political level of misrepresentation is the domain of frame setting by states and multinational elites, such as social scientists, institutions and bureaucrats. Meta-political misrepresentation arises when there is lack of an arena where those affected by injustices overflowing the boundaries of nations can discuss their concerns and have these actively addressed (Fraser, 2009, p. 65).

4.9.7 Misrepresentation in schools

Although Fraser is referring to misrepresentation in the wider political space, it occurs in schools when the personnel, especially learners, are denied the opportunity to express economic or misrecognition injustices they are experiencing, or are not given the right to contribute to issues that affect them. Fraser (2009) contends that misrepresentation can be exhibited in the absence of socioeconomic and cultural justice, even though it is not common. She argues that all the levels of social justice should be addressed in order to achieve a socially just society, where there is equal participation.

The majority of learners experienced schooling as oppressive because they were not free to express their opinions or challenge the injustices they experience (Black, 2011, p.42). The learners' voices are important in schools (Field & Moss, 2011, p.17). However, they are lacking in South African schools, especially those located in unsafe and multiple deprived areas. An absence of learners' voices or representation may be apparent in the ways in which learners, especially those from multiple deprived areas, are suspended from school or punished without options to challenge those decisions. It is also apparent in the choice of hair styles for learners and a learner code of conduct. The next section looks at a human rights approach to representation in South African schools. Most schools do not have a voice in such matters. They are expected to abide by what is ongoing at the time of their admission to school.

4.9.8 Human rights approach to representation in schools

Quality education as a human right is a national concerned in South Africa (Spaul, 2013, p. 2). Furthermore, South Africa has ratified various international conventions and, by doing so, consented to the international world to abide by international laws (Dugard, 2005, p. 5). The government has, therefore, put measures in place that ensure that representation is enhanced in schools. The main structures that uphold representation in schools are the Representative Council of Learner (RCL) and School Governing Body (SGB), under RSA (1996a). The RCL

is composed of elected learners from grade eight to twelve. It consists of two representatives from each class male and female (GDE). Apart from what Education Human Resources (1999) stipulates, the role of an RCL as maintaining order in schools, promoting good relations and communication, setting positive examples, supporting the education programme and maintaining and refining the traditions of the school. The RCL give learners a "voice". It gives them a chance to discuss matters that are affecting them in the school. These include issues of safety and orderliness that affect them. Another avenue is through the SGB.

Members of SGB represent all the stakeholders in the school. It is composed of 1) parents of learners enrolled at school 2) Educators at school 3) Members of staff who are not educators 4) Learners in grade 8 5) Representatives of sponsors, if applicable 6) The principal by virtue of his/her official capacity. (DBE, n. d, p.211). The SGB embraces participation of all stake holders in the decision-making processes in matters that affect the school. It gives a voice to the learners to air their views and concerns through their representatives. The SGB engages parents in the formulation of a learner code of conduct and holds meetings with parents. Both parents and educators get a chance to contribute to the discussions around matters affecting them (Mncube, Davies & Naidoo, 2014, p.64).

It is worth noting that the South African government has put measures in place to ensure that schools are safe and orderly and, above all, the learners' right to quality education is upheld. However, this is never the case across the country. A case in point is learners are misrepresented in matters affecting them. Furthermore, parents are not free to air their views.

This is echoed by (Mncube, 2005, p.72; Brown & Duku, 2008, p. 432). The leaders should therefore endeavour to include parents and learners in matters that affect them as is stipulated by SASA. The table below gives a summary of the dimensions of social justice, how they affect the school and the human rights approach that alleviate them.

Dimensions of social justice	How they affect schools	Human rights approach to enhancing justice at school level
Redistribution	Inadequate infrastructure Lack of teaching and learning materials, under-nutrition, poor housing condition	SASA fee exemption Nutrition programme Free uniform, youth empowerment
Recognition	Violent and unsafe environment	SASA (Regulation for Safety measures at public schools. Access control Code of conduct) counselling, partnering with NGOs/community
Representation	Learners not free to discuss issues affecting them. Learners needs not presented	SASA (SGB, RCL) policy review

Figure 4-2: summary of dimensions of social justice ***(Source: own)***

4.10 Conclusion

The chapter discussed the theory that underpins the study, which sought to examine social justice strategies that school leaders used to redress injustices the schools faced. School safety and quality education are human rights and social justice issues that are stipulated in the South African constitution. The chapter, therefore, discussed Fraser's theory of social justice together with human rights conventions drawn from the United Nations Universal Declaration of Human Rights (UNUDHR,1948), the International Convention on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights (1966) and the Convention of Rights of Children. These were linked to the South African constitution and acts, such as SASA and NEPA, to fully explore the injustices of school safety and orderliness. The use of analytical insights of these international conventions and acts broaden the perspective by which we can better understand the way school leaders enact social justice measures (redistribution, recognition and representation) and

the extent to which these measures make schools safe and orderly. Chapter five will discuss methodology.

5. CHAPTER 5: METHODOLOGY

5.1 Introduction

The previous chapter discussed school improvement and how it can be enhanced by leaders. This was done by discussing leadership theories. This chapter discusses the rationale for selecting qualitative research methodology for the study. Neuman (2014, p. 95) states that "research methodology is composed of the underling paradigm and approach used in the study", while MacMillan and Schumacher (2010, p. 166) state that "it is a plan for selecting subjects, research sites and data collection procedures to answer the research questions". The study was located within qualitative research design, using social justice theory, as discussed in chapter three. This is because it was the most appropriate design for examining social justice strategies the leaders use to make their schools safe. The chapter begins with the discussion of the philosophy that underpins the study. It reviews the research method and design, including a description of methods and procedures of data generation and analysis. The sample population and methods used to determine the sample are then identified. It proceeds to the trustworthiness of the instruments and concludes with ethical issues that were observed in the study. The next section addresses the research philosophy that underpinned the study. The philosophy is reflected in the principles that are outlined in the paradigm below.

5.2 Research paradigm

The term 'paradigm' originated from the Greek word *paradema*, which means pattern. The term was first used by Thomas Kuhn in his book: *The structure of scientific revelation* (1962). A paradigm was used to denote a conceptual framework shared by a community of scientists, which provided them with a convenient model for examining problems and finding solutions. Kuhn defines a paradigm as "an integrated cluster of substantive concepts, variables and problems attached with corresponding methodological approaches and tools …" According to him, the term 'paradigm' refers to research culture with a set of beliefs, values and assumptions that a community of researchers have in common regarding the nature and condition of research (Kuhn, 1962). A paradigm, hence, "implies a pattern, structure and framework or system of scientific and academic ideas, values and assumptions" (Babbie, 2016, p. 32).

A paradigm consists of the following: Ontology, epistemology, axiology methodology and methods. Ontology is the study of being (Crotty, 1998, p. 8). Ontological assumptions are

concerned with what constitutes reality: i.e. what is. Researchers take their positions of how things really are and how things really work.

Secondly, epistemology is concerned with the nature and form of knowledge (Cohen, Manion & Morrison, 2011, p.15). Epistemological assumption is concerned with how knowledge can be created, acquired and communicated: i.e. what it means to know. Guba and Lincoln (1994, p.108) further explain that epistemology asks the questions, what is the nature of the relationship between the would-be knower and what can be known? Axiology is a branch of philosophy that studies judgements about value. Heron (1996, p.11), argues that researchers articulate their values as a basis for making judgements about what research they are conducting and how they will go about doing it.

Guba (1990, p.18) identified three major research paradigms as positivism, post positivism and interpretivism. According to him, each paradigm is based upon its own underlying ontological and epistemological assumptions, which guide the researcher in selecting the approach suitable for his/her study. In addition, how the research is to be conducted is also relevant (Guba & Lincoln, 1994, p.108). The distinct paradigms have been subjected to debate with many authors aligning positivity with quantitative; interpretive with qualitative; and postmodernism with mixed method research (Neuman, 2000, P.134).

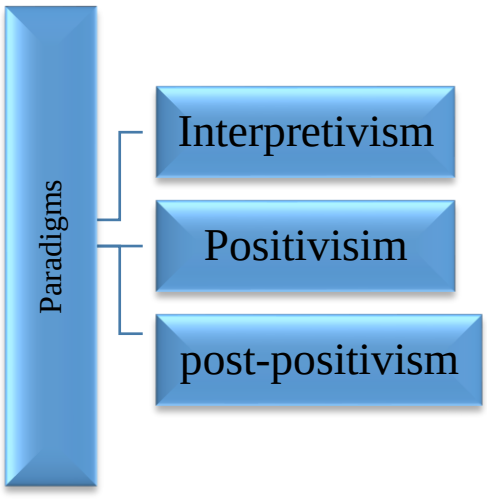


Figure 5-1: major paradigms identified by Guba and Lincoln (*Source: Guba & Lincoln, 2005)*

5.2.1 The Interpretivist Paradigm

The interpretivist paradigm is also known as "anti-positivist" paradigm, because it was developed as a reaction to positivism. It is also referred to as constructivism, because it emphasises the ability of the individual to construct meaning. The interpretivist paradigm was heavily influenced by hermeneutic and phenomenology. Hermeneutics is the study of meaning and interpretation in history text. This meaning-making process is the base on which the interpretivist paradigm was established (Ernest, 1994). Another strong influence is the philosophical movement, phenomenology, which advocates the 'need to consider human beings' subjective interpretations, their perceptions of the world, as the starting point in understanding social phenomena" (Ernest, 1994. P. 14). Therefore, the ontological assumptions of interpretivism are that social reality is seen by multiple people, who interpret events differently, leaving multiple perspectives of an incident.

Moreover, interpretive paradigm focuses on the complexity of social phenomena to gain understanding and interpret everyday events, experiences and social structures, as well as values people attach to these phenomena (Collis & Hussey, 2009, p. 56-57; Rubin & Babbie, 2010, p. 37). Therefore, I found it most appropriate to situate this study within an interpretive paradigm to understand the perceptions and practices of leaders in attempting to enhance learner safety. The interpretive paradigm allowed me to generate rich data, as it has several methodological tools (Babbie & Mouton, 2016, p. 28). The next section highlights the major proponents of interpretivism and their philosophies.

Table 5-1: Main thinkers of interpretivism and their philosophies

Main thinkers	**philosophy**
Edmund Husserl, Aurther Schultz	Phenomenology
Wilhem Dilthey, George Gadamer	Hermeneutics
Herbert Blumer	Symbolic interaction
Harold Garfinkel	Ethnomethodology

Source: Willis (2007)

Interpretative methodology understands a phenomenon from an individualistic perspective by investigating interaction among individuals as the historic and cultural context which people inhibit (Creswell, 2009, p.5). Examples of methodology include case study (in-depth study of events or process over a prolonged period), phenomenology (the study of direct experience, without allowing the interference of existing preconceptions), hermeneutic (deriving meaning from language) and ethnography (the study of cultural groups over a prolonged period).

Table 5-2: Ontological, epistemological and axiological assumptions of interpretivism

Ontological assumption (relativism)	1. Reality is indirectly constructed, based on individual interpretation and is subjective. 2. People interpret and make their own meaning of events. 3. Events are distinctive and cannot be generalised. 4. There are multiple perspectives of one incident.
Epistemological assumption [subjectivism]	1. Knowledge is gained through a strategy that "respects the difference between people and the objectives of natural science and therefore requires the social scientist to grasp the subjective meaning of action" (Bryman as cited in Grix 2004) 2. Knowledge is gained inductively to create a theory. 3. Knowledge arises from particular situations and is not reducible to simplistic interpretation. 4. Knowledge is gained through personal experience
Axiological assumption	1. It acknowledges the value-lade, nature of the study and reports his/her value. Besides, it values the complex understanding of unique realities.

Source: Adopted from Grix 2004

5.2.2 Philosophical assumption for the study

Researchers base their work on a philosophical perspective, depending on the work they are doing. This study is about how school leaders' perceive the injustices of safety and orderliness and the strategies they use to redress these injustices as a way of improving learner performance. I found it appropriate to situate it within interpretive paradigm, because of the greater utility of methodological tools on offer, which gave me room to explore various practices. The interpretive paradigm generates rich data on how people build meaning to their experiences. It also allows more direct voices from the participants and the researcher to construct various meanings and gaining a better understanding of how leaders enhance school safety and orderliness as a basis of school improvement.

5.3 Qualitative research

Qualitative research has been defined in different ways by different authors. Some highlight the research purpose and focus (Merriam, 2009, p. 41). Others emphasis method and epistemological stance (Parkinson and Dristance, 2011, p.20). Others still focus on the process and context of data collection. Denzin and Lincoln (2011) describes qualitative research as:

> situated activity that locates the observer in the world. It consists of a set of interpretive, material practices that makes the world visible. These practices transform the world. They turn the world into a series of representations, including field notes, interviews, conversations, photographs, recordings and memos to the self. At this level, qualitative research involves an interpretive naturalistic approach to the world (p.24).

This means that qualitative researchers study things in their natural settings, attempting to make sense of, or to interpret, phenomena in terms of the meanings people bring to them. This study was located within qualitative approach. The approach gave me the opportunity to get the different views of the leaders to ascertain their perceptions and practices in improving learner performance in schools that are located in unsafe and multiple deprived areas. In addition, it allowed for multiple interpretations of meaning upon reflection on the context of the data collected. This is in line with Gray's (2009) assertion that qualitative study enables the researcher to gain a deep and intense engagement with data collected and a holistic view of the context under study.

A qualitative approach was appropriate for this study, because little is known about how leaders in multiple deprived areas enhance safety as a basis for school improvement, therefore it opened room for multiple interpretation. A qualitative approach gave access into the lives of principals, educators and learner representatives in unsafe and multiple deprived areas, where there was little information. Through this approach, vital issues were raised, giving a deeper insight into the challenges of safety and multiple deprivation. It enabled me to get the leaders' perception of injustices they face and the strategies they use to redress them.

The study sought to tap into the inner feelings, thoughts, views and opinions of principals, educators and learner representatives by employing numerous data generation methods, such as individual interviews, focus group interviews, observation and photographs. This is corroborated by Weinreich (2009, p. 127), who asserts that "qualitative approach generates rich, detailed data that leave the participants' perspective intact and provide a context for the phenomena being studied."

However, qualitative research has been criticised. The main criticisms are that it is too subjective and impressionistic as the researcher's values, biases and theoretical inclination may influence the outcome of the research. Next, knowledge produced may not be generalised to other people or settings, as the scope of findings is restricted. It may be labour intensive and time consuming. Lastly, it lacks transparency, as it is sometimes not easy to establish what the researcher did, or how, he/she arrived at the answer. The research noted these criticisms and therefore employed various strategies to ensure trustworthiness (see section 5.13).

5.4 Case study

A case study aims at understanding human beings in a social context by interpreting their actions as a single group, community or single event. Simons (2009) defines a case study as "an in-depth exploration from multiple perspectives of the complexity and uniqueness of a particular project, policy, institution, programme or system in a 'real life'" (p.21). While Yin (2011) defines a case study as "an empirical inquiry that investigates a contemporary phenomenon within its real-life context". A case study is useful in situations where contextual conditions of the events being studied are critical and where the researcher has no control over the events as they unfold.

The study adopted an interpretive position, therefore case study was considered most appropriate to employ, since it provided a systematic way to generate data, analyse data and report results, thus understanding the problem in great depth. In addition, it provided a variety of distributive, recognition and representation strategies that leaders used to make their schools safe. Furthermore, a case study gave room for multiple data generation methods, so I utilised individual interviews, focus group interviews, observation schedules, photographs and subsequent 'thick description' of school safety Yin (2011, p. 8). The 'thick description' gave me access to multiple interpretations of the findings.

However, case study has been criticised for non-representativeness and lack of statistical generalisability Moreover, the richness and complexity of data generated means that data is often open to different interpretations and potential 'researcher's biases'. However, Denzin and Lincoln (2002) argue that "looking at multiple actors in multiple settings enhance generalisability" (p.193).

Given the interpretive stance of this study and the research questions, I believes that case study was the most appropriate research strategy for the study, because of its advantages in illuminating the unique perceptions and concerns of the school leaders in unsafe and multiple deprived areas. The next section explores site selection.

5.5 Site selection

The Gauteng Department of Education websites provides a list of secondary schools categorised in quintiles from one through five. I analysed the list and picked the circuit that had the highest number of schools in quintile one. After which, I approached the circuit head for a list of quintile one schools that were located in unsafe neighbourhoods, but were ranked high in the National Senior Certificate (NSC). This approach was based on the studies that indicated that schools located within poor communities with a great deal of safety issues are more likely to have experienced school violence (Burton, 2013, p.17). The schools sampled were in Johannesburg. Table 5.3 is the performance (National School Certificate results) of the schools between the years 2013-20116.

Table 5-3: National School Certificate results 2013-2016

	2013		2014		2015		2016	
School	Wrote	%Achieved	Wrote	%Achieved	Wrote	%Achieved	Wrote	%Achieved
A	129	94.6%	134	94.4%	237	79.3%	140	87.1%
B	-	-	39	79.5%	140	81.4%	104	88.9%
E	99	77.8%	142	76.8	141	79.6	140	85.1%

5.6 Sample size

I used purposive sampling to select three schools to participate in the study. The schools were sampled because they represented schools that excelled, despite being located in unsafe and multiple deprived areas. This was vital in assessing how the leaders in these schools redressed the injustices of safety to improve learner performance. The table below shows the population of the learners and the educators in the sampled schools.

Table 5-4: population of learners and educators in schools A, Band E

Name of school	Category of school	Student population	Number of educators
School "A"	Quintile 1	1181	37
School "B"	Quintile 1	969	20
School "E"	Quintile 1	1000	40

Source: GDE

5.7 Description of the schools

The schools sampled had similar characteristics. They were all quintile one secondary schools and were fee-exempted (see SASA, 1996 on fee exemption). The schools depended on government funding, including support for teaching and learning resources, school maintenance, scholar transport and a nutritional programme for the learners. Another common feature of these schools was that they were located in very unsafe areas. The members of the community constantly broke into the schools. Chapter One gives a clear illustration of how the location was unsafe. The schools therefore experienced some of the ills of the community.

Furthermore, they were ranked by the Department of Education as unsafe schools. The following section looks at the specifics of the schools.

School A

School "A" is situated along a tarmac road. It has the advantage of being accessible by public transport. It was founded in 1992. It has twenty-eight classrooms and four science laboratories that are under-resourced. The school is a technical school but does not have workshops for conducting practical lessons. The administration block and FET classes are well constructed with bricks and were well maintained. This was contrary to mobile classes behind the administration block that were run down. The main entrance looked clean and was decorated with flowers. The school had a small space that cannot pass as a playing ground. It had recorded high cases of violence (see chapter 2).

At the time of research, the school had an enrolment of 1 182 learners with a class size of 50 plus. The school had 37 educators. The school was headed by a female principal, who had served in the school for twenty-three years: twenty years as a teacher and serving the third year as a principal.

School B

School "B" was headed by a female principal at the time of the research. She had served in the school for four years. The school was relatively new, having been established in 2011. There was an enrolment of 969 and a teaching staff of 20. It was a no fee school and was made up of an assembly of thirty (containers) mobile classroom units. The school looked neat, though the ground was bear with no grass. This made it very dusty. This environment affected the learners' health. Furthermore, the school was situated near a park and taverns. This location made it very unsafe for both the learners and the educators.

School E

School "E" was situated along the main taxi route. It was an old school, but the date of establishment was not known. The school had old buildings made of bricks with a total of eighteen classrooms, two laboratories and a library. In addition, it had a playing field and a small vegetable garden. At the time of the research, it had a population of about 1000 learners and 40 educators. The school was headed by a male principal and two deputy principals. School

E is a no-fees school that served learners from the informal settlement and some from the middle class.

5.8 Research participants

The research participants in this study were principals, educators and learner representatives from the (sampled secondary schools) that were located in unsafe and deprived areas.

5.8.1 Learner representatives

I selected student representative using purposive sampling procedure. "… purposive sampling is used to access 'knowledgeable people' that is, those who have in-depth knowledge about a particular issue, maybe by virtue of a professional role, power, access to networks, expertise or experience" (Ball, 1990, as cited in Cohen et al., 2011, p. 157). I sampled learner representatives from the sampled schools. Firstly, because they served in leadership positions in the schools. Secondly, I anticipated that the learner representatives had experienced multiple deprivation and violence that were associated with gang related activities, such as robbery, assault, substance abuse and trafficking. Therefore, their voices were valuable in this study.

Nineteen learner representatives were sampled for the study. They were from grades eight through twelve. In line with research ethics, I used pseudonyms for all the participants, in order to provide anonymity and confidentiality. The learner representatives were labelled as SA1-SA6 for school A, SB1-SB6 for school B and SE1-SE7 for school E. Pseudonyms were used throughout this thesis. I also blurred faces of the participants captured in the photos to avoid any form of recognition.

The demographic information of the learner representatives is summarised in table 5.5, which shows that the majority of learner representatives who participated in the focus group interview were male. They were between ten to nineteen years of old. Most of them were in grade eleven, with very few from grades ten and twelve. The table also shows that very few lived with both parents. Their parental level of education ranged from grade eight to diploma, though some could not tell their parents' level of education. Only three parents were in formal employment. The remaining were either self-employed, did casual work or were unemployed. Table 5-5 is a summary of demographic information for the learner representatives.

Table 5-5: Demographic information of learner representatives

Participants	Gender	Race	Age	Grade	Staying with both parents	Parental level of education	Parental occupation
SA1	Male	Black	17-19	10	No	Diploma	Educator
SA2	Female	Black	17-19	12	No	Matric	Credit Controller
SA3	Male	Black	17-19	12	No	Matric	Sports trainer
SA4	Female	Black	14-16	11	No	Grade 8	Cleaner
SA5	Female	Black	17-19	12	No	Matric	Hair dresser
SA6	Male	Black	14-16	12	No	Not known	unemployed
SB1	Male	Black	17-19	11	Yes	Matric	Mechanic
SB2	Male	Black	14-16	11	Yes	Matric	Self employed
SB3	Male	Black	14-16	11	Yes	Not known	Domestic worker
SB4	Male	Black	17-19	11	Yes	Bachelors	Accountant
SB5	Female	Black	17-19	12	No	Grade 10	Domestic worker
SB6	Female	Black	14-16	12	No	Not Known	plumber
SE1	Female	Black	10-13	11	No	Not Known	Unemployed
SE2	Female	Black	17-19	11	No	Matric	Self employed
SE3	Male	Black	14-16	11	No	Matric	Unemployed
SE4	Male	Black	14-16	11	Yes	Matric	Clerk
SE5	Male	Black	14-16	11	No	Grade 11	Cleaner
SE6	Female	Black	14-16	11	Yes	Matric	Mechanic
SE7	Male	Black	17-19	11	No	Diploma	Nurse

5.8.2 Educators

I had planned to sample educators who were on the school safety committee and had served in the same school for more than three years. However, this was not possible, because the pilot

study conducted indicated that not all schools had school safety committees, as required by Gauteng Department of Education. I therefore resorted to selecting educators based on teaching experience. The educators sampled had teaching experience of three years in their schools and were grade educators at the time the research was conducted. This category was used, because, as grade educators, they were charged with the responsibility of monitoring their class performance and promoting safety in their classes. I sampled a total of six educators from the three schools selected. As stated in the section above, I used pseudonyms. The educators were labelled as EA1 and EA2 for school A. School B had EB1 and EB2 while school E had EE1 and EE2.

In the study, the educators sampled for individual interview were all black. Majority of educators were forty-one years and above and had educational qualifications of diplomas and Bachelor of Education. They taught various subjects, from grade eight to twelve. Lastly, some of the educators had served in the same school for over fifteen years. This finding was contrary to studies that state there is a high teacher attrition in schools located in unsafe areas (Nick, 2013, p. 3). Table 5.6 gives a summary of the demographic information of the educators.

Table 5-6: Demographic information of educators

Participants	Age	Gender	Race	Educational qualification	Length of service in school	Subjects	Grade
EE1	51>	Female	Black	Bachelors	15 years	Natural science	9
EE2	51>	Male	Black	Diploma	1 year	Technology & Mathematics	8&9
EA1	51>	Female	Black	Bachelors	22 years	Civil technology	10-12
EA2	41-50	Male	Black	Diploma	20 years	Life science	10&12
EE1	26-30	Male	Black	Bachelors	3 years	English & History	8-11
EE2	31-35	Female	Black	Bachelors	4 years	English	10-12

5.8.3 Principals

I sampled three schools to participate in the study. This meant that only three principals participated. They were labelled as P; i.e. PB and PE for schools B and E respectively, and Mrs Baloyi for school A because the principal wanted her views known without being anonymous.

The school principals sampled were all black. Out of the three principals, only one was male. They were over fifty years old, except one that was between forty-one to fifty years old. The principals headed big schools and took part in teaching as well. Lastly, two principals had experience of over nine years. The table below shows a summary of demographic information of the principals.

Table 5-7: Demographic information of the principals

Participants	Gender	Age	Race	Educational qualification	Experience as principal	Length of service in school	Teaching subjects	Population of school
Mrs. Baloyi	Female	51>	Black	Bachelors	3 years	23 years	English & Sotho	1186
PB	Female	41-50	Black	Bachelors	10 years	4 years	Physical science	969
PE	Male	51>	Black	Diploma	16 years	3 years	Physical science	1000>

5.9 Researcher adaptation

During the interview process, two parents and a security officer (watchman) approached me to share information outside the formal interview process. These individuals had heard about the study and wanted to share information on school safety. I termed these incidents “snowball interviews” and I recorded these on the field notes. These individuals did not take part in the formal interview.

5.10 Data generation methods

This section discusses data generation methods that were used in this study. This included a discussion on individual interview procedures, focus group discussions, observation and the use of photos.

5.10.1.1 Interview procedure

In this study, I employed open-ended interviews to generate data on the leaders' perceptions and practices on school improvement. The process of conducting interview was as follows: the participants were first informed of the purpose of the interview. I then obtain permission to record the interview. Next, I explained the purpose of the consent form (Appendix E) and their rights and then asked them to sign the forms, if they were willing to participate in the study. After that, I asked them to fill in their demographic information on the forms. This was to build trust with the participants before commencing the interview. Furthermore, the participants were interviewed individually in private. I deemed this the most appropriate way of obtaining truthful responses from the participants, as some of the information sought on safety could be incriminating.

5.10.2 In-depth interview

An interview is a social encounter, where speakers collaborate to produce retrospective accounts, or versions of their past, future experiences, thought and feelings (Silverman et.al, 2004). On the other hand, Kavel (2005, p.5) defines interview as "…a conversation with purpose". I found in-depth interviews as the most appropriate way for generating data on leaders' perception and practices of redressing the injustices they faced. In addition, the use of the interviews was useful in gaining insight into the undertakings of individuals, as well as seeking out fresh perspectives on how leaders redressed the injustices of safety as a basis of school improvement. Interviews aided in the achievement of the research, because it gave the participants a rare chance of expressing their views on the topic that was not easy through any other method.

The major problem of interviews is that the participant can be uncooperative or give false information to depict themselves in a positive light. I minimised this by putting the participants at ease before beginning the interview, as well as building trust so that they could be comfortable. Secondly, open-ended question gave the participants the liberty to respond to the

questions freely, placing the emphasis on areas that they felt were more pressing. It also gave me room to probe and have more insight. Lastly, the rationale for using interviews was to clearly identify, provide an understanding of and describe the complexities of the issue addressed.

5.10.3 Focus group interview

Focus group interview is discussed by Rabiee (2004, p. 655) as a technique involving the use of in-depth group interviews in which participants are selected because they are a purposive, although not necessarily representative, sample of a specific population this group being "focused on a specific topic". The participants are selected on the basis that they would have something to contribute to the discussion, or are within the age rage, have similar characteristics and would be comfortable talking to the interviewer.

I utilised focus-group interviews for various reasons. I felt it was ideal for the learner representatives who were young. The candid setting made the participants express their opinion and values openly. It also allowed me to explore unanticipated aspects of school safety.

5.10.4 Observation

I, as a non-participant observer, carried out observational methods of data generation by observing how learners and educators interacted with one another from the time they reported to school up to the time they left for home. Furthermore, I observed the general condition of the school premise to ascertain if it was safe for the learners and other personnel.

I conducted observation schedules for a period of three weeks in and outside the classrooms. The purpose of observation was to determine how safe the structure of the premises was. This entailed observing if the buildings had been maintained, the schools had installed safety systems, the grounds were well maintained, signage was available, schools were fenced, and the gates were locked. In addition, I observed the time the learners arrived at school, if they were searched by the educators, or the security personnel on duty. Apart from that, I observed how the learners conducted themselves while not in class, how often they moved to the fence, or communicated with the people outside the school compound and how the educators and the learners interacted with one another to assess how they responded to issues that were brought

to their attention, or if they detected and acted upon anything that affected the learners while at school.

I utilised observation method, because of its advantage of directly evaluating the situation in the schools and the leaders' practices in redressing injustices of safety and orderliness as a way of improving learner performance. By observing learners and educators in different spaces (playground, along the corridors, as they took their meals, in the field), I could explore how safe and orderly the schools were; the factors that compromised school safety and orderliness; and how the leaders responded to these challenges. There was a disadvantage in that some learners and educators changed their behaviour when they knew that they were being observed. The next section looks at data analysis.

5.11 Data analysis

This being a case study, I derived data through direct interaction with the phenomenon being studied. The data was analysed by searching for meaning through direct interpretation of what was observed, as well as what was experienced by school leaders. Bogdan and Biklen (2003) define analysing qualitative data as "working with the data, organising them, breaking them into manageable units, coding them, synthesizing them and searching for patterns" p. 145. Qualitative data analysis aims at discovering patterns, concepts, themes and meanings. Yin (2011, p. 10) addresses the importance of searching the data pattern, which may explain the links in the data base. This process requires the researcher to focus on all the data, then take it apart and reconstruct it more meaningfully. Categorizations helps the researcher to analyse the patterns, to reflect on certain patterns and complexes of the data deeply and make sense of them.

In this study, four types of data were used: individual interviews, focus group interview, non-participant observation and photographs. The data collected was analysed using thematic analysis.

5.11.2 Thematic analysis

Thematic analysis is the process of identifying patterns or themes in qualitative data. I used thematic analysis, because of its epistemological flexibility. Braun and Clarke define thematic analysis as a "method for identifying, analyzing, and reporting patterns (themes) within data"

(2006, p.6). They add that "A theme captures something important about the data in relation to research question and represents some level of patterned response or meaning within the data set" (Braun &Clarke, p. 10). Thematic analysis was appropriate for this study, as the approach "suits questions related to people's …views and perceptions…it suits questions related to understanding and representation…it also suits questions relating to construction of meaning" (UASP, nd). I adopted Braun and Clarke's (2006) six-step framework of thematic analysis. The figure below illustrates the steps.

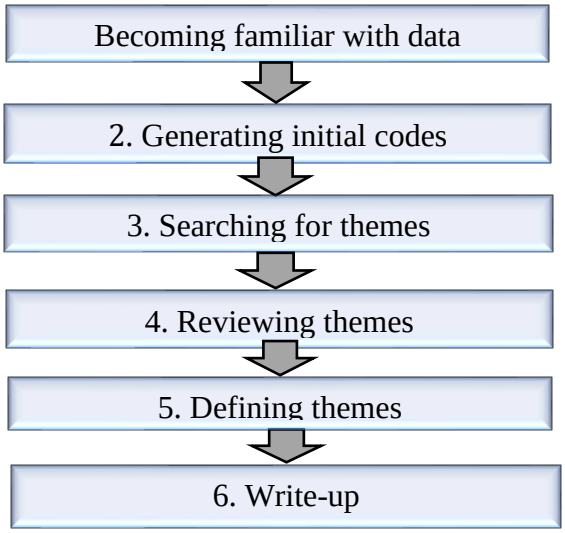


Figure 5-2: Thematic analysis (*Source: Adopted from Braun and Clarke, 2006)*

Step one: Becoming familiar with the data

I read and reread the transcripts from the individual interviews for principals and educators and focus group interviews for learner representatives. This was a way of being familiar with the data that was generated. I made notes and jotted down early impressions made from the extracts.

Step two: Generating initial codes

In this stage, I started to organise data in a meaningful and systematic way. Coding helped to reduce data into small meaningful chunks. To ensure accuracy of the codes, I re-read the transcripts a second time. After this, the underlined phrases and ideas that were significant to the study were underlined.

Step three: Searching for themes

As stated earlier, a theme is a pattern that captures something significant or interesting about the data and the question (Braun & Clarke 2006, p. 10). I therefore, examined codes that fitted into themes. For examples, there were codes that related to the practices that leaders used to enhance school safety and orderliness.

Step four: Review themes

In this step, I reviewed and developed the themes that were identified in step 3 and gathered data that was relevant to each theme. Next, I read data associated with each theme to confirm if the data supported it. After that, I checked if the theme ran across the entire data set.

Step five: Define themes

In this phase, I identified what each theme is saying, if there are sub-themes and how they interact with the main theme.

Step six: Writing-up

The last step was the write-up using the themes that emerged from the data.

5.11.1 Direct photo analysis

I used direct photo analysis, taking photos and analysing them. The photos were used to supplement individual, and focus group, interviews that were conducted (Hartel & Thomason, 2011, p. 1). The next section addresses pilot study.

5.12 Pilot study

I conducted a pilot study before conducting the main research. A pilot study involves applying a draft plan in a neutral location that will not be used in the actual field, or a collection of preliminary data in the actual location from which data is to be collected (Gorma & Clayton, 2005, p. 98). The pilot study was conducted with a small population of people with similar characteristics to the main target group.

The pilot sample consisted of ten participants. These included three grade educators, six learner representatives and one principal, who purposively sampled from quintile one schools in Soweto. The purpose of the pilot was to be acquainted with the research site and safety measures to take, as the research site was very hostile. Furthermore, it was to test how appropriate, understandable and practical the instruments were. In order to address the problem before the main study. Lastly, it was to check the time required for conducting the interviews.

The pilot study was very informative for me. From the pilot study, I learnt areas that were to be amended. Changes in the participants and research instruments had to be changed. The initial plan was to interview principals, learner representatives and members of the safety committee. The sampled school did not have a safety committee, as recommended by GDE. This was a sign that other sampled schools may also not have a safety committee, so I replaced this with grade educators. It was assumed that grade educators were line managers in their classes and therefore dealt with safety cases and learner performance in their respective classes and, therefore, were an authority in this area.

Secondly, I had planned to in cooperate documents such as minutes of school safety committee meetings, occurrence book and records of disciplinary measures that the school had administered to learners with behaviour problems to corroborate the interviews. However, the principal was reluctant to make the documents available. I, therefore, readjusted the interviews to capture some information that was to be obtained from the documents.

Lastly, I noted that the initial time that was allocated for the focus group interviews was not enough to cover the interview, so it was adjusted from 45 minutes to one hour. The following section assesses and demonstrates quality and rigor in the research.

5.13 Assessing and demonstrating quality and rigour in the research design

Qualitative research has various drawbacks, as discussed in section 5.3. In order to enhance the authenticity of the study I utilised the strategies stipulated by Lincoln and Guba (1985).

5.13.1 Trustworthiness

Trustworthiness is important in ensuring the authenticity of the study. There was a need to look at the truth and value of data that had been collected (Lincoln & Guba, 1994, p. 186). According to them, the criteria for getting the truth and value in qualitative research study are dependability, transferability, consistence and confirmability. These principles were observed as discussed below:

5.13.2 Credibility

Credibility involves ensuring that the findings are believable from the research participants' point of view (Lincoln & Guba, 1994, 136). Bryman and Bell (2015, p. 218) assert that it is

vital to ensure credibility in qualitative research, as multiple accounts of social reality can be constructed and, thus, credibility will determine its authenticity.

I employed different strategies to ensure credibility. Among these was triangulation, which is an approach where multiple sources of data and methods are used (McMillan & Schumacher, 2014, p. 117). In this study, triangulation of various sources of data, including individual interviews, focus group interview, observation and photographs was done by scrutinising them to justify for the themes that emerged.

The second strategy was the use of various communication techniques during data generation. These included paraphrasing the interview questions, clarifying certain words, probing, summarising the participants' responses and reflecting. I developed the participants trust by reassuring them that their schools were sampled because of their good performance in the National Senior Certificate. They were also made aware of the importance of school safety and orderliness and how it impacts on learner performance.

5.13.3 Transferability

Transferability refers to the extent to which the results of the data can be generalised or transferred to another setting (Guba, 1985, p.104). Moreover, (Lincoln & Guba, 1985, p.163) assert that there is need for enough information and description to be provided by the original researcher, to allow for comparison later by other researchers. In this study, thick, rich description was provided, in Chapter One, on the background of the study, the state of South African Schools. In addition, a detailed description of research methods used in the study was included in Chapter Five.

5.13.4 Dependability

Dependability can be described as the consistency of the researcher's decision, choice and analysis over time and condition (Polit & Hungler, 1999). Guba and Lincoln (1994, p. 182) note the close tie between credibility and dependability and argue that a demonstration of the former can achieve the latter. In this study, dependability was achieved, as discussed in section 5.13.2.

5.13.5 Confirmability

Confirmability addresses objectivity or neutrality of the research. This is achieved by making sure that I had been ethical and has not allowed his/her own bias, values or theoretical inclination to affect the results of the study (Bryman & Bell, 2015, p.321).

In this study, confirmability was achieved by the triangulation of data that was generated to minimise personal bias, as discussed in section 5.13.2.

5.14 Ethical requirements

The domain of research ethics is concerned with the protection of the rights and interests of the research participants (Frankel & Wallen, 2006, p.274). According to McMillan and Schumacher (2010, p. 117), the researcher is ethically responsible for ensuring the rights and welfare of the subjects who participate in a study by protecting them from physical and mental discomfort, harm, and danger. The researcher should ensure that the planned research is ethically accountable – i.e. that it conforms to acceptable norms and values. In order to achieve this, I observed the following:

5.14.1 Informed consent and permission

I adhered to ethical requirements, as stated by Ragin and Amoros (2001, p.403). This was be done by seeking ethics clearance from the School of Education, University of the Witwatersrand (Appendix A); permission to conduct research from the Department of Education, Gauteng Province (Appendix B); and consent from the participants.

I then proceeded to schools to seek permission from the principals. Since some of the participants were minors, a letter was written to their parents, stating the nature of the research and seeking their approval before asking them to participate. I also ensured the participants took part voluntarily and were adequately informed of their rights. This was be done by clearly communicating the research procedure, purpose, risks and benefits in jargon-free language. The respondents were also made aware that they were free to withdraw at any time. All the participants voluntarily consented to participate in the study by signing request forms. A sample of consent letters to the principals, parents and other participants, clearly stating objectives of the study is provided as (Appendix C, D &E) respectively.

5.14.2 Privacy, confidentiality and anonymity

The privacy of research participants must be protected (McMillan & Schumacher, 2010, p. 121). The authors also note that access to participants' characteristics, responses, behaviour and other information should be restricted to the researcher. In this regard, privacy was ensured by applying three practices: (1) anonymity (2) confidentiality (3) appropriate storage of data.

The participants were assured that the information they provide would, in no way, reveal their identity, as emphasised by Manion and Morrison (2008, p. 71). However, one of the principals, Ms Baloyi, wanted her identity revealed. I found this very tricky, because there were chances that revealing her identity could have compromised the identity of the other participants, who wanted to remain anonymous. I, therefore, disclosed only the surname. The name of the school was also withheld in ordered to respect the wishes of the educators and the learner representatives. The identity of the school, therefore, remained as school "A". In addition, there was the use of pseudonyms, instead of the other participants' names and the names of the schools. There was also restricted access to data that was generated. The participants' right was respected and protected by being informed that they had the right to:

1) refuse to take part in the research
2) limit the time and need for participation
3) refuse to answer any question
4) be interviewed at a time convenient for them

5.15 Limitations of the study

The major limitation of the study was that I was not in a position to control the attitudes of the participants as most of them might have given socially acceptable answers out of fear for victimisation. Furthermore, there was limited literature on how leaders enhance school safety in South Africa.

Secondly, as a doctoral study, the fieldwork was limited to time and scope. Data generation took over two months. On the other hand, the observation schedule was conducted in four weeks. A longer period would have given more insight into the study.

The research could not access school documents that were required for the study due to confidentiality accorded towards safety and learner dignity. Lastly, I was limited to a number of visits to the schools, due to financial constraints.

Delimitations of the study

The study was restricted to only three secondary schools that were located in unsafe and multiple deprived areas in urban area (Soweto). It omitted primary schools and schools in rural areas that may be facing the same circumstances. This denied the study the basis for broad generalisation. Furthermore, it targeted only principals, educators and learner representatives Leaving out members of the school safety committee and parents who may have more insight to the study.

5.16 Conclusion

This chapter has discussed the methodological approach used in the study, based on the aim of the study. The methods employed, the sample size and procedure were discussed. The chapter also showed data generation and data analysis used. It further discussed the trustworthiness of the research and the ethical issues that were employed in the study. Chapter Six will explore the leaders' perception of the injustices of safety and orderliness and the impact of multiple deprivation on learner performance.

6. CHAPTER 6: LEADERS' PERCEPTION OF INJUSTICES OF SCHOOL SAFETY, ORDERLINESS, AND MULTIPLE DEPRIVATION

6.1 Introduction

Chapter Five discussed the overall research design and methodology of the study. It also described the participants and the sampled schools and continued by explaining data-generation methods and analytical strategies. Finally, it addressed ethical considerations and the steps taken to safeguard trustworthiness. In this study I did not dedicate a separate chapter for presenting data. The study instead utilised Chapters Six and Seven to present and analyse data that was generated.

The purpose of this study was to examine social justice strategies that school leaders in multiple deprived areas employ to make schools safe and orderly, as a basis of school improvement. The chapter presents how the leaders perceive safety and orderliness. In addition, it explores the injustices of safety and orderliness and multiple deprivation that they face. This is achieved by the use of the interpretive paradigm, as discussed in methodology chapter. The results were derived from the analysis of individual face-to-face interviews conducted with principals and teachers; focus group interviews from learner representatives; observational notes; and photographs. Data was generated from three secondary schools in Soweto. The analysis are presented, according to the themes that emerged from the data collected. The next section specially provides insight into the leaders' social construction of a safe and orderly school.

6.2 Leaders' social construction of a safe school

During the individual interviews and focus group interviews, the leaders were able to provide specific information of what they believed would create and sustain a safe and orderly school environment. The following illustrates their views:

> *A safe school is a school where everybody in the yard is safe enough to complete the entire time with no disturbance, without any injury and working conditions are safe. Both learners and educators are disciplined. The buildings are safe where all the roofs are in tacked, windows, doors burglar proof and gate are safe and the fence is intact and the management is controlling the smooth running process… an orderly school is*

a school where there are policies that are followed accordingly and the tools that are guiding the order e.g. timetable that guide how teachers and learners interact as well as how principal and other stake holders come to do their work. Start in time to the end of the day… (PE)

A safe and orderly school is where learners, educators and stakeholders interact feely without fear of intimidation… where personal belongings don't go missing has security at the gate. It is a school that is fenced, has safe buildings and learners adhere to code of conduct… no cases of fighting or bullying… (TA1)

…safety in more physical way… functional security in terms of there is effective search… have a fence round it, must have an entrance and exit, must have people heee [ ] guiding where should people go and have a register of visitors, staff and learners…safe buildings where we as learners feel safe to study without any disturbance and belittling… orderly is where there is discipline and people do what there are supposed to do at the right time… (SE3)

The participants provided information that they believed constituted a safe and orderly school. The individual interviews and focus group interviews yielded common characteristics, including secure infrastructure, security personnel, leadership and discipline. The buildings had to be in a good condition, with well-fitted roofs; there should be no windowpanes missing; the doors and windows must be fitted with burglar proof grills; and there should be a secure perimeter fence round the schools. They further mentioned that safe and orderly schools should have security guards at the gates to search learners and others who visited the school. All these were to be achieved with leadership that oversaw that learners and educators were disciplined and everything ran smoothly. Lastly, a safe and orderly school was to have policies and tools, such as timetables, that guided the smooth running of school activities. These were in line with the requirements of DBE.

These points demonstrated what the leaders valued as ingredients that provided a safe and orderly school. Furthermore, it influenced the strategies and policies they implemented to redress the injustices of unsafe environment. However, a lack of shared construction could cause barriers in enhancing safe and orderly schools.

6.3 Factors depressing safety and orderliness

Various themes emerged under what compromised safety and orderliness in the schools. It is important to note that the schools were affected by more than one form of injustice and that one led to the other. The themes that emerged were lack of resources, ill-discipline, negligence and policies. It is worth noting that some of themes overlapped with those of multiple deprivation, as a problem of maldistribution. Section 6.3.1 discusses how those policies that had been mentioned compromised learner safety.

6.3.1 Policies

Safety and quality education are social justice issue and every child's right. The South African government has, therefore, put policies to redress problems that may prevent learners/children from enjoy these rights. However, most educators in the schools visited felt that some policies jeopardised learner safety and performance. Below is an illustration of this point:

> *…teachers feel disempowered…so they have taken a back seat to some extent …that is another safety measure... (TE3)*

The same was noted in another school, where leaders felt powerless to discipline learners. The leaders were expected to follow the guidelines from the department of education and not administer discipline as they pleased. The leaders were expected to respect and treat the learners with dignity (RSA, 1996a). They are not to use any form of punishment that would humiliate or cause some form of harm to the learner. (PB) had the following to say:

> *They (Department of Education) have guided all the policies… If you detain a learner between 3-4 it becomes wrong... You cannot detain during break or ask to sweep during break the idea is not to humiliate… nothing can show these children how serious matters are. Discipline has lost meaning…(PB)*

> *They do what they want… they are free to take contraceptive, have babies and abort if they want… we can't stop them because the law agrees… (TA2)*

TA2 was equally concerned with the policies that exposed the learners to more harm. According to TA2, the educators and the parents had no control over what the learners did. They had a right to take contraceptives without parental consent (see Children's Act,

section38). This meant that they were free to engage in sexual activities at an early age, even though they were considered minors that needed guidance. This exposed them to danger of contacting sexually transmitted infections and violence including teen sexual violence in teen relationships (Finner, 2013, p.23).

I further observed that the sampled schools were old and, therefore, posed danger to the school personnel. The buildings had missing windowpanes, broken doors and falling ceiling boards. Figure 6.1 is a photo of a collapsed wall that illustrates how dangerous the buildings could be.



Figure 6-1: Collapsed wall of a classroom

However, the leaders could not do much to arrest this situation. They attributed this to the policies from the department. They felt some of them did a lot of injustice by compromising learner safety and orderliness and, by extension, learner performance. They felt the disciplinary measures put in place were too prescriptive and, to some extent, disempowered them, even though, section 8 of the South African School Act, RSA (1996a) stipulates that the governing body must adopt a code of conduct that aims at establishing discipline and purposeful environment to enhance effective learning in schools. The governing body is expected to adhere to the Constitution of South Africa, the South African School Act and DBE provincial legislation. Furthermore, it must uphold learners' right to privacy, respect and dignity. This was problematic for the educators and the principals: the guiding policies had various clauses that minimised their authority to discipline learners.

Section 10 of RSA (1996a) outlawed corporal punishment, therefore they were to use other disciplinary measures, such as detention, withholding privileges, making learners pay for damaged or stolen property, or having a conference with the parents. Detention was not appropriate, because there was no suitable time to carry it out without interfering with learning time, or exposing learners to more danger, as they walked home late in a dangerous neighbourhood. Furthermore, making learners pay for damaged or stolen property was next to impossible, because most learners came from multiple deprived homes. Moreover, some parents were bedridden (see section 6.17), therefore could not have a conference with the SMT, when called upon or pay for the damaged property.

The condition of the schools posed a danger to learners and other personnel in the school, but leaders could not address them without getting approval from the Department of Education. Figure 6.1 illustrates a dangerous building the leaders could not demolish or refurbish without sanction from the department. The procedure was too bureaucratic (see for example Gauteng school maintenance guidelines, 2014). Getting sanctions from the department sometimes took a long time, thus posing a danger to the learners. The next section looks at negligence as a factor that compromised safety in the schools.

6.3.2 Negligence

Parents are obliged to send their children to school, under section 3 of Act RSA (1996), where they, in accordance with common law, delegate their role of care of their children to the educators (Joubert & Prinsloo, 2001, p. 97). Similarly, CELP (2005, p.71) argue that educators are charged with the responsibility of safety and well-being of the learners while at school. However, there was an element of negligence in the schools.

Negligence is defined in Oxford dictionary "as failure to exercise appropriate and ethical ruled care expected amongst specific circumstances". Joubert and Prinsloo (2001, p. 100) define educator negligence as "the behaviour of a person who has not complied with the standard of care or attention required from a reasonable educator". Educators are thus expected to foresee any possible harm to the learners and other school personnel and take reasonable measures to prevent or contain such harm. I observed that there was some degree of negligence within the school and at home that compromised learner safety. This is analysed below as a) educator

negligence and b) parental negligence. The section below addresses how educator negligence compromised safety and orderliness in the schools.

6.3.2.1 Educator negligence

Educators are entrusted with the safety of learners while in school to try to avert any potential threat to them. However, during the interviews and observation schedules, I observed that there were things that were dangerous to learners but were not addressed. The majority of learner representatives aired their concerns as follows:

> *…The playground does not have grass. How do you play on stones…we are afraid of getting injuries and we don't even have first aid kit… (SE7)*

Similarly, in another extract, a student representative expressed how they were exposed to danger.

> *…school grounds for me they are yoh! They are extremely dangerous to learners… for those learners to be there is because they are hungry for the marks … (SB5)*

At the time of the research, I observed that the playgrounds were not maintained. In one school, the playground was rocky and was not marked. This was also noted in another school where the playgrounds were very bushy. The condition of the playgrounds made them dangerous for learners to play. For this reason, they opted to stay away from the playgrounds. However, they were forced to use them when they had lessons on physical education, because it added to their marks. This made the learners sustain injuries from time to time.

In addition, the general grounds were also not very safe. I observed that, in all the schools visited the main entrances were, with beautiful flowers, but it was not the same in all the areas. The grounds behind the classes and the fields were neglected. Figure 6.2 illustrates this:



Figure 6-2: Unkempt ground

An educator also had this say during the interview:

> *Sometimes we do not get the drugs when we do the search because learners hide them in the long grass (TB4)*

The level of negligence of the school facility compromised safety. The school grounds had long grass with trees that were not trimmed. The long grass could be a breeding ground for condition of the schools not only compromised safety, but also impacted negatively on learners' performance. This echoes Weidener's (2008, p. 47) assertion that a well-maintained school has a positive influence on learners' behaviour and achievement, unlike one that is not maintained.

The schools neglected the learners' health. This was demonstrated by the conditions of the bathrooms and the general cleanliness of the school. Out of the three schools sampled, I observed that only one school maintained high standards of hygiene. The other two schools mainly focussed on the administration block and the senior block. There was litter all over the classrooms and the corridors. The walls were equally dirty, with graffiti that had offensive language. A dirty learning environment is not only an eyesore, but it affects both learner and teacher morale (Lezotte & Snyder, 2011, p.27).

In addition, I observed that most toilets were not clean. They had wet floors and did not flush properly. Others had faeces smeared on the walls. This posed a health hazard to the learners. Bacteria, such as faecal bacteria, are known to breed under such conditions (See Muirhead, Davies-Colley, Donnison & Nagels, 2003). Some learners avoided using the toilet, for fear of getting infections. Avoiding the use of toilets has equally negative effects on children, such as high risk of incontinence, constipation and/or involuntary retention of the urine (Brusie, 2017). The next section discusses how parental negligence contributed to unsafe and orderly schools.

6.3.2.2 Parental negligence

Most learners were neglected by their parents or adult care givers. The learners/ children who came from dysfunctional families (families in which conflict, misbehaviour, and often child neglect or abuse on the part of individual parents occur continually and regularly, leading other members of the family to accommodate such actions) were denied their right to care (see Bill of Rights, 1996). The findings suggested that leaders, especially the educators, felt that learners from such homes lacked parental guidance thus compromised school safety. TA1 had the following concerns:

> *… they come angry and they want to fight…there is nobody to take care of them …do bad things to get attention…*

The findings indicated that learners that came from dysfunctional families had no sense of direction thus, compromised school safety in various ways. The parents neglected their duties both at home and in school. They failed to guide their children at home and also did not attend school functions when called upon. As one leader (TB2) stated:

> *… they don't take care of their children… don't come to school when we have meetings…*

Some came from single parent families that mainly had the mother figure. Single parenthood led to deficient parenting. The parents were unable to provide their children with emotional and material care. Majority were not formally employed and, therefore, did not earn enough money to sustain the family. In addition, some were illegal immigrants that were exploited by their employers. *Sometimes they work but are not paid or are paid minimally.* This impacted negatively on the children. The learners were therefore forced to fend for themselves or the parents used other means to meet the deficit. They could entertain different male visitors at

home. This behaviour influenced their daughters' (learners) sexual behaviour and they engaged in sex at an early age compared to their counterparts that came from families with both parents. This finding contradicts Friedrich's (1991, p. 5) studies, which showed that 40-85 percent of children will get involved in some sexual behaviour before turning thirteen years old. However, the findings were in line with Maccoby and Martin's (1983, p.61) point that the way parents behave or their actions and the examples they show to their children have a great influence on the adolescents' sexual behaviour and development. The girl learners not only had sexual relations with their peers, but also pursued, or sexually harassed, male educators for sexual relations. In an educator's words:

> *…they are used to seeing mummy today with boyfriend 'A', tomorrow boyfriend 'B' … they see their teachers as potential boyfriends…* (TA2)

This act affected school discipline and exposed the learners to possible physical harm (contracting STI) and emotional harm that resulted from heartbreak. On the other hand, being raised by single mothers made the boys bitter. They projected this bitterness onto the male teachers. To use an educator's words, *they had no respect for the male teachers as they reminded them of their fathers who abandoned them.* Lack of respect for an authority figure can compromise safety. Linked to this were learners staying alone.

Some learners were staying alone without any adult to take care of them which was contrary to CRC (1989). This made them grow up without parental guidance, which can lead to serious emotional and behavioural problems. These learners had violent tendencies. They could start fights at the slightest provocation. Some of them indulged in bad behaviour as a way of projecting their anger or seeking attention. Secondly, learners that stayed without adults took adult responsibilities from a young age. They had to take care and provide for their younger siblings, even if it meant stealing. Taking adult responsibilities robbed them of their own childhood. In addition, they had problems of 'de-rolling' assuming the role of a learner by taking instructions from their teachers while in school. This was because they were used to being in charge at home.

6.3.3 Negative school climate

The findings suggested that a negative school climate affected school safety. Cohen et al. (2009) define school climate as "the quality and character of school life…based on patterns of

people's experience of school life and reflects norms, goals, values, interpersonal relationships, teaching and learning practices, and organisational structures" (p.10). However, Kutsyuruba, Klinger and Hussain (2015, p. 108) assert that providing comprehensive framework for dimensions of school climate is still a challenge to scholars. This study used two dimensions a) aggression b) lack of resources. The next section addresses lack of resources.

6.3.3.1 Lack of resources

The findings suggested that a lack of resources affected safety and orderliness of the schools. They did not have green space and the classrooms were too small for the number of the learners. The leaders had the following to say:

> *…they are overcrowded …between forty-five to fifty learners in each class… it can be very uncomfortable…when one person starts coughing the whole class would cough …* (TB1)

TE3 shared the same view of lack of space in the classroom, which affected them:

> *…the learners sit up to the board. We cannot move freely to monitor the learners. I believe this is one of the cause of fights in class because they are uncomfortable…*

The physical condition of the classrooms and the class size affected both learners and educators significantly. The numbers were too big for the educators to effectively monitor the learners, which affected the learners' performance. This confirmed Jimerson et al's (2012, p.219) assertion that classes with high student teacher ratios had a lower expectation of learner and poorer academic achievement. In contrast, Ma and Klinger (2000, p.7) argue that differences in school size have not shown a steady effect on school climate and learner achievement.

In addition, the large numbers in the class made the learners uncomfortable. The discomfort was displayed in form of the constant fights and disorder in the classes. The findings resonate Gregory et al. (2010) and Osher et al. (2010), assertion that classroom size greatly impacts on order or discipline in a school. Lack of resources was a major problem in the schools, when they could not afford to do repairs and maintenance. All the leaders agreed that the buildings were deplorable, most classes had missing window panes, broken doors and falling ceiling boards. TE2 had the following to say:

… missing windowpanes …and the rail gave way and the learner fell and broke his leg…

The same was mentioned by SI5 during focus group interview. He stated that:

… the builds are not in a good condition, there was a time the ceiling fell off in a class… there are no windows in some classes, and it is cold... (SI5)

Lack of resources affected the school personnel, both physically and psychologically. They could not afford to maintain the facility. Some had roofs that leaked when it rained, loose ceiling boards, collapsed walls as shown if figure 6.1 and broken windowpanes. The main function of the window is to allow light and provide ventilation, but the most critical issues relate to security and protection from weather. However, this was not possible, *the missing windowpanes made the classes extremely cold in winter.* In addition, learners could easily get in class through the broken windowpanes and steal whatever was inside, even when it was locked. The loose ceiling posed a danger to both learners and educators, as one leader mentioned: they had experienced an incident where the ceiling board fell on them in class. Some buildings had weak structures that could not stand strong wind. Figure 6.1 is an example of such buildings. Part of the building collapsed after a strong wind and the remaining part is a looming danger that can collapse and hurt learners at any time. Furthermore, I observed that the mobile classrooms were erected on uneven ground and were unstable. The storey buildings did not have reflective markings on the staircases and the balcony rails were also weak. This made the learners feel unsafe. The deplorable condition of the schools confirmed the broken window theory (Wilson & Kelling, 1988). Lastly, I observed that most doors and windows were not fitted with security grills, as is recommended by the Department of Education. These findings are echoed by Xaba (2006, p.574), who attested that most schools did not adhere to the required safety standards.

Injustices arising from maldistribution of resources was not only limited to quality of the facilities, but also to the availability of storage space. The schools lacked places to store food and other thigs that were not being used. This is illustrated in the following extracts:

…We identify areas that are remote where we put wires and broken furniture and so on because our school is small… (PE)

The schools' lack of space posed a danger to both the learners and the educators. The school leaders tried to resolve this by storing broken pieces of furniture in secluded corners to minimise accidents. This solved one problem, but created another, as the furniture stored in such places would disappear one-by-one.

I observed that, in one of the schools, the staffroom served as store and classroom. The vacuum cleaner, sports equipment and food for nutrition programme were stored in the staffroom, which was an open space where people walked in and out of, making it unsafe to store such things, as people could easily pick the items. The vacuum cleaner that was left lying around was also a source of danger to the learners, who used the staffroom for some lessons. Furthermore, the leaders had to *remove the fire extinguishers that were put in the staffroom*, for fear that the learners might knock themselves and get hurt. This reduced the schools' preparedness in case of a fire.

Lack of safety systems and procedures were some of the resources that the leaders mentioned that affected them, which included the electrical system, fire extinguishers and access control. This made the schools vulnerable should there be a fire (see Ronoh, 2008). I observed that most schools did not have enough fire extinguishers. The schools had a maximum of only two that were placed in the kitchen or the laboratory. Other areas had the sign, but there was no fire extinguisher, as captured in figure 6.2.



Figure 6.2 Electrical system and fire extinguisher

This was also captured in the interviews, where the leaders had the following to say:

…We do not have fire extinguishers…have not been attended for a long time... (PE)

… We are not trained on how to hold or open the fire extinguishers.... (TE2)

The leaders supported this observation and added that even the few fire extinguishers that they had, had not been serviced in a long time. Therefore, they could not ascertain if they were functional or not. Furthermore, they were not trained on how to use the fire extinguishers, so they could not use them should there be fire. In addition, one of the schools did not have even a single fire extinguisher, but the educators were confident that they had *developed an evacuation plan in case of an emergency.* This was a clear indication that the school's personnel and premises were not safe should there be a fire outbreak.

I observed that most of the classes in the schools sampled had exposed electrical wires, as captured in figure 6.2 above. These posed danger to the school personnel, as they could cause an electric shock that could lead to injuries, such as involuntary muscle reactions, muscle paralysis, burns, physical shock and even death. Such wires, if not handled properly, can create major fires that threaten entire buildings. Even though some leaders were contented that they had an evacuation plan in case of an emergency, they may save lives but not buildings if they do not have fire detectors or fire extinguishers.

At the time of the study, the schools visited had perimeter fences around them, with a gate and security to enhance security. However, they still experienced some problems of controlling access into the school premises. The following captures some of the challenges they faced in this area:

… they volunteer…they don't have qualifications … (SB4)

…the patrollers are not fully trained… Some of them smoke with the learners…(PB)

The patrollers that were deployed to the schools by the Department of Education to enhance school safety and order had no training on matters of security. For this reason, they could not execute their duties effectively. Security was affected, depending on who was on duty, either because they did not know what was expected of them, or they had an attitude. Some of the patrollers smoked with the learners within the school compound, therefore they could not be

trusted with preventing learners from smuggling in drugs and other substances that were prohibited. This was a gross violation of SASA of 1996 that declares schools drug free zones. The next section looks at aggression.

6.3.3.2 Aggression

It was a common understanding among the leaders, principals, educators and learner representatives, that aggression compromised school safety and orderliness. Aggression has been commonly defined as a behaviour that is intended to harm another person who is motivated to avoid that harm (Bushman & Huesmann, 2011, p. 231; DeWall, Anderson & Bushman, 2012, p.246). The definitions may be slightly different, but similar definitions have been applied by prominent researchers. (Anderson & Bushman, 2002; Baron & Richardson, 1994; Berkowitz, 1993; Geen, 2001; Krahé, 2013). Anderson and Bushman (2002) explain aggression as "any behaviour directed towards another individual that is carried out with the proximate (immediate) intent to cause harm. In addition, the perpetrator must believe that the behaviour will harm the target and that the target is motivated to avoid the behaviour" (p.28). In this study, the types of aggression discussed includes bullying and fighting.

Bullying

The study revealed that bullying made learners feel unsafe in school. It affected their well-being and social functioning. Tonja (2008) define bullying as "a type of aggression in which (1) the behaviour is intended to harm or disturb (2) the behaviour occurs repeatedly over time (3) there is an imbalance of power, with a more powerful person or group attacking a less powerful one. Power may be physical or psychological and the aggressive behaviour may be verbal, physical or psychological" (p.2). On the other hand, the World Health Organisation (WHO 2010) defines bullying as "a multifaceted form of mistreatment characterised by repeated exposure of a person to physical and/or emotional aggression". The following account by some leaders is instructive in capturing how bullying affected the safety of the schools:

> *bullying mostly in lower grades... They call each other name… beat each other, they take each other's belongings yeah... (PE)*
>
> *In our school learners do bully teachers... Our learners are those big puffy guys… they take advantage of that… (SB3)*

The findings revealed that bullying was rampant in these schools. It was mainly common in the lower grades. Bullying was not only among students, there were cases where the 'big boys' bullied small-bodied teachers. It took various forms, such as name calling, beating, taking other people's belonging by force, stabbing, among others. Bullying could lead to physical and psychological problems for the victims. It could also be a coping strategy that is exercised by a perpetrator (see Patchin & Hinduja, 2011), thus affecting both victims and perpetrators.

Fights

The leaders identified fighting as another form of physical aggression that caused unsafety in these schools. Below is what an educator had to say in this regard:

> *…These kids especially the senior phase, grade eight and nine, like fighting a lot… where there are boys and girls a joke can be made and then they start fighting… (TE1)*

Both educators and learner representatives identified fights as the result of interpersonal conflict among learners. I also observed that the deputy principals and the teachers on duty handled various cases of fighting during break and lunchtime. Furthermore, I observed that several learners, especially boys, had either torn shirts or missing buttons and were either bleeding or had swollen faces. These injuries were because of fights that were described as the result of *boyfriend-girlfriend* issues, such as cheating and jealousy, peer conflict regarding respect, or conflict over items that were stolen. As one learner reflects, *they usually fight over girls or over things stolen.* This finding corroborates Ncontsa and Shumba's (2013, p. 7) studies on the nature, cause and effect of school violence in South African high schools.

Another possible cause of these fights could have been the lack of sufficient playgrounds in these schools. Research shows that learners of this age are active and need to engage in physical activities to release the energy. If the learners cannot engage in physical activities, they resort to deviant activities, such as fighting or bullying.

Lastly, it was noted that the fights were more common in the senior phase, as compared to other grades. Linked to this was educator-to-learner aggression to express disapproval of an act. This was in the form of corporal punishment.

Corporal punishment

The learner representatives raised the issue of hitting or smacking as a factor that affected the learners. They stated that SMT and educators smacked them to control discipline. However, other leaders (educators and principals) did not acknowledge prevalence of this act. Below is an illustration of how it affected the schools:

> *… I feel I am not safe... They just have a lot of anger… if you don't understand something and ask a question, he might do anything to you... You don't know when they are gonna attack you... (SB4)*
>
> *...You get slapped, shouted at and insulted. We get slapped a lot. If you do not do your homework, didn't clean the class… We get the slaps a lot for disrespecting... (SB1)*

The SMT and the educators used corporal punishment to discipline the learners and it was exercised with a lot of rage. This instilled fear in learners in fact they perceived it as an attack, rather than a corrective measure. In one of the student's words, *you don't know when they are gonna attack you*…The use of corporal punishment in the sampled schools did not improve student behaviour, as I observed. Instead it affected them both physically and mentally. This resonates Gershoff's (2008, p. 16) findings of his study on physical punishment, where he stated that physical punishment increases student's aggression, antisocial behaviour, mental health problems and physical injury. The learners feared asking the educators questions or clarification of concepts that they did not understand for fear of being smacked. This, in turn, affected their performance. Another point that affected the school was dysfunctional families.

6.4 Ways in which multiple deprivation as a result of maldistribution affect the schools

This section examined how multiple deprivation affected the schools. The effects were categorised into two themes: poor performance and moral decay.

6.4.1 Poor academic performance

The schools performed well in matric exams, compared to the majority of quintile one schools that were considered unsafe (see chapter five). However, the leaders felt that they could do better, but were constrained by multiple deprivation. Poor performance was addressed under the following sub-themes: cognitive delay, ill-health and lack of teaching and learning materials.

6.4.1.1Cognitive delay / learning difficulty

Some learners exhibited learning difficulty that could be related to chronic hunger. This affected the schools as follows:

> *…can you believe that we have many who cannot write and read? … they find it difficult to start learning how to read and write. So, some of them do not want to sit in class... (TA2)*

The sampled schools were secondary schools that were from grade eight to twelve. Ordinarily, learners in these grades are expected to have reading and writing competence. However, some of the learners could not read and write, so they could not understand or effectively carry out the tasks given to them. They therefore resorted to avoidance mechanisms by constantly walking up and down, or out of the class. This not only distracted other learners but could also be the window where learners are bullied along the corridors, or in the bathrooms, because educators were busy in classes. For these reasons, learners who had difficulty in reading and writing disrupted learning in the classrooms and compromised safety and orderliness.

The findings in this study resonates with McLaughlin and Stansell's (2013, p.587) assertion that children born in poverty have high chances of exhibiting various types of learning disabilities, which include low intelligence and poor performance in maths and reading, which contributes to grade repetition. Furthermore, lack of competence in class leads to avoidance or defence mechanisms that were exercised by the learners. This supports Darling-Kuria's (2012, p. 26) studies that showed how most learners with learning disabilities disrupt learning because they cannot cope with class work. The schools were also affected by ill-health as shown below.

6.4.1.2 Ill-health

The school performance was affected by ill-health. The leaders stated that most of the learners were either sick or were staying with sick parents. This affected their concentration in class and contributed to learner absenteeism. Below illustrates how sickness affected their performance:

> *…Some of them are bedridden… one who is on the wheelchair and doesn't work so it's the burden of the school to see it the child is taken care of… (Mrs. Baloyi)*

…We have cases of absenteeism due to illness from time to time... (TB4)

... health problem… some have hearing problem some sight some physical problem health wise. (PE)

Multiple derivation contributed to sickness/ill-health that affected individual learners and their households. The findings validates studies on relationship between multiple deprivation and ill-health, which indicates that ill-health affects productivity. Some learners had parents who were very sick, that depended on them, which could have been physically and emotionally draining for the learners (APA, 2015). Having sick parents also meant there was no one to monitor their schoolwork or attendance, which affected their performance.

The learners also fell sick often, either because they did not get proper medical care, or due to under-nutrition. To use an educator's words, *we have learners who cannot afford a meal at home…* despite food being a human right (UNUDHR,1948). Chronic hunger weakens immune system. Low immunity was presented in the way learners constantly complained of being sick and stayed out of school. In addition, absenteeism affected their performance, because they missed out on what their peers learnt while they were away (Sharma, 2005; Moor et al., 2008, p.20). The findings also indicated that some of the learners had visual and hearing problems that they had to deal with. The findings echoed Barkley's (2006) and Bigelow's (2006) studies, who found that children born in poverty were more likely to have visual and hearing problems. This would affect learner performance, if not addressed accordingly. Learners that cannot perform tasks given to them in class are known to distract their peers, thus compromising safety and orderliness in class. It is worth noting that these schools were not equipped to handle learners with special needs, so these learners were left out in the learning process, thus denying them their right to education. In addition, the schools lacked teaching and learning materials.

6.4.1.3 Lack of teaching and learning materials

The schools that were sampled had some learners who could not afford basic learning materials. The schools could also not afford to buy all the learning resources with the money that was allocated by the government. This is a social justice issue, because the learners were denied equal learning opportunities, as they had to work with minimal resources. The leaders had the following to say:

…Some cannot buy some basic things…. we are a technical school, but we do not have workshops and the equipment needed to conduct practicals… (Mrs. Baloyi)

…right now, we talk about pencils…they don't have rubbers… they don't have that …mathematical instruments do you think they will have... In fact, as a maths teacher I need them to have calculators… (TE3)

The schools were ill equipped. They were in areas that were historically disadvantaged, as discussed in Chapter One. They did not have facilities, such as library, workshops and laboratories. I observed that only one school had a library that had empty shelves, except in one corner that had old magazines and outdated books that were not relevant to what was in the curriculum. The same was observed in the laboratories that were not equipped with equipment and reagents. Lastly, one of the schools that was a technical school did not have workshops. This calls for redistributive justice (Fraser, 2010, p. 12; Dass & Rinques, 2017, p. 107). Lack of necessary facilities, like workshops in a technical school, affects the effectiveness of the content delivery, as students are unable to do practical lessons. Moreover, the lack of necessary facilities can demotivate both educators and learners (Hornstra et al., 2015, p.397). Hence, this may interfere with safety and orderliness and affect academic performance. The learners were also faced with the challenge of writing materials.

The learners could not afford writing materials, such as pencils and rubbers. Lack of learning materials made it difficult for them to do the tasks that they were given in class. Furthermore, they could not afford to pay for the educational trips that were organised by the school. The next section discusses moral decay.

6.4.2 Moral decay

The schools were victims of moral decay, which can be discussed under robbery/theft, substance abuse and sexual immorality. Section 6.4.2.1 looks at sexual immorality.

6.4.2.1 Sexual immorality

Sexual immorality emerged as a serious problem the schools faced. Biblically sexual immorality is sexual activity that takes place outside marriage. It includes adultery (infidelity), fornication, prostitution, homosexuality, bestiality and incest. The Bible condemns sexual immorality. However, the South African Constitution (1996) differs on this point. It protects the rights of everyone to make decisions regarding reproductive health. The South African

Children's Act of 2005 (as amended by the Children's Act, No. 41 of 2007) gives children over twelve years (unmarried) the right to access health care services, including HIV testing, contraceptives and termination of pregnancy services without parental consent. These "rights", if not exercised maturely, can be very harmful. Moreover, the leaders identified prostitution, fornication, incest and pregnancy as evidence of such immoral acts as factors that affected the schools. Below is how pregnancy affects the schools:

> *... Some learners want to have babies so that they can get grants from the government… (Mrs. Baloyi)*
>
> *...I have never been in a class where there is nobody expecting... in our class, we have four people who already have kids... (SB2)*
>
> *...girls falling pregnant ... I think these boys promise them good life... (TE3)*

The schools had large numbers of teenage pregnancy, with all classes recording cases. The high number of teenage pregnancies in these schools resonates with Panday et al's (2009, p.80) assertion that multiple deprivation contributes to teenage pregnancy. The learners were using pregnancy as a way of making money from the government through child Support Grants, while some from the boys/men who promised them good life. However, the finding contradicts Sapin (2013), who argues that there is no correlation between teen pregnancy and the Child Support Grant. Much as the learners felt that pregnancy was a "tool" for generating income, it had more negative effects than the small amount of money they obtained. Childhood pregnancy contributes to the circle of poverty and affect the lives of both mother and child.

Secondly, pregnancy affected their education. RSA (1996a) gives pregnant learners and teenage mothers the right to stay in school while they are pregnant and to return to school after giving birth, but it does not create an environment for teen mothers to continue schooling. This led to learners dropping out, because, they could not afford either childcare services or formula to feed their babies while they were in school.

The findings suggested that learners were involved in prostitution as a way of meeting their household needs. The leaders had the following to say:

> *...Some students see some teachers as their 'blessers'… meet their needs… (SB2)*

… they…flirting (laughs) yeah …You will see by the way they dress… and also the way they address them (male teachers) ... (SA1)

…parents use their children for other things to get money… (PB)

Some learners were pushed by their parents, while others were influenced by what they saw their parents and the wider society do to generate additional income for the family. This trend was also exhibited in schools where girl learners saw the male teachers as "sponsors"/ "blessers". "Sponsor" and "blesser" were terms used interchangeably to refer to people who could meet their needs in exchange for sex. The girls would openly flirt with their male teachers to lure them into sex. This act put the teachers at a risk of losing their jobs. According to the Employment of Educators Act (1998) subsection 17 (1.c) having sexual relations with a learner of the school where one is employed was deemed as a serious misconduct and had to be dismissed if found guilty. There was no evidence as whether the educators gave in to such sexual advances from their learners. Moreover, they were sexually harassed by their learners, but there was no law that protected them from this as the learners are considered minors.

It is argued that flirting with, or sexually harassing, teachers affects learner safety and academic performance (Smith & De Plessis, 2011, p.181; Katjiua, 2013, p. 51). There is a chance that these learners would not concentrate when being taught by the male teachers that they had an interest in. Furthermore, it contributed to indiscipline that compromised safety in the schools.

When learners were used for prostitution by their parents, it not only impaired their health, but was also violence against them. The learners were young and may have not been able to negotiate for safe sex. They were therefore susceptible to HIV/AIDS and STIs, including gonorrhoea, herpes and syphilis. They were also subjected to soft tissue injuries, such as bruises and broke bones. Emotional health consequences of prostitution included severe trauma, stress, anxiety and alcohol abuse that was a major problem in these schools (Jaesen, 201, p.5). The physical and emotional effects of prostitution contribute to teenage pregnancy, loss of concentration in class, learners not attending class regularly and therefore not passing exams. In worst cases, learners drop out of school. The learners were not only used for prostitution, but there were also cases of incest.

The leaders, particularly the educators, raised concerns during the interview that most girl learners were not safe at home. They stated that the girls were sexually abused by their relatives and, in some cases, their biological fathers who were supposed to protect them. The following illustrates this assertion:

> *...mother allowing father to sleep with the child... (TI2)*
>
> *...Some girls are raped even by their fathers and you cannot take it further because you will be breaking somebody's home… (TB1)*

Incest was a common practice in this community. The findings were in line with environmental models on child abuse. Browne (1998) argue that "environmental approaches to child abuse take account of external factors such as: economic stress, unemployment, social isolation, overcrowding, poor housing and/or occupational stress" (p.111). The model, therefore, assumes that incest is as a result of the above factors. The findings suggested that learners were left in the care of other relatives, as indicated in the learner representatives' demographic information that most of them do not stay with both parents (see Chapter 5). This made them vulnerable. Another factor could have been that these acts happened under the influence of alcohol and drug abuse that was a common practice in the area (Mouzakitis, 1995, p. 78). The houses were also too small, with no privacy, which could have also contributed to such acts (Blumberg, 1997, p. 29). Lastly, the society was patriarchal, therefore, mothers chose the abuser (biological fathers) over their daughters. The learners had to face this problem alone. Some of the cases reported were not acted upon, to use an educator's words, *for fear* of *breaking homes*. This attitude denied the learners their right to be protected from sexual exploitation. Furthermore, it was contrary to RSA (1996a) that expects educators to protect learners from all source of harm.

Incest or child molestation as in this case had serious ramifications that affected the learners psychologically and physically. The learners did not receive support and protection, due to family denial and loyalty. Such learners were timid and had low self-esteem that made them easy target to bullying (Maltz, 2002, p. 321; Long et al., 2006, p.80).

6.4.2.2 Drug and substance abuse

The leaders identified drug abuse as a problem related to injustice of multiple deprivation. The learners were either taking drugs or selling drugs in school, or in the community. The following is an illustration of what the leaders said:

> *…find a scape in drugs …and she said, "I smoke it because when you are high you feel good you don't worry about your problems." … just want to be high that's all... (TA3)*
>
> *… end up doing bad things like stealing, smoking … when they smoke, they forget about everything... (SE5)*

The learners in the sampled schools were faced with numerous problems associated with multiple deprivation (Fadaei-Tehrani & Green, 2002; Bilevičienė & Kažemikaitienė, 2008; Fougere et al., 2009; Tang, 2011). This made them vulnerable to the ills that were in the community (drug abuse). They sold drugs in school and in the community to make ends meet. Selling of drugs in the community exposed them to danger. Furthermore, at the time the research was conducted, *dagga* was illegal. Therefore, there were legal ramifications attached to selling drugs (Drugs and Drug Trafficking Act, 1992). The learners not only sold drugs, but also consumed drugs, both at home and in school.

The learners took drugs as a way of dealing with the socioeconomic problems they were going through (Johnson & Pandina, 2000, p. 18; Barrett & Turner, 2006, p.116). The drugs would numb their pain/experiences for a short while, but it had negative effects on them. They exhibited behavioural *problems*, such as violence. They could fight other learners at the slightest provocation. Such learners also indulged in risky sex, as discussed in detail in another subsection. The finding validates Wanger's (2001, p. 17) points that teens that use drugs are five times more likely to have sex than those who do not use drugs. Moreover, they are likely to have unprotected sex and have sex with strangers. Such acts lead to a high risk of STIs, teen pregnancy and sexual assault. The learners also engaged in theft.

6.4.2.3 Theft/robbery

Multiple deprivation affected the safety of the schools. The leaders mentioned in the interview that they lost valuables, due to theft from both learners and members of the community. To use the leaders' words:

…the risk is on those chairs... They will steal and sell... (Mrs. Baloyi)

… And to add on to that we have cases of theft from the community… stole our computers. (SB3)

The above accounts supported the notion that multiple deprived areas can be unsafe (Šileika1& Bekerytė, 2012, p. 59). The location of the schools made them a soft target for the community members. The schools were in areas where the majority were unemployed, while the few that were employed had blue-collar jobs (see Chapter Five). It is worth noting that some of the inhabitants of this area were *illegal immigrants who came from neighbouring countries, who worked as domestic workers and were paid minimally.* The illegal immigrants were exploited and were not entitled to a social grant (see Social Assistance Act, 2004). Lack of financial assistance and high level of exploitation contributed to theft from the community that the schools experienced, because they could not make ends meet.

Furthermore, I observed that learners walked around with bags on their backs. Moving around with personal belongings demonstrated that they were not safe when left unattended. Moreover, it was noted that majority of learners did not have basic things. Some of them could not afford pencils, or calculators. Lack of these learning materials promoted theft, as they were expected to have them in certain classes. Besides, they needed extra money, because some of them were contributing to their household economy, therefore they stole anything that they could lay their hands on. Theft was another aspect of bullying that affected the schools.

6.5 Conclusion

This chapter was designed to bring forth leaders' perceptions on the injustice of safety and orderliness that the schools faced. The findings indicated that there were numerous factors that affected the schools. What was unique in the findings was that some of the policies that were put in place to address social justice issues, as stipulated in the Constitution of South Africa, compromised safety and learners' right to education. The leaders raised policies guiding discipline that were too prescriptive in administering that made them feel disempowered. In addition, the leaders could not do major repairs without seeking approval from the Department of Education (see figure 6.1). Delays, due to bureaucracy, compromised learner safety. Furthermore, the South African Children's Act of 2005 (as amended in No.41 of 2007) gives children under the age of twelve the right to access contraceptives and terminate pregnancies

without parental consent. Likewise, The South Africans Schools Act gives learners the right to attend school while pregnant and to return to school after delivery. Children of twelve years are minors and cannot consent to sex.

Above all, they cannot negotiate for safe sex so the 'rights' expose them to STIs and teen pregnancy. Teen mothers may have the right to return to school, but the gap taken affects their performance. Most of them are forced to drop out, because they must raise their babies. This denies them their right to education. Another factor that compromised safety and orderliness in these schools was aggression among learners and also educator-to-learner aggression. Bullying, fighting and corporal punishment were the forms in which aggression was presented. Learners mentioned that they faced a lot of rage that made them feel scared. These feelings affected their performance, because they could not approach their educators for clarification of what was not understood in class.

Multiple deprivation affected the schools in numerous ways. It affected learner performance and also contributed to moral decay. They lacked teaching and learning materials and experienced chronic absenteeism, due to ill-health. Furthermore, some educators did not feel safe working with the girl learners, because of the culture of "blessers" that was rife in these schools. To use one educator's words: *I cannot help a girl learner because I have to protect myself…* This clearly affected learner performance. Lastly, there was the issue of drug and substance abuse, violence and theft in the community that penetrated the schools. Chapter Seven presents analysis of leaders' practices in enhancing safety as a basis of improving learner performance.

7. CHAPTER 7: REDISTRIBUTION, RECOGNITION AND REPRESENTATION APPROACHES TO PHYSICAL, BEHAVIOURAL AND PSYCHOLOGICAL SAFETY

7.1 Introduction

Chapter Six addressed the injustices that schools faced, as revealed by the interviews, observation and photos taken. This chapter presents the strategies the leaders utilised to redress the injustices the schools faced, using Nancy Fraser's dimensions of social justice to improve learner performance. The study uses social justice and a human rights approach to discuss the strategies the leaders employed. Data was obtained from three secondary schools in Soweto. The data collected was mainly from individual and focus group interviews, observation notes and photos. I conducted individual interviews with three principals and twelve educators, while the focus group interviews were conducted with nineteen learner representatives. The chapter is guided by the following questions: What strategies do the leaders use to redress the injustices they face to make their schools safe and orderly? The research questions aimed at establishing how Fraser's (2008) dimensions of social justice are used to enhance learners' safety and orderliness, as a basis of school improvement. These were presented according to the themes that emerged from the data collected. The themes were physical, behavioural and emotional/psychological safety measures. The following parts specifically provide insight into the social justice strategies that the leaders employed to make the schools safe and orderly. The next section discusses redistribution and recognition strategies that the leaders used to enhance physical safety in the schools.

7.2 Redistribution and recognition justice in enhancing physical safety

The school leaders enhanced physical safety in two major ways. These are discussed under physical safety and physiological needs. The following section discusses how physical safety was enhanced in the schools.

7.2.1 Physical safety

The schools were located in multiple deprive areas as stated in Chapter Five. The schools therefore benefited from fee exemptions under quintile system (see SASA as amended in 2005). It was a redistributive strategy by the government to redress the injustices the schools

faced. The leaders were expected to use the funds from the government to buy teaching and learning resources, maintenance and any other thing that may need. They endeavoured to enhance learner physical safety with the minimal resources they had. They employed various strategies in enhancing safety within the school premises. This was done in accordance with the Constitution of South Africa (1996b) and South African Schools Act of 1996. The leaders fenced the schools, installed security grills on doors and windows to the rooms that had valuables. However, not all doors had security grills. They also had patrollers and, lastly, collaborated with the law enforcement agents, as will be discussed. The section below addresses how they enhanced safety by fencing the schools.

7.2.1.1 Provision of Perimeter fence

The location of these schools made them soft targets for vandalism and theft. Statements such as "*they stole our smart boards", "they stole our stove", "they stole our food", "they stole our printer"* were echoed in all the schools, as discussed in detail in Chapter Six. The leaders, therefore, fenced the schools to reduce vandalism or breaking into the schools after school hours.



Figure 7-1: School fence

The schools had palisade fences, as recommended by the Department of Education (2006), as a way of keeping the school safe. This notion is situated in Xaba's (2014, p. 496) argument that palisade fences enhance school safety. The leaders acknowledged that fencing the school yielded more benefits than not fencing at all. It improved their safety, by decreasing their contact with trespassers, who would cross the school ground as a short cut, or to steal school

property (see Honover Research, 2013). The people who crossed the school could be harmful to both learners and educators. Apart from keeping the trespassers at bay, the fence helped control student movement. It prevented students from leaving the compound without permission, because they had only one exit gate that was monitored by the patrollers. However, some leaders had major concerns when it came to the use of the palisade fencing. This is what a principal said:

> *…The community sells things through the fence and they make holes that we keep repairing… (PE)*

Even though the leaders had a palisade fence round their schools, they felt it did not guarantee maximum security. To begin with, the fence had open spaces in between, so the that learners could communicate easily with the outsiders during break time. This gave them the opportunity to sell drugs and dangerous weapons to the learners, without being seen by the school leaders. In the second place, the things stolen from the school (such as books and laptops) were passed through the fence and disappeared without a trace. Lastly, the palisade fence is easy to vandalise. Either the learners or the community members would break the palisade from time to time to gain access to the school compound. This made it very expensive for the schools to maintain. The schools used other security measures such as engaging patrollers in addition to the fence. Below is how the patrollers enhanced safety in the schools.

7.2.1.2 Patrollers

The schools recognised that fencing alone did not guarantee maximum security, therefore they engaged security personnel (patrollers) that were deployed by the Department of Education. The patrollers had the responsibility of protecting the school property and controlling movement in and out of the school premises. The leaders expressed how this was achieved as shown below:

> *…we know that at the gate there are security guards… roughly, about 30 minutes there will be one guard going around checking if everything is okay during classes... (SB1)*

> *…We have patrollers in the school… they are working on the problem of stealing things such as taps has reduced... (SB6)*

The schools had security personnel [patrollers], who had the duty of guarding the school premises. They would patrol the school to make sure that everything was in order. This

included ensuring that no learner was loitering outside the classrooms. At the same time, they controlled access into the school compound. They made sure that all visitors signed in. I observed this when she visited the schools. She was asked to sign in before she could gain access to the schools. Asking I to sign in before gaining access could confirm that this was practised for all visitors. It could also be an act or temporary thing, because I was conducting research on school safety. Access control helped to enhance the physical safety of the schools by determining who got in (Schneider, 2010, p. 113; Thomas, 2013, p. 467). Likewise, Xaba (2006, p. 170) attested that poor access control made schools located in unsafe neighbourhoods vulnerable to criminal activities from the community. The visitors were directed to the reception for further assistance. Furthermore, they ensured that the learners did not leave the school compound without written permission. They also reported safety hazards and other anomalies to the principal. The leaders reinforce physical safety by installing security grills on doors and windows.

7.2.1.3 Provision of Security grills

The leaders installed security grills on doors and windows in the administration block and the classes that had valuables, such as smart boards and computers. Figure 7.2 is a photo of a class with security grills.



Figure 7-2: windows secured with metal grill

The leaders reinforced the doors and windows with metal grills as a way of protecting valuables that were stored in the rooms. These were installed, because it made it difficult for thieves to break in. This was in line with the requirements of the Department of Education (2013).

7.2.3 Maintenance

The school leaders identified school facility maintenance as another way to improved physical safety. School facility maintenance relates to "the repair, replacement and general upkeep of physical features found in the school's premises, grounds and safety system" (Nhlapo, 2006, p. 42). The Department of Education (2014) classifies maintenance under planned and unplanned.

Planned maintenance is further classified as "statutory, preventative, scheduled, condition-based maintenance and backlog maintenance. Unplanned maintenance is categorised under normal, emergency, fatal, incident maintenance and minor repairs" (p.39). The leaders maintained the school facilities as follows:

> *…hazardous areas are being controlled. … we had no windows, but we changed last year for a different material its double layer window which does not break easily… (PB)*

> *… we take care of the environment e.g. ablution rooms. They have since improved… we keep them clean. We put toilet paper in them …. In the past… they were blocked you could not use them... We cut grass as well. Yea, some of our ceiling boards are falling but we cannot do major renovations because of funds… (Mrs. Baloyi)*



Figure 7-3: Well-manicured compound

The leaders maintained the school facilities to ensure that the schools presented safe and secure learning environments (Nhlapo, 2006, p. 24). The leaders acknowledged that some of their

facilities were dilapidated, but they focused mainly on emergency breakdown and minor repairs, due to a lack of funds. They also fixed the windows that were broken by the learners from time to time. However, the research noted that most classes did not have panes. They fixed the windows to keep thieves at bay and to keep learners comfortable, as a way of enhancing learners' morale. This can be situated in Uline and Tschanne-Moran's (2008, p. 55) argument that "dilapidated and uncomfortable buildings may lead to a low morale of both educators and learners and hence compromise performance".

They leaders maintained the toilets by unblocking them and keeping them clean. This was a way of controlling communicable diseases. Lastly, the leaders ensured learner safety by maintaining the grounds by cutting grass and planting flowers. I observed that, out of the three schools visited, only one school maintained the front and the grounds behind the buildings. The other two mainly focused on the front area that could be seen easily. The schools also had safety systems.

Safety system

The leaders installed safety systems as a way of improving physical safety in the schools. The main safety system that the schools had were fire extinguishers, sand and first aid box. The leaders had the following to say:

> *…We have first aid box in the sick bay that has mainly painkillers … When somebody falls sick or is hurt then we can go to the deputy to help us… (SE4)*

> *…We are prepared… We have fire extinguisher that are placed in strategic places …sand in the kitchen... We are yet to invite the firefighters to teach us the drill and how to use some of these things… (TB1)*

The leaders mentioned that they had fire extinguishers and sand that they could use in case of a fire. These were mainly placed in the kitchen and the lab. Availability of fire extinguishers in the schools indicated that they were prepared in case of a fire. However, there was no proof to confirm that they were functional. One leader mentioned that they were still waiting for the experts to teach them how to use the fire extinguishers.



Figure 7-4: Fire extinguishers in the school kitchen

7.2.2 Physiological need/safety

The leaders enhanced the learners' physiological safety by meeting their physiological needs: basic needs, such as food, clothing and shelter, that one cannot do without (Maslow, 1943). In this study, the leaders focused on two elements of physiological needs: food and clothing. Lack of these needs affected learners' health or lured them into dangerous activities. The next section discusses how nutritional programme was used to enhance learner safety.

7.2.2.1 Provision of food as physiological safety measure (Nutrition programme)

Malnutrition, especially deficiency in iron and iodine, or protein-energy, are likely to affect a child's physical and mental health (UNICEF, 2001, p.34; Kallman, 2005, p. 45). The schools served meals as a way of easing hunger/malnutrition and the culture of 'blessers'/ 'sponsors' among learners. The leaders had the following to say:

> *… They have meals during break. Those who have very serious problem when there is surplus, they can take home… organise even 'Rama container' for them… We check the foodstuff at the end of each term. The needy learners will take something home… (Mrs. Baloyi)*

> *… come without breakfast… fortunately, we have a feeding scheme … well if they come early, they can have porridge for breakfast in the morning with milk…(TA1)*

…Yoh! These girls used to get pregnant we recorded the highest number of pregnancies… we were among the first schools to benefit from the feeding programme… You know they are so vulnerable when they are hungry…(TE1)



Figure 7-5: Learners serving lunch in school

The leaders served meals in school, as captured in figure 7.5. They served balanced breakfasts and lunches to alleviate issues associated with hunger problems, such as ill-health, reduction in self-control displayed as increased sexual behaviour, aggression, prejudice, thoughts of death and increased perception of task difficulty. Furthermore, it was hoped that nutrition programme would reduce risk-taking behaviour that can compromise safety Gailliot (2013, p. 36). This initiative was sponsored by the government as a way of improving learner performance and reducing dropout rate in marginalised areas. This argument can be situated in Lambers' (2009) studies in Kenya, which shows that "the attendance rates in schools with feeding programme rose dramatically" (p.4). Furthermore, the findings revealed that lack of food made the learners more vulnerable. The girls not only became easy prey to men who traded this need for sex, but also conceived intentionally so that they could benefit from social grants. Getting financial assistance from 'blessers'/'sponsors' endangered their lives, as discussed in Chapter Six.

Moreover, it led to high teen pregnancy as one leader noted that their school was the first to benefit from the feeding scheme, because they had recorded the highest number of pregnancy cases. Thus, the feeding programme aimed at improving education by enhancing learning

capacity, school attendance and to alleviate poverty and empower poverty-stricken communities (Report on the Evaluation of the National School Nutrition Programme [NSNP], 2008:4, 11). The leaders served them meals in school and identified learners who solely depended on the school nutrition and gave more assistance. They *organised Rama containers* [kilogram of food] *for them*, but if they were many in a family, they were asked to tell their parents to go and pick leftover food from the school. The *Rama* deal was illegal, but the leaders developed it as a programme to supplement for students experiencing weekend hunger, due to their dependence on the school feeding programme (Ecker, 2012, p. 40; Shanks & Harden, 2015, p. 514). The leaders extended their generosity to assist learners, even during school holidays, by giving them the food that was left when the term ended. They hoped that this would protect them from bad behaviours that are associated with poverty and to reduce the chances of dropping out of school. The leaders also focused on the physical infrastructure of the school.

7.2.2 Provision of clothing as a physiological safety measure (uniform)

The majority of the learners in the sampled schools could not afford to buy clothes. This included school uniform, which was a requirement. Below is an illustration of this:

> *You find educators adopting learners… digging into their pockets for the wellbeing of the learners. They buy the uniform toiletries … to protect them from men who take advantage of them… (TB2)*
>
> *…the school gives needy learners uniform… not everyone is given… (SA4)*

The government of South Africa factors in that not all learners can afford school uniform and at the same time notes its importance. The government gives guidelines on school uniform. The uniform adopted by the schools should not be too expensive for parents and learners should not be excluded if they do not have school uniform (RSA, 1996a). Furthermore, DBE gives needy learners school uniform (Dass & Rinques, 2017). This is done in collaboration with NGOs.

It was echoed in the all the schools that the assistance they get from the DBE was not enough. The number of needy learners was bigger than what the department gave. Besides that, not all learners qualified for the uniforms that were sent to schools are redistributive justice. The leaders (educators) therefore, *adopted* learners that had major problems. They monitored them

closely and gave them emotional and material support. They showed them love and provided for what they did not have, like clothing, particularly school uniform. They went beyond clothing and provided the girls with sanitary towels and toiletries, which are basic needs (Maslow, 1943). The love and clothing they provided for the learners improved learner discipline tremendously (Gregory et al., 2010). This also improved their morals, as it reduced their dependence on "blessers" for survival (Maarman, 2009). The results of this study were consistent with Bojuwoye and Sylvester's (2012) assertion that schools have the mandate to satisfying learners' right to basic needs (food and clothing), if they come from impoverished homes.

7.3 Recognition and representation approaches to behavioural safety

The leaders enhanced behavioural safety measures by recognising the learners' needs and challenges. In addition, they were given space to air their problems. They also partnered with community members, such as SAPS and SANCA to maximise learner safety in a humane way. Below is how this was achieved.

7.3.1 Community partnership

The leaders managed school safety by focusing on learner behaviour that made others feel unsafe at school. This was made possible by collaborating with the community to provide safety and order in their schools. Collaboration/ partnership with the community was in line with the recommendation of RSA (1996a). They partnered with law enforcement agents, the South African Police Service (SAPS) and South African National Council of Alcohol and Drug Dependence (SANCA). These findings were in line with Rollison et al., (2013) who argues that students' safety and well-being are improved by coordination and integration of programmes and activities, such as mental health care and law enforcement. The following section demonstrates how SAPS aided the schools.

The South African Police Service (SAPS)

The leaders mentioned collaborating with the SAPS as one of the ways they used to manage behavioural safety within the school premises. The following account by some leaders is instructive in capturing how police officers enhanced safety:

> *…We are in partnership with SAPS… come from time to time we have discussed the hot spots… people who come during break to sell whatever be it right or wrong... patrol*

around break because it's more dangerous and other substance come in … (Mrs. Baloyi)

… sometimes invite the police to talk to the students on the importance of abiding by the law and the dangers of taking drugs or even help with checking for drugs and weapons that the students may have and filling reports at the police station... (PB)

The findings suggested that the collaboration with the police officers improved school safety in different ways. The police officers have the expertise of handling narcotics and weapons (Jacobson, 2010). Therefore, their presences made the schools safe, because they could deter the selling of drugs that took place in the school at break time. Apart from that, the school leaders involved them when they wanted to search the learners for drugs and weapons.

The police officers played a major role in *talking* to the learners in matters of the law. They raised awareness among learners about drug use, violence and its impact on individuals. Furthermore, they discussed the consequences of breaking the law with the learners. They linked these to the school code of conduct that guided their behaviour, while they are in school. They also advised the learners on the procedures of reporting cases, such as rape, that was common in the area, but went unreported. Lastly, the police established a reporting system in schools that made it easy for schools to report cases (DBE, n.d.). The schools also collaborated with SANCA.

South African National Council of Alcohol and Drug Dependence (SANCA)

Drug abuse is one of the major contributing factors to violence in schools (Ramorola & Taole, 2014, p. 11). To overcome learner violence related to drug abuse and to establish a safe school environment, the school leaders collaborated with SANCA to help them with the prevention of drug abuse in schools and the treatment/rehabilitation of learners, who were dependent on drugs. The leaders expressed how SANCA supported the school as follows:

…we are working with South African National Council on Alcoholism and drug dependence (SANCA). They come and address our learners they tell them the dangerous of using substances and some learners pull through... The problem is going down gradually… (PE)

…Work with SANCA in drug related cases… they help test learners that we suspect to

be on drugs... Some are taken to rehabilitation centres... (Mrs. Baloyi)

…Sometimes I find myself in a position of having to counsel the learner and the parent and advise them to go to other centres like NICRO the rehabilitation centre and so which is helping... This has taken the position of discipline to some extent… others recover while others become worse with rehab centres it depends on an individual... (TA 1)

The leaders identified and corrected behaviour problems related to the use of drugs and substance by inviting SANCA to educate the learners on the effects of drug abuse. These findings were similar to studies that were conducted by NACADA (2014), which indicated that substance abuse in schools can be prevented by creating awareness among learners about the effects of substance abuse. At the same time, the leaders hoped that, with the knowledge on effects of drugs and substance abuse, the learners who were already taking drugs would stop. Another strategy used was to *refer learners for drug tests*. Either the learners were picked randomly, or those who were suspected to be on drugs were referred for drug tests. These acted as a "preventive measure" for learners who were likely to take drugs due to peer pressure but were afraid of being caught by the school leadership.

However, there is a debate on the effectives of drug testing as a way of deterring drug and substance abuse. There are findings that suggested that drug testing is effective, while some findings dispute this notion. Goldberg (2007, p.428) points out that the findings may differ, depending on the region, but his studies indicated a positive effect of drug and alcohol testing on drug addiction. This is contrary to Yamaguchi et al (2003, p.164), who argue that " lack of evidence for the effectiveness of drug testing is not definitive… testing in school may not provide a panacea for reduced student drug use that some (including the supreme court) had hoped". Lastly, the leaders advised learners, together with their parents, to go to rehabilitation centres. This was to help them pull through the problem of addiction and to lead normal lives. The next section discusses how behavioural safety was enhanced by monitoring learners while in school.

7.3.2 Monitoring/ supervision of learners

The leaders were *in loco parentis* to enhance behavioural safety. *In loco parentis* is a Latin expression meaning "in place of a parent". Garner (2009, p. 858) defined *in loco parentis* as

"the legal responsibility of a person or organisation to take on some of the functions and responsibilities of a parent, to care for the child as the parent would, without necessarily adopting the child". This responsibility is usually tied to educators, who are expected to keep the students safe, as their parents would. The following illustrate how the leaders carried out this role:

> *... we record the details of the parents/guardians who register the child. We also take a copy of their id. These are the only people we allow to pick students from school within school hours ... should a learner fall sick we call the parents before we can release a learner (PE)*

> *...I went to court... opened the door...I stood there and shouted, "I need help I need help ... a child who is being molested and it is encouraged". The court adjourned so that they could attend to me (TA1)*

The leaders enhanced behavioural safety by supervising learners outside the classrooms. They organised for ground duty supervision as a way of maximising learner safety when they were not in class, as stipulated in Article 24 of the Bill of Rights. The educators were allocated duties to monitor the learners as they come to school in the morning, at break and lunch time as shown figure 7.6.



Figure 7-6: Educators monitoring learners as they arrive in school

This was corroborated by what the leaders said during the interview on how they enhanced learner safety. TB2 had the following to say:

…There is a ground duty roster so during break we are scattered round the school … in the corners of the school and in the feeding scheme to make sure that everything is under control…

Behavioural safety measures were executed in a structured way in the schools. This was illustrated by what Mrs. Baloyi said during an interview.

… we assign six educators per day to walk around during break... This is the time that most fights are reported. So, we try to prevent things like this from happening …

It is the responsibility of educators to provide enough supervision and to safeguard learners from harm or danger (RSA, 1996a). For supervision to be effective, educators were allocated duties to supervise learners. Supervision started from the time the learners arrived at school. The leaders were stationed at the gate, as shown in figure 7.6, to inspect the learners as they walked into the schools. They would check for drugs, weapons and anything else illicit that they may want to smuggle into the school. In addition, they had ground duties where they monitored learners outside the classroom during break and lunch time. Furthermore, they inspected the grounds for anything that could cause harm to the learners. Things that could make the school unsafe, such as broken fences, were fixed to prevent learners from sneaking out of the school compound, or unauthorised persons from gaining access to the school.

The leaders monitored learners to protect them from any form of harm. This position is similar to Van Wyk and Oosthuizen's (2013) assertion that "children sometimes act absentmindedly especially when they are in a group". Likewise, Blum (2007, p. 210) argues that children are likely to engage in dangerous activities if left unsupervised/monitored. Monitoring learners as they played outside the classroom reduced cases of bullying and accidents, since most of the schools did not have enough space for learners to play freely (see Chapter Five under description of the schools).

Lastly, they protected those that were being sexually abused at home by reporting the cases to the relevant authorities. Sexual abuse had negative effects on the learners, it has been correlated with higher levels of depression, guilt, shame, self-blame, eating disorders, somatic concerns, anxiety, aggression, dissociative patterns, repression, denial, sexual problems, and relationship problems (King 2009, p. 18; Long et al 2006, p. 57). Sexual abuse, combined with deprivation,

affected some of the learners' moral lives. The leaders also used a learner code of conduct to enhance behavioural safety.

7.3.3 Learner code of conduct

Behavioural issues that are asociated with discipline are major contributing factors to unsafe schools in South Africa (Moloi, 2002, p. 2; Rossouw, 2003, p. 423). The leaders therefore adopted learners code of condact as stipulated by NEPA (1996) and SASA (1996). Learner code of conduct was used as a preventive and corrective behavioural safety measure. The learners were represented by their parents when the code of conduct was formulated. They are, therefore, expected to abide by it. The leaders had the following to say:

> *… We expect both the learner and the parent to go through the rules… understand what is expected of them and then sign that they are ready to abid by the rules that are stated in the code of conduct... (TE3)*
>
> *…We have a code of conduct and class rules pinned in our class so I don't tolarate anyone who is is disrespectfull... they know what happens if they brake the rules… most of them don't like it when we send them home to call their parents… (TA2)*

The code of conduct outlined how the students were expected to behave while in school. Awareness of the rules minimised discipline problems. This notion is echoed in Cumberland County Schools (2015), who argue that disipline is enhance by outlining a set of exepectations of student behaviour. The code of conduct outlines the violation and the disciplinary actions to be taken for students who behave in an unacceptable manner. It states the rights of students and what happens when disciplinary actions are taken. Furthermore, the code of conduct defines the rights of stakeholders, with the aim of providing and engaging learners in a safe, positive and supportive learning environment.

In order to enhance behavioural safety in the schools, the leaders gave the learners copies of a learners' code of conduct on admission as a preventive disciplinary strategy. The new parents (parents who were not part of the fomulation of the code of conduct) were expected to read the content of the code of conduct given to their children. This was a way of making them involved in the formulation thereof and the discipline process, as is stated in the South African Schools Act of 1996. Involving the parents in this process was also a way of stengthening the the school-home relations. Positive home-school relation is not only known to promote discipline,

but also enhance parental participation in school activities (National School Safety Center, n.d.; Lezotte & Snyder, 2011). It also improves learner commitment to school work. This is reflected in what one of the educators stated, *they know that if they do not do their home I will call their parents*. Most students did not like the idea of their parents being summoned to school to address their misbehaviour, therefore they tried to avoid things that would lead to that. The next strategy is classroom management.

7.3.4 Classroom management

The leaders used classroom management as another strategy of improving learner performance and school safety. Everton and Weinstein (2006) defined classroom management as actions educators take to create a supportive environment for academic and socio-emotional learning of students. According to them, in order to attain a high quality of classroom management, educators must do the following: "(1) Develop caring, supportive relationships with and among students. (2) Organise and implement instruction in ways that optimise students' access to learning. (3) Encourage students' engagement in academic tasks such as establishing rules and classroom procedures. (4) Promote students' social skills and self-regulation (making students responsible for their behaviour) and lastly, (5) Use appropriate interventions to assist students with behaviour problems". Brophy (2006, p. 17) defines classroom management as "action taken to create and maintain a learning environment conducive to successful instruction, arranging the physical environment, establishing rules and procedures, maintaining student attention to lesson and engagement in activities". The two definitions emphasise actions taken to promote teaching and learning. The leaders improved learner behaviour by managing their classrooms well. The following accounts by educators are instructive in capturing how they managed classrooms:

> *... problem is minimised because everyone will be busy ... I refer those who are too problematic to the office ...I praise them when they do the right thing… (TI2)*

> *…They learn classroom rules from day one... Anyone who disrupts goes under the table… if they do not do their homework or submit their work, they know that I pick their shoe... (AT2)*

The learner representatives likewise acknowledged that good classroom management-controlled learner behaviour. This was articulated as shown below:

...that guy [educator] is a father to learners he is a friend to the learners, and he is a very good teacher. He teaches like yoh! He treats us with respect… he does not shout or call us names even when do something wrong…we respect him we do not misbehave… (SI4)

From the above, it is clear that leaders used both preventive and reactive strategies in classroom management as a way of creating safety in the classroom. The preventive strategy was enhanced by classroom rules, of which the learners were made aware. They were expected to master acceptable behaviour in the classroom and the consequences for breaching this, thus making them responsible for their action.

The educators also developed a caring and supportive relationship with the learners, which promoted a good and trusting relationship. The learners felt that they were respected and responded to this by behaving well. Moreover, they saw such educators as *fathers,* as one student representative put it. This position reflects Gregory and Ripski (2008, p. 339), who asserts, "adolescents, perceptions of school staff as trustworthy authority figures foster cooperative behaviours and minimizes defiant ones".

The leaders used the strategy of effective lesson delivery as a way of controlling learner behaviour. They achieved this by preparing adequately for the lesson and used various teaching methods that made learning interesting. This strategy is in line with Korpershoek et al. (2014, p. 46) whose studies indicated that good lesson delivery minimises student misbehaviour in the classroom. In cases where preventive measures were not effective, the leaders used reactive measures.

The educators reprimanded and punished learners who did not behave as was expected of them. Furthermore, they referred such learners to the *office* (SMT or to SBST). These learners who were referred to SMT were sometimes asked to call their parents or given punishment depending on the number of offences. While those who were referred to SBST were counselled. The leaders used academic enhancement as another way of promoting behavioural safety.

Various researchers suggest that effective learning can only take place when learners and educators feel safe in a school. This is echoed by Lezotte (2010, p.16), who asserts that, for

school improvement to take place, learners must be safe. However, in this study, the leaders used instructional delivery as one of the strategies of enhancing behavioural safety. Below is an illustration of how it was conducted:

> …prepare well for the lesson…intervention *programmes…we also have register period... educators indicate that by such and such a time we shall have completed this. (PB)*
>
> *…we have come up with is that LO and Creative Art… yes, they are important but not very heavy so sometimes they can be arranged…so that they can cover a heavy subje*ct. *(PE)*

The leaders enhanced learning as a way of improving safety by making sure that teaching and learning was conducted as planned and that learning time was well utilised. The educators taught the lessons as per the plan. They were expected to cover all the content that was planned without lagging. The educators were expected to come up with an intervention plan to cover for lost time, should they miss school for whatever reason. They organised time to cover what was not taught and this was officially documented in the timetable.

Learner absenteeism contributed to low/poor performance (Dhaliwe, 2003, p. 34). The leaders, therefore, enhanced learning by discouraging truancy. They did this by making attendance registers for both learners and educators. The educators marked the learners' attendance register in class, while the deputy principal marked the educators' attendance register. Attendance is a fundamentally important part of education. The leaders not only used registers to monitor poor attendance of the learners and educators, but also to be certain of who was on-site in case of an emergency. They discouraged truancy, because it not only affected learner performance, but also their behaviour. This was in line with studies that proved that learners, who do not attend classes regularly, are more likely to engage in bad behaviours, such us taking alcohol, or even stealing from the community (Esere, 2008; Polanin & Low, 2014; Ponfua, 2015). Linked to this was supervision of learning.

The leaders supervised teaching and learning to provide effective feedback to enhance performance. They visit classrooms, observed educators teaching, provided them with feedback and sought improvement. This supported Southworth (2004, p.75), who argued that there is a strong link between good monitoring and good teaching. Monitoring teaching and

learning was delegated to HoDs and deputy principals, who reported to the principals, who would therefore *reprimand and punish* where necessary. Furthermore, the educators were encouraged to work as a team.

Teamwork was encouraged, because it not only helps the educators' performance, but also teaches students the fundamental skills associated with working as a collective unit towards a common goal. Teamwork introduces a variety of skills that are valuable to learners, such as communication, compromise, collective and trust. The notion is supported by Van der Horst and McDonalds (1997, p. 128), who argue that cooperative learning improves learner understanding and skills; develops co-operative group skills and the appreciation of different individuals and cultures found in South African classrooms. Furthermore, trusting one another establishes a foundation that can endure minor conflicts and can improve behavioural issues in a classroom, thus providing a feeling of safety.

The leaders enhanced learning by increasing time on task (Lezotte, 2010, p.11). They acknowledged that all the subjects were important and had to be taught. However, they felt that some subjects were *heavy* and needed more time. More time was created for the *heavy subjects*, by using time that was allocated to *lighter subjects*, like *Life Orientation and Arts*. They hoped that learners would be adequately engaged, thus improving safety and performance.

In as much as the time allocated for 'lighter'subjects (like Life Orientation) was used to compensate time lost for *heavy subjects,* these subjects were crucial to promoting safety. The educators used Life Orientation to promote safety and social cohesion in their schools, because it applies a holistic approach. It is concerned with the personal, social, intellectual, emotional, spiritual, motor and physical growth and development of learners - and the way in which these dimensions are interrelated and expressed in life (DBE, 2012). Below are what educators had to say:

> *… teach them that we are equal, and we should treat each other with respect… I tell them to try to do what God would want us to do... (TE2)*
>
> *… use the subject, Life Orientation (LO) to guide them…how to behave, respect each other how to understand each other. (PE)*

…In LO we discuss poverty and inequality that exist in our country. I tell them that it is not our parents' or our friends' fault for being poor... (TB3)

The leaders used subjects (curriculum) to promote safety, resilience and social cohesion among learners and the community at large. They used Life Orientation, because education can be used as a platform for promoting safety. This notion is supported by research that highlights the relationship between education and peace building (INEE, 2011; UNESCO, 2011). The educators taught learners the importance attached to values for promoting equality and inclusion; psychosocial skills that would enable them to interact with others and cope with challenges; and to accept and respect others, even if they are different.

7.3.5 After school programmes/activities

Out of the three schools visited, only one school (school E) mentioned that they used clubs as a strategy to provide enrichment and safety of learners. The school had five clubs, but only the football and debating clubs were active. These clubs met after school and were designed to address *negative* behaviour and negate the possibility of violence that occurred after school, due to idleness or gang related activities. The leaders explained:

…we encourage them to join football club or any other club. To keep them busy after classes. Some of them are very good and so they know that they can also do something good if not in class. We have seen this transform them... (TE3)

…instead of students leaving school early and joining their friend who are in bad groups, they stay behind and do their work or participate in clubs… This has helped them a lot especially those in debating club. They can express themselves in a positive way and they also discus things that affect them… (TE1)

The leaders attempted, through clubs, to provide safe alternatives for the learners after school so that, rather than being involved in violent activities in the community, the learners could do their homework and advance skills that would improve academic, football and social skills. The was in line with the report on After school Alliance (2017, p.4) that stated that learners who participated in after school programmes demonstrated significant improvement in behavioural problems, such as discipline, aggression and drug related cases.

7.4 Recognition, redistribution and representation justice in enhancing Emotional/ psychological

In describing his hierarchy of needs, Maslow (1945) defined psychological safety as "a kind of feeling of confidence, safety and freedom detachment out fear, and anxiety, in particular, it contains the feeling a person meets current and future needs". Likewise, Kahn (1990, p.708) defined it as "feeling able to show and employ one's self without fear of negative consequences to self-image, status or career." emotional/ psychological safety can therefore be viewed as being free to learn, express oneself and interact with others freely without fear of being intimidated or looked down upon. The leaders in the sampled schools used recognition and representation strategies to enhance emotional/psychological safety through counselling and peer support strategies. Below is how counselling was used:

7.4.1 Counselling

The leaders counselled learners as a way of enhancing safety in the schools. The definition of counselling depends on theoretical orientation (UNESCO, nd). In this study, I used counselling to mean a relationship between a concerned person and a person with a need. It is designed to help people understand and clarify their views and learn how to reach their self-determined goals, through meaningful, well-informed choices and through the resolution of emotional or interpersonal problems. The leaders had the following to say:

> *...I give them a pep talk. I talk to them at the assembly try and make sense to them. When I meet them as individuals or in small groups, I talk to them just to show them the importance of values. And you see them reforming… (Mrs. Baloyi)*

> *We take them [victims of bullying] for counselling through SBST. So, they can talk to them and show them there is nothing wrong with reporting. They also enhance their self-esteem and address risky behaviours…* (TE1)

The schools provided counselling support to make learners feel safe and to improve their performance (Lezotte, 2006, p. 10). Counselling not only eased psychological/emotional problems, but also resolved emotional, social and behavioural problems and helped learners develop a clearer focus or sense of direction. The findings support Watkins, Crosby and Pearson (2007, p. 339), who point that counselling is important and helps in emotional and behaviour management. The leaders created an atmosphere where learners could feel free and express themselves without fear. They encouraged learners to talk freely. They advised them

generally at the assembly about how to relate to one another and the importance of values. They identified learners that had problems and gave them individual attention. Those that had serious problems were referred to professionals. It was envisaged that it would help the learners to develop social skills to interact with their peers in a calmer manner. Lastly, they identified learners that had learning problems and helped them cope. They encouraged support programmes, like peer support, to help learners cope.

7.4.2 Peer support

The leaders encouraged peer support as a way of enhancing emotional/psychological safety. It has been termed differently by different scholars: peer education, peer mentoring, peer support, peer counselling, peer mediation and peer tutoring. In this study, I used peer support to mean programmes designed to encourage students to help one another. Peer supporters helped in the following ways:

> *…so if a student is not comfortable enough to talk to a teacher or an adult… can come to talk to someone their size because we are the same…I listen to the problem and try to help but if I cannot then I ask a teacher how I can help the person …help our peers with class work that somebody did not understand when the teacher was in class… (SB6)*

The leaders used peer support to promote a more positive ethos in the schools. The peer supporters encouraged their peers to talk freely about their problems. This made them feel comfortable and understand that they were not the only ones going through a particular problem. Besides that, they were able to get help on time, before the condition worsened. They advised their peers or referred them to relevant people, who could meet their needs.

Peer support tackled issues of bullying and drug abuse that were compromising the safety of the schools. In addition, the learners helped one another with class work. The effectiveness of peer support is confirmed by ethological studies of conflict resolution, which argue that a solution may arise naturally out of peer interaction, rather than as a result of intervention by adults (Killen & de Waal, 2000, p. 41; Banerjee, Robinson & Smith, 2012, p. 39).

Lastly, safety was made possible, based on how leadership was exercised in the schools. The leaders reported that leadership was distributed with the schools not only as a way of reducing

the principals' workload, but also as a useful framework for understanding safety issues of the school and how to improve them (Hermann, 2016, p. 26). The principal, Mrs Baloyi, had the following to say:

> *…I cannot take care of these learners all by myself… I need the help of others to help me run the school that is why we have different departments headed by different people and they all report to me… (Mrs Baloyi)*

> *…We are all leaders in various capacities... at the classroom level we have the class educators or the grade teacher who report to the HoDs…then reports to the deputy principal and finally to the principal. That is how we handle things here. We all play a part in making these kids safe…(TA3)*

The findings suggested that leadership was shared among the school personnel. The educators and the learner representatives all had leadership positions to play in the day-to-day running of the school. The class/grade educators were charged with the responsibility of teaching and monitoring the learners at the classroom level. They were expected to identify and handle the challenges that the learners faced. However, if they were not able to address these challenges adequately, they would refer the cases to the HoDs or SBST, who acted on behalf of the principal.

The HoDs had numerous responsibilities to ascertain that effective learning was conducted in a safe environment. They mainly delegated duties within their departments, provided learning support materials and supervised teaching and learning. Some of them were part of the SBST, which was concerned with student welfare.

The principals, as the accounting officers, played the key role in leadership, much as they worked together with other leaders. In this study, distributed leadership and instructional leadership came out strongly, as the types of leadership that the leaders in unsafe and multiple deprived schools employed to redress the injustices they faced. The findings corroborate Maringe and Moletsane's (2015, p. 11) argument that a 'cocktail' of leadership styles is ideal for school improvement in deprived areas.

7.5 Conclusion

This chapter was designed to bring to the fore the social justice strategies that leaders used to tackle physical, psychological and emotional safety that affected the schools. The findings suggested that no single dimension could be used to address the different forms of safety challenges the schools experienced. The leaders, therefore, used three dimensions of Fraser's social justice theory to enhance physical, psychological and behavioural safety. Analysis from individual interviews, focus group discussion, nonparticipant observation and photos clearly indicated that the schools still experienced some challenges despite the strategies they used to redress the injustices they faced. Therefore, a lot still needs to be done. Chapter Eight will provide an overall discussion of the major arguments, as guided by Fraser's social justice theory, contributions and the conclusion of the thesis.

8. CHAPTER 8: CONCLUSION, SUMMARY AND RECOMMENDATIONS

8.1 Introduction

School safety and orderliness and quality education are social justice issues affecting South African schools that need to be addressed. The aim of this study was to explore the perceptions of school leaders and the strategies they use to be able to do so. To this end, the thesis adopted an interpretive case study strategy to give the participants a voice and to give a clear understanding of the how the leaders redressed the injustices that the schools faced. It is argued that effective teaching and learning can only take place in a safe and orderly environment (Edmond, 1982; Lezotte, 1991; Lezotte & Snyder 2011). The study was inspired by the need to contribute to the body of knowledge in this area, since there is little information on how school leaders in multiple deprived areas redress the injustices they face to make their schools safe and orderly, with an aim of improving learner performance.

This chapter concludes the research effort by briefly looking at how each chapter has contributed towards addressing the research questions. The next section summarises the major findings and arguments. This is followed by contributions and implications of the study. It is then linked to limitations of the study and suggestions for future research; and, lastly, reflection of the research. The next section gives a summary of the thesis.

8.2 Summary of the thesis

The thesis was divided in eight chapters that help answer the research questions. In this study I did not present data in a separate chapter because of the voluminous nature of the data, instead it was done alongside analysis. Other researchers have demonstrated that this approach is effective and worth using.

Chapter 1: Introduction and background of the study

In order to understand the social justice strategies, the school leaders employ to make their schools safe as a basis of school improvement, chapter one provided the background of the thesis. It discussed the nature of the problem and identified the specific purpose of the study. This was done by first providing an elaborate background of the problem. The chapter then discussed safety challenges that schools face linking it to the insecurity in Soweto, by

discussing police reports of crime recorded in two police stations in Soweto. I argue that this could be attributed to the safety problems that most schools experience.

It also discussed the background of South African education from Bantu Education, highlighting the root cause of dysfunctionality in the education system. This is linked to the current poor performance of South Africa in international standardised tests and the research problem. Chapter one also gave a thesis statement, operational terms, an overview of the theoretical framework, rationale and significance of the study, empirical overview and ended with a preview of the rest of the chapters.

Chapter 2: School Safety and multiple deprivation

This chapter began by conceptualising safety and orderliness. It gave the history of violence in South African schools and the current issues of violence in schools. This was followed by empirical studies on strategies that have been used to improve school safety and orderliness in developed countries (Canada and United States of America), African countries and in South Africa. The chapter further discussed social justice strategies stipulated by the government and other organisations aimed at redressing these injustices. The next section addressed the notion of multiple deprivation. It highlighted the domains of multiple deprivation in South Africa, which included income and material domain, employment deprivation domain, health deprivation domain, education deprivation domain and living environment deprivation. Linked to this was the discussion on the effect of multiple deprivation as a problem of maldistribution.

Chapter 3: School improvement and leadership

Chapter four gave an in-depth discussion of school improvement and leadership. This was to give an understanding of the concepts of school improvement and the role of leaders in school improvement by discussing relevant leadership theories. The chapter started by discussing historical development of effective school movement. It looked at effective school correlates developed by prominent researchers, such as Edmond, Sammons, Hillman and Mortimore. Shannon and Bylsma, Lezotte and Lezotte and Snyder. The study adopted Lezotte and Snyder's (2011) correlates of effective schools, because it was one of the latest studies on school improvement. According to the authors, the following seven Correlates of Effective Schools could be used to improve schools facing challenging circumstances and make them more effective: 1) High expectation of success 2) Strong instructional leadership 3) Clear and

focused mission 4) Opportunity to learn and time on task 5) Frequent monitoring of students' progress 6) Safe and orderly environment 7) Positive home-school relations (p.5).

Chapter four also discussed leadership, because school improvement can only be achieved through good leadership. Under leadership, the focus was on the conceptualisation of leadership and the role of principals in South African schools in school improvement. Finally, it discussed theories of leadership that have been used in challenging circumstances to improve learner performance. The theories discussed include instructional leadership, transformational leadership and distributed leadership.

Chapter 4: Theory: Social Justice Theory and Human Rights approach

Quality education is every child's right, which can only be achieved in a safe and orderly environment. Chapter three, therefore, sought to give a solid understanding of this argument by discussing human rights conventions that uphold learners' rights to quality education and safety. It started by discussing article 26 of the United Nations Universal Declaration of Human Rights (UNUDHR) of 1948, in which the current global human rights are contained. The chapter proceeded to look at other international conventions on human rights that have been created to promote and protect children's right to education. They included the International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights (ICESCR) of 1966 and Convention on the Rights of the Child (CRC) of 1989.

In addition, chapter three discussed how the rights to quality education and safety are articulated in the South African Constitution (1996). It also looked at policy documents, such as the National Education Policy Act of 1996 and the South African Schools Act of 1996 to illustrate the measures that the South African government has put to promote learners' right to safety and quality education.

The argument of this thesis was that, for quality learning to take place, effects of deprivation and safety of learners had to be addressed. The study therefore adopted Nancy Fraser's (2003) social justice theory. The study utilised the dimensions (redistribution, representation and recognition) of Fraser's social justice to demonstrate that social justice needs to be addressed to improve learner performance in schools located in unsafe and multiple deprived areas.

Chapter 5 Research methodology

This chapter discussed the rationale for using qualitative research methodology. Neuman (2014, p.95) asserts that "research methodology is composed of the underling paradigm and approach used in the study". MacMillan and Schumacher (2010, p.166) further state that "it is a plan for selecting subjects, research site, and data collection procedures to answer the research questions". The study was situated within qualitative approach, because it gave me the opportunity to gain different views of the principals, educators and learner representatives to make sense of their perceptions and practices in enhancing safety and orderliness. Furthermore, it allowed for multiple interpretation of meaning upon reflection in the context of data generated (Gray, 2009, p. 228).

The study utilised an interpretive approach, because of its epistemological, axiological and ontological assumptions, which corresponded with qualitative research. It employed a single case study, which was considered appropriate because it provided a systematic way of generating and analysing data and, therefore, gave a better understanding of challenges the schools experienced and how they endeavoured to alleviate them. Data was generated through individual interviews, focus group interviews, observation schedules and photographs, because of their advantages. However, qualitative research has various disadvantages. In order to enhance the authenticity of the study, I ensured that the data was trustworthy by applying the principles of dependability, transferability, consistence and confirmability (Lincoln & Guba, 1985, p. 40).

I used purposeful sampling to select three quintile one secondary schools that were in an unsafe and multiple deprived environment (Soweto), but were ranked high in the National Senior Certificate. The approach was used based on studies that showed that schools located in poor and unsafe neighbourhood had higher chances of experiencing violence and other issues that compromise safety. Purposeful sampling was also used to sample the participant where three principals, six educators and nineteen learner representatives were selected for the study. The learner representatives were a sample from the participation schools, because they held leadership positions and had also experienced incidences of violence within the school and the community. On the other hand, the educators were selected by virtue of being grade educators, which gave them leadership responsibilities. Lastly, the principals were selected because they headed the participating schools. The principals and educators were interviewed individually,

while focus group interviews were used for the learner representatives, because it gave the participants a chance to express their views clearly. I used photos and non-participant observation in addition interviews to generate data. The data collected was analysed using Braun and Clarke's (2006) six-step framework of thematic analysis. It was appropriate for this study, because it suits questions related to people's views and questions relating to the construction of meaning.

Lastly, ethical issues were observed to protect the rights and interest of the participants. This was achieved by seeking ethical clearance from the university and permission from Gauteng Department of Education. I then sought permission from the principals, educators, learner representatives and parents, since some were minors. Furthermore, I ensured that the participants took part voluntarily and were informed of their rights. Privacy of the participants was ensured through anonymity, confidentiality and appropriate storage of data. However, one participant (principal) wanted her identity to be known, so her real name was used in the study. I used her surname only, "Baloyi", but used a pseudonym for the name of her school in order to protect the identity of other participants who wanted to remain anonymous.

Chapter 6: Leaders' perception on injustices of school safety and orderliness and multiple deprivation

This chapter analyses factors that compromised school safety and orderliness. The themes that emerged were negative school climate, negligence and policies. These were as a result of the maldistribution of resources, misrepresentation and misrecognition. The next section discussed the impact of multiple deprivation. The themes that emerged were moral decay and poor performance. The results were derived from interviews from the principals and educators, focus group interviews from the learner representatives, observational notes and photographs.

Chapter 7: Redistribution, recognition and representation approaches to physical, behavioural and psychological safety

This chapter presented an analysis of social justice strategies that the leaders employed to enhance physical, psychological/ emotional and behavioural safety in their schools. The chapter was guided by a sub-question: What strategies do the leaders use to redress the injustices they face to make their schools safe and orderly? In order to achieve this, the leaders

employed strategies that targeted physical safety, behavioural safety and emotional/psychological safety.

Physical safety was enhanced by redistribution and recognition strategies via meeting learners' physiological needs, such as food and clothing. These were in line with the constitution (RSA,1996b) and SASA (RSA,1996a). On the other hand, physical safety was enhanced by creating safe infrastructure and environment conducive for teaching and learning. The leaders mainly focused on installation of safety systems, maintenance of infrastructure and security of the premises. Next, behavioural safety was enhanced by recognition and representation strategies. To achieve these, the leaders controlled learner behaviour and made them accountable for their actions. They partnered with the community, supervised learners outside the class and used the code of conduct. Lastly, psychological safety utilised all the dimensions of social justice. They addressed this by listening to learners, counselling and providing for the needs of the learners. The next section addresses the summary of key findings.

8.3 Summary of key findings in relation to research questions

The study sought to examine the research questions: In what ways do leaders in schools facing multiple deprivation redress social injustices they face to make their schools safe and orderly as a basis of school improvement? The question sought to understand how quality education as learners right can be enhanced using of social justice theory.

This was guided by the following sub questions:

1) How do leaders perceive safety and orderliness as problems of social justice?
2) In what ways does multiple deprivation resulting from maldistribution, misrecognition and misrepresentation affect the schools?
3) What strategies do the leaders use to redress the injustices they face to make their schools safe and orderly?

The following section provides a summary of the main findings based on the case study that was conducted in the three secondary schools in Soweto.

8.3.1 Sub-question one: How do leaders perceive safety and orderliness as problems of social justice?

The purpose of the research questions was to examine the leaders' understanding of what constituted a safe and orderly school. The questions utilised Fraser's (2003) dimensions

(representation, distribution and recognition) of the social justice theory to examine factors that depressed safety and orderliness in the schools.

The findings suggested that what constituted a safe and orderly school was a commonly held understanding among the school leaders at all levels, which influenced what they valued as ingredients of a safe and orderly school. In addition, it influenced what they considered as barriers to safety and orderliness. On the other hand, lack of a common understanding could have led to barriers in implementing policies of enhancing safety and orderliness. Data from photos, non-participant observation, individual interviews and focus group interviews suggested that school safety and orderliness were compromised by negligence, policies and negative school climate. The next section discusses how policies compromised school safety and orderliness.

8.3.1.1 Policies

There were policies in place to uphold learners' right to quality education and safety. The policies were put to redress maldistribution, misrepresentation and misrecognition that compromised safety and orderliness in schools (see SASA,1996; Children's Act, 2005). However, it was interesting that policies came top as some of the things that depressed school safety and orderliness. The leaders raised serious concerns of how the policies disempowered them. They further elaborated that there were contradictions in some policies, while some were too bureaucratic. These findings contradicted studies that indicated that national policies promoted learner safety by giving guidelines on how to enhance a conducive learning environment. This is reflected in policies such as 'No child left behind' and 'gun control' (Astor et al., 2010, p. 43; fritz & Radka, 2010, p.16; Shah & Ujifusa, 2013, p,20). I argue that the problems relating to policies in the sampled schools could be attributed to lack of funds to implement them, or the lack of knowledge on how to implement them. The next section looks at how negative school climate affected safety of the schools.

8.3.1.2 Negative school climate

The study discussed negative school climate under lack of resources and aggression. Lack of resources emerged as a problem because the schools served learners from deprived households who could not afford to pay fees. They depended on government funding through the quintile system and no-fees policy (RSA, 1996a), the findings from the observation schedules and

interviews suggested that the schools lacked resources. These included libraries, trained security personnel, safety equipment, storage space, green space and funds. For this reason, they could not enact some safety measures, thus exposing the school personnel to risky conditions. They were exposed to risky conditions such as electrocution, fires, contacting diseases and general accidents. It also affected the morale of the personnel. The findings is corroborated by studies which show that educators and learner are demotivated if they lack adequate teaching and learning resources, thus contributing to disorder in classroom (Hornstra et al., 2015, p.366).

The findings from the interviews indicated that there was discipline problem in the schools sampled. Majority of the learners did not show respect for school authorities, nor did they observe the school rules and regulations. They sold and took drugs within the school premises, which contributed to physical aggression. This finding was similar to Burton (2008) study which indicated that aggression was a discipline that affected most schools in South Africa. The schools had cases of learner to learner aggression and educator to learner aggression. It took the form of fights, bullying and corporal punishment. Bullying in schools lead to physical and psychological problems for the victims. It can be argued that it was a coping mechanism exercised by the perpetrators, thus affecting both victims and perpetrators (Patchin & Hinduja, 201, p. 2).

The leaders mentioned fighting as the most common form of aggression among learners which was due to stolen property or relationships. It could also be attributed to lack of space for learners to play comfortably as it was noted that the schools did not have enough playing grounds. Educator to learner aggression was exhibited in form of corporal punishment. The leaders used it as a disciplinary measure. However, it was not effective, it affected learners physically and mentally. The findings echo Gershoff (2008, p. 16) study on physical punishment where he stated that "physical punishment increases student aggression, antisocial behaviour, mental health problems and physical injury". The next section addresses negligence as a factor that compromised learner safety.

8.3.1.4 Negligence

Educators are charged with the responsibility of taking care of learners while in school under *in loco parenties* as reflected in the constitution RSA (1996b), RSA (1996a) and NEPA (1996).

However, the findings suggested that there was gross negligence in the schools which exposed the school personnel to danger. The school premises were not maintained, the buildings were dilapidated with exposed electrical wires and the grounds were not maintained. In addition, the grounds were rocky with long grass therefore they were not safe for playing. Furthermore, the learners hide illicit substances like drugs and weapons in the long grass. The state of the school not only compromised learner safety but also affected their performance. The findings echo Weidener (2008) assertion that a well-maintained school has a positive influence on learner behaviour and achievement as opposed to neglected one.

Hygiene was another issue in the schools. The finds suggested that dirty environment affected learner achieved as stated in (Lezotte and Snyder, 2011, p.10). In addition, the dirty toilets were a health hazard to the learners. The findings were similar to Brusie (2017) assertion that dirty toilets have short- and long-term effects on one's health.

The study also demonstrated that there was parental negligence. The learners were robbed of their constitutional right to adequate care. Some learners did not live with their parents or an adult care giver to guide and provide for them. In some cases, they were charged with the responsibility of taking care of younger siblings or sick parents at the same time contribute towards their household economy. Lack of parental care affected learner performance and exposed them to physical and psychological harm, as they tried to fend for themselves (see Nkhoma & Charnley, 2018, p. 10; Bharti & Agarwal, 2013, p. 13). The next section addresses how multiple deprivation affected the learners.

8.3.2 Sub-question two: In what ways does multiple deprivation, resulting from maldistribution, misrecognition and misrepresentation, affect the schools?

The purpose of the research questions was to establish how the injustice of multiple deprivation affected the schools. The sampled schools were in unsafe and multiple deprived neighbourhoods, therefore I wanted to understand if this had any effect on them. The findings suggested that the schools were indeed affected by multiple deprivation, which contributed to moral decay and poor performance. The next section shows how multiple deprivation contributed to poor performance of the schools.

8.3.2.1 Poor performance

The schools performed better in the National Senior Certificate compared to their counterparts in quintile one, but we do not know how many learners are lost due to the challenges faced. Moreover, the leaders felt that they could do much better, but were constrained by multiple deprivation. The data suggested that ill health, cognitive delay and lack of teaching and learning resources contributed to under-achievement in the schools. The learners were constantly sick or were taking care of sick siblings or parents. This affected the learners physically and emotionally. Furthermore, it contributed to truancy and thus affected performance. The findings validated studies conducted by Phipps (2003, p. 19), which establishes a relationship between ill-health and productivity.

The learners also exhibited cognitive delay. Most of them could not effectively read or write and therefore could not curry out the tasks given to them. The findings resonates with McLaughlin and Stansell's (2013, p. 583) argument that children born in poverty are likely to exhibit learning disability. Furthermore, incompetence in class leads to avoidance and disruptive behaviours which were displayed by the learners. A point that is supported by Darling-Kuria's (2012, p. 26) studies that show how learners with disabilities engage in behaviours that disrupt learning.

Lastly, the schools were ill-equipped. They lacked teaching facilities like libraries and workshops. They also lacked resources like books. Lack of the above compromised the quality of learning, as both the educators and learners were demotivated. Lack of motivation compromised safety and orderliness in the schools. Najumba (2013, p. 130) noted that schools which were well equipped with laboratories, libraries and reading materials performed better in examinations, because the learners were motivated. This is a fact that was lacking in the sampled schools. Likewise, Matimbe (2014, p. 128) and Chingos and West (2010) noted that lack of learning materials and resources negatively impacted on teaching and learning. However, Butts (2010) argues that it is not the resources that contribute to quality learning, but the value of the process of teaching. The next section addresses how moral decay affected the schools.

8.3.2.2 Moral decay

Multiple deprivation affects the moral fabric of a society (Nikolova, 2018, p. 2). The schools experienced this in form of criminal activities, such as robbery/theft, drug and substance abuse, and sexual immorality. The findings suggested that the schools were affected by criminal activities. They experienced frequent robbery attacks from the community. They had lost valuables from small things like taps and electrical sockets to things like gas cookers, computers and smart boards. The learners also stole from one another and from their teachers.

Several studies (Lyer & Topalova, 2014, p.7; Mehlum et al., 2006; Patterson, 1991) demonstrated that deprivation was highly linked to property crime and violent crime. Fajnzylber et al. (2002) confirmed this. However, Burke et al. (2015, p.32) and Dell et al. (2014, p. 17) argue that the relationship between poverty and crime has not been established, as it lacks solid empirical evidence.

The schools were affected by drug and substance abuse. The leaders noted that the members of the community sold illicit drugs to the learners. In addition, some learners sold and took the drugs within the school compound or came to school intoxicated. Consumption of drugs compromised school safety and orderliness (Wanger, 2001). It was also a violation of NEPA (1996) which declared schools as drug free zones.

Furthermore, the learners were involved in prostitution or engaged in careless sex, which had a negative effect on them. This was a reflection of what happened in their households. The findings suggested that learners engaged in commercial sex, because they had to contribute towards their household economy. This was echoed by Kaufman and Stavrou (2004, p. 630), who stated that children from poor families or orphans engaged in child prostitution, because it was perceived as the only feasible way of meeting their basic needs and those of their siblings. Incest was also rampant in the society. This could be attributed to living condition deprivation or too much consumption of alcohol in the community that impaired their judgment. The next section looks at how the injustices were redressed.

8.3.3 Sub-question three: What strategies do the leaders use to redress the injustices they face to make their schools safe and orderly?

The research questions aimed at establishing how Fraser's (2005) dimensions (redistribution, recognition and representation) of social justice are used to enhance learner safety in multiple

deprived secondary schools in Soweto. The study established a high degree of association that existed between safety and orderliness and multiple deprivation. These concepts were overwhelmingly connected to each other. This strong connection was not surprising, as many researchers found that neighbourhoods that experience high levels of deprivation are bound to be unsafe (Ellen et al. ,2013; Arino & Bauner, 2012; Kubrin & stewart, 2006).

It is worth noting that Fraser's (2008) dimensions of social justice are connected to one another therefore all the dimensions should be addressed if justice is be achieved. The leaders, therefore, employed safety measures that enhanced physical safety, behavioural safety and emotional/psychological safety using redistributive, recognition and representation justice. The social justice strategies were guided by human rights approach as discussed in detail in chapter four. Physical safety included physiological need and physical safety, while behavioural safety was enhanced by controlling learner behaviour and making them accountable. Lastly, emotional/psychological safety was enhanced by listening to the learners, talking to them and providing for their needs. Section 8.3.3.1 looks at physical safety measures that the school leaders used.

8.3.3.1 Physical safety measures

There is consensus that schools should have a safe physical environment (UNESCO, n.d.). The leaders in the sampled schools endeavoured to enhance learner physical safety with the minimal resources they had. The strategies used were in accordance with human rights stipulations. They met the learners' physiological needs and physical safety. They provided the learners with physiological needs, such as food and clothing. The schools benefited from the quintile system and as such were categories under no-fee school as stated in (RSA, 1996a). The findings suggested that the leaders fed learners under nutrition programme which was a form of redistributive justice that was funded by the government. The programme protected the learners from hunger and exploitation from 'sponsors' who exploited them. It was also a way of increasing their productivity and retaining them in school. This was in line with the report on the Evaluation of the National School Nutrition Programme [NSNP] (2008, p. 4&11) which indicated that the programme "improved education by alleviating poverty and empowering poverty-stricken communities". At the same time, the learners' physiological needs were met by being given school uniforms, which made them warm and protected them from humiliation (Maslow, 1943).

The leaders enhanced physical safety by ensuring that the structures and school environment were safe for the school personnel. They enhanced safety of the premises by fencing the schools as stipulated by the Department of Education. The findings were supported by Xaba' (2014, p. 496) argument that palisade fencing enhances school safety and orderliness. They strengthened security by hiring security personnel. The schools also instilled security grills on doors and windows of offices and classrooms that had valuable as stipulated by the Department of Education (DBE, 2013). However, installation of security grills on classroom doors and windows was contrary to the requirements safety measures in Kenyan schools (see MoEST (2008, p. 21) on safety standards manual for schools in Kenya). In addition, the leaders instilled safety systems, did minor repairs/ maintenance and controlled access.

Nevertheless, the findings suggested that they did not meet the recommendations stipulated by the Department of Education (GDE,2008). Moreover, they still experienced incidents of insecurity. The findings in this study validate Xaba's (2006) and Jaarsvel's (2011) studies, which suggested that most South African schools did not adequately implement safety measures and, therefore, the schools were not safe. The leaders need to tap on the resources they have to improve on this area. Next is how behavioural safety was enhanced.

8.3.3.2 Recognition strategies in enhancing behavioural safety

The school leaders were keen on creating a conducive learning environment with minimal disruptions. The leaders implemented recognition strategies to enhance behavioural safety. The leaders addressed this by focusing on learner behaviour that made others feel unsafe in school. They exercised this by observing learners' dignity as stipulated in the South African Constitution. Data collected from interviews, photos and observation schedules suggested that the leaders partnered with the community, monitored learners, used after school programmes and a learner code of conduct to promote behavioural safety.

The schools partnered with the community, as was recommended by GDE (2008). The partnership was mainly with SAPS and SANCA, who helped with crime related issues, such as drug and substance abuse, robbery/theft and assault. These findings were similar with Rollison et al., (2013, p. 415) that learner safety and well-being are enhanced by coordination and integration of programmes and activities, such as mental health care and law enforcement

The leaders, especially the educators, enhanced behavioural safety by inspecting and monitoring learners outside the classrooms. The findings suggested that they searched the learners as they come to school in the morning. They also supervised them during break and lunch time and looked for anything that could cause harm to them. Supervision controlled forms of physical aggression. This supported Blum's (2007) argument that children are likely to engage in dangerous activities if left unsupervised. The position was similar to Van Wyk and Oosthuizen's (2013, p. 40) assertion that "children sometimes act absentmindedly especially when in a group". Behavioural safety was also enhanced using a learner code of conduct to shape learner behaviour and make them accountable for their actions (RSA,1996a). The findings were similar with Cumberland County Schools who argue that discipline and safety can be enhanced by a code of conduct. In addition, there was use of after school programmes, and the subject LO. Lastly, they used classroom management, the findings were supported by (Gregory & Ripski, 2008). The next section looks at how emotional/psychological safety was addressed.

8.3.3.3 Emotional/psychological safety

The leaders employed redistributive, recognition and representation strategies to enhance enhanced learner emotional/psychological safety (Fraser, 2008; RSA, 1996a). This was done by identifying learners with problems, advising them and providing for their needs. However, the student leaders noted that very few leaders (educator component) did this.

On the other hand, the student leaders encouraged their peers to talk freely about their experiences, both in school and at home. This demonstrated that they cared for one another. It also gave room for learners to express themselves freely and identify those that had problems. The educators identified learners that displayed psychological problems, like withdrawal, moodiness and irrational behaviour. This is in line with Derbyshire County Council (n.d.) who prescribes ways in which schools can identify learners at risk, due to poor emotional and mental health. "Identifying learners mental and emotional health contributes to safety and high achievement" (Liersch & Walter, 2015, p. 17).

The leaders further advised learners. Findings from the study suggested that the leaders advised (talked to) learners individually and in groups to help resolve emotional, social or

behaviour problems. One this issue Watkins, Crosby and Pearson (2007) point out that counselling is important in shaping behaviour and emotional state of individuals. Lastly, the leaders provided for their needs by showing them love and helping them cope (Maslow, 1943).

8.4 Contribution

The main purpose of this study was to explore how leaders in multiple deprived areas redressed social justice issues they faced to make their schools safe and orderly, as a basis of school improvement. The findings were expected to contribute to theory, policy and practice.

8.4.1Theoretical contribution

From the literature review conducted, it was noted that most empirical studies conducted on how to improve school safety and orderliness were conducted in developed countries, especially Canada and the United States of America. The literature indicated that very few studies had been conducted in Africa on the topic. South Africa, for instance, had two national studies conducted on school violence. The studies were conducted by Burton (2008) and Burton and Leoschut (2013), yet there were national studies conducted on how these schools can be made safe and orderly. The few studies that have been done in South Africa, such as those by Netshitahame and Vollenhoven (2002) and Xaba (2014), did not investigate how safety and multiple deprivation problems can be redressed. Conducting this study is an attempt to fill this gap in knowledge and give an understanding of how leaders alleviated the injustices they experienced.

The Department of basic Education had set guideline of how to enhance learners' right to safety and quality education (see NEPA (1996; RSA, 1996a). Nevertheless, these guidelines were adopted from developed countries that experience different challenges and are better resourced. However, there are no studies on how these guideline/strategies are implemented. Thus, the role of school leaders in making schools safe in South Africa is under-researched. The studies conducted mainly touched on school violence leaving out other dimensions of safety and how they can be redressed. Contrary to those studies this study was not limited to understanding school violence, but also uncovered other dimensions of safety within the context of multiple deprivation and how they can be redressed, to improving learner performance.

As discussed earlier, there is growing academic interest in theorising school improvement and this study widens the academic research on school safety as a way of enhancing school performance. The study employed Fraser's (2008) theory of social justice using a human rights approach to unpack the complexity of school safety in multiple deprived areas. The study discussed issues that depressed safety and orderliness in the schools and how the leaders redressed them. The leaders enhanced behavioural, physiological and emotional/ psychological safety by redistribution, recognition and representation dimensions of justice (Fraser, 2008). It was recognised that the learners were deprived, therefore the schools received subsidies from the government through the quintile system under fee exemptions (RSA, 1996c); RSA (1996a). The learners also benefited from the nutrition programme (NSNP, 2008). In addition, some of them were given school uniform. Some learners also benefited from child support grant by the nature of being needy children, or as teen mothers.

The leaders addressed safety and orderliness by employing recognition strategies. They protected learner dignity and other forms of harm (CRC, 1989; RSA, 1996a). They used various strategies to protect them from physical, behavioural and emotional harm, through strategies such as access control, monitoring learners, inspecting learners as they came to school, counselling and maintaining the school facility.

Lastly, misrepresentation was redressed, giving learners a voice to air what was affecting them. All the stakeholders (parents, educators and learners) were included in the SGB. Under RSA (1996a), both parents and learners have a right to participate in the decision making of the school and matters affecting them. RCL also gives learners a voice. However, they faced challenges as parents were uncooperative.

The study demonstrated the complexity of safety and orderliness in deprived areas. The schools were not totally safe, despite the leaders' efforts to enhance safety and orderliness. This was because the schools served communities that were affected by various domains of deprivation. Therefore, they could not support the schools financially, as is stipulated in RSA (1996a). In addition, the schools did not have enough funds to buy equipment needed to enhance safety and for maintenance. Moreover, they could not afford to hire trained security personnel. A second major challenge was that parents neglected their role and did not discipline their children. To use one of the educators' words, *they saw the SMT as their enemies,* therefore they

did not want to attend any disciplinary hearing or any meeting in school. Parental negligence contributed to discipline problems. Thirdly, conflicting policies or poor implementation of policies hindered effective implementation of safety measures. Lastly, schools mainly partnered with the SAPS and SANCA that were not readily available. Below is a summary of the challenges the schools faced and the strategies they employed in their endeavour to enhance safety and orderliness in schools. The strategies employed by the leaders are referred to as first-generation strategies of school safety.

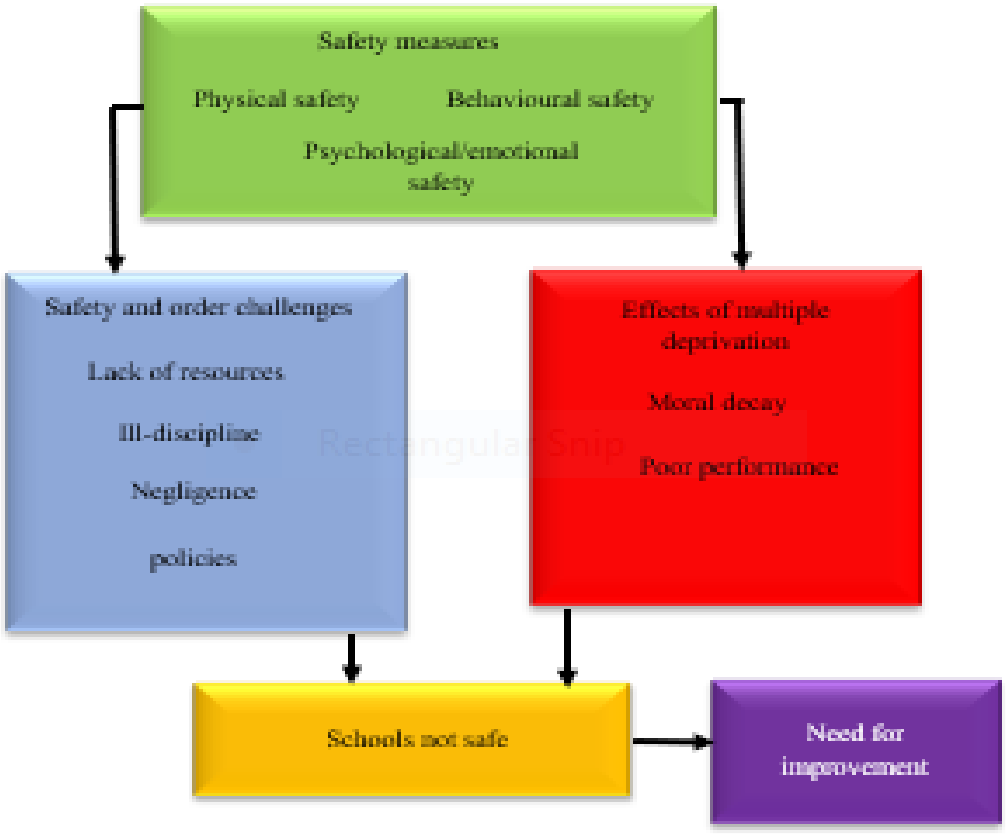


Figure 8-1: First-generation school safety strategies *(source: Adhola)*

Contribution to practice

The study provides contributions for school leaders (principals, SGB, SMT and RLC) who are interested in enhancing school safety and orderliness in South Africa. Previous studies mainly focused on school violence with few on how infrastructural safety is enhanced. This study has addressed how leaders address injustices of safety and orderliness through redistribution, recognition and representation justice. Based on the study's findings, the school leaders can improve school safety and orderliness by implementing the safety guidelines stipulated by the

Department of Education. I proposed a model that could help improve school safety and orderliness. The model calls for context specific strategies, which expect school leaders to identify problems that affect them and have the autonomy to implement strategies that suit their schools, as well as addressing challenges that emanated from the community. For there to be a smooth transition from the first generation of school safety and orderliness strategies to second generation of school safety and orderliness strategies, the school leaders should recognise the importance of involving all the stake holders. In that case, the parents, the learners and the educators should be represented, or "given a voice" in this discussion. They should work as a team to identify injustices of safety and orderliness that affect the school and how best they can be averted. In addition, they should identify the resources they have that can be used to enhance safety and evaluate how they have used them so far. This should be followed by recognising other resources that should be added based on their need. The findings indicated that most parents and members of the community were not employed. The leaders can use this as an asset and recruit some as security officers to guard the school day and night. Equally important, educators should be trained in how to detect and handle learners that exhibit behavioural or/and psychological problems and to implement the policies.

Lastly, the findings indicated that safety was a complex phenomenon that could not be adequately addressed by school leaders, by using strategies that target learners only. There is therefore a need to partner with other groups, apart from the SAPS and SANCA. The school leaders should partner with business, churches and other organisations to help them mobilise funds, as well as enhance safety threats that emanate from the community.

Contribution to policy

Results from this study can inform policy makes about the challenges school leaders face in their endeavour to make schools safe. The findings suggested that some challenges that the schools experienced were as a result of conflicting policies, while some were too bureaucratic. The findings also suggested that some challenges faced were linked to inadequate funds. Awareness of these challenges can motivate policy makers to harmonise conflicting policies and give the principals more autonomy in issues of safety. Likewise, they should include school leaders when formulate policies, sensitise them to the importance of the policies and how they can be implemented smoothly. Furthermore, it can guide policy makers to evaluate funding allocation to these schools and, if possible, allocate special funds for mitigating safety issues

and disaster preparedness. Lastly, results from the study can help policy makers formulate policies that target both schools and the community, since the findings from the study suggested that most problems were as a result of the maldistribution injustices that affected the community. I therefore propose a new model to be used by leaders in enhancing school safety and orderliness in the schools. The model is summaries in figure 8.2.

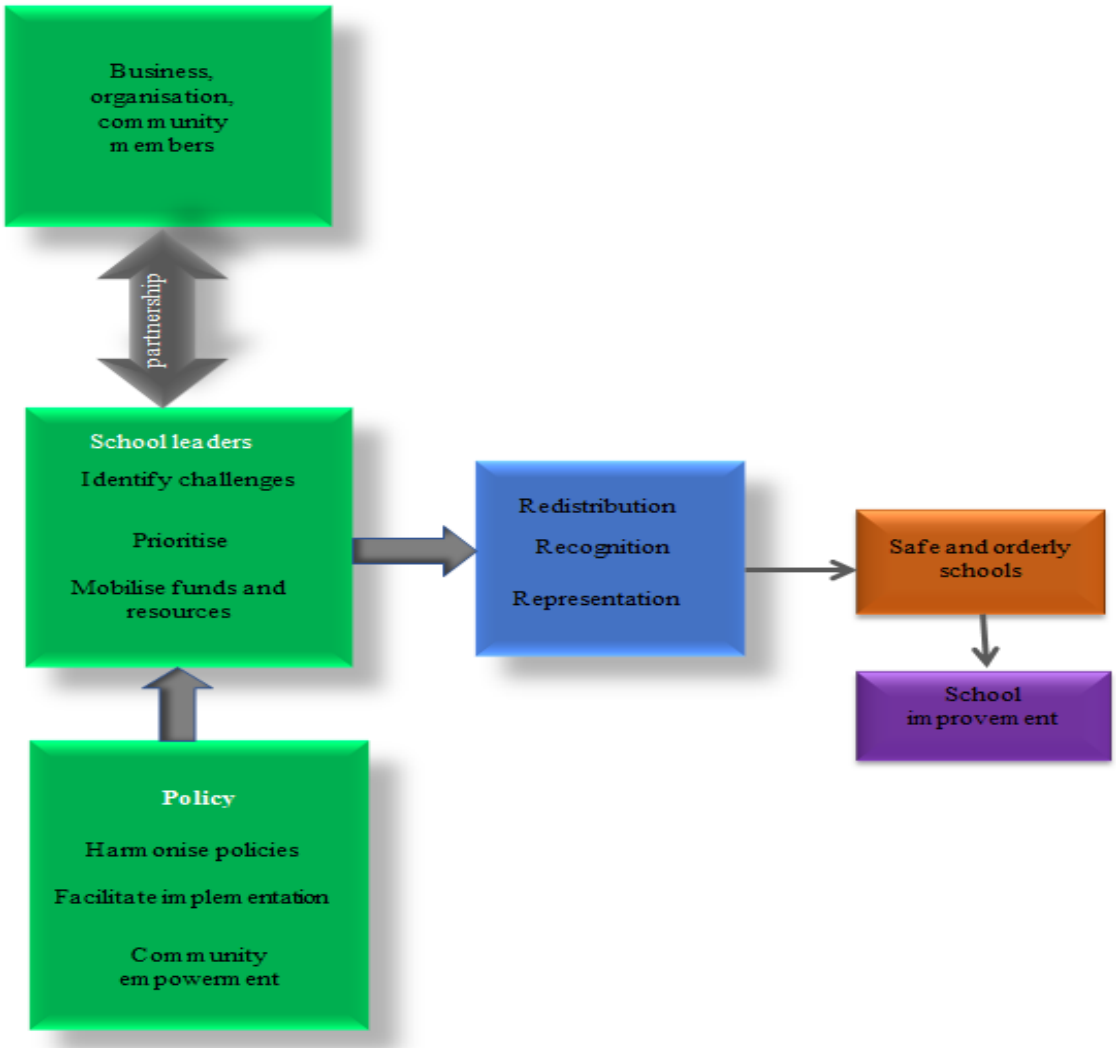


Figure 8-2: Second generation model of school safety and orderliness strategies *(Source: Adhola)*

8.5 Implication of the research

The study had implications for policy and practice. The section below discusses the implications for policy.

8.5.1 Implications for policy

This study has drawn out a complex picture of ways in which schools, located in multiple deprived areas face social justice issues. It has also shown how the leaders strive to redress these injustices to establish safety and orderliness in these schools. Most importantly, it has raised issues regarding the complexity of enhancing school improvement amidst social justice issues of safety and deprivation. I argue that most of the safety challenges experienced by schools in multiply deprived areas cannot be resolved by only school interventions. The schools involved are most often those that experience high levels of insecurity that emanated both within the school and from the community. This supports the point raised by Button (2013, p.101), that schools located in unsafe neighbourhoods experience safety issues that emanate from the community. Schools located in multiple deprived areas experience a wide range of safety and orderly challenges.

One of the important findings of this study was that some of the policies put in place to uphold learners' right to safety and education (see RSA, 1996b; RSA,1996b) compromised learner safety. The policies were too bureaucratic and therefore did not give the leaders the chance to act promptly, or as they deemed fit in arresting looming dangers. An illustration of this is the maintenance of the school facility. The leaders are not authorised to do major repairs without seeking approval from the Department of Education (see Gauteng School Infrastructure Maintenance Guidelines, 2014). The leaders could not demolish buildings or do major renovations (see figure 6.1) that were a looming danger to the school personnel without consulting the GDB maintenance unit, which then assessed the nature of seriousness and urgency of the request. If deemed necessary, the unit would then appoint a contractor through procurement procedure to do the work. This process takes a while and the delay puts the school personnel at a high risk.

Secondly, there were contradictions in policies. The Constitution of South Africa of 1996 and South African Schools Act (RSA,1996a) advocate for learners' safety and the right to education. However, sections of the South African Children's Act of 2005, as amended in No.41 of 2007, exposed the learners to unsafe conditions, as a way of exercising their rights. The Act gives children of twelve years and above the right to access contraceptives and terminate pregnancies without parental consent. On the other hand, the Sexual offenders Act (2007) sets the age of consent as sixteen. The difference in age was problematic. Furthermore,

the leaders felt that these rights exposed learners to dangerous behaviours. The learners were young and could not negotiate for safe sex or take contraceptives as prescribed. This exposed them to HIV/Aids, STIs and teen pregnancy. Furthermore, learners of sixteen years were exploited by "sponsors", but no action could be taken, because it was a consensual relationship (Sexual Offenders Act, 2007). This not only affected them physically and psychologically, but also denied their right to education.

Thirdly, the policies should give the leaders the autonomy to discipline learners. Disciplinary procedures were "too prescriptive", therefore, the leaders had to follow them as stipulated (see the South African Constitution (RSA, 1996b; RSA, 1996a). This was reflected in learners' code of conduct, which outlined misconduct and how to handle them. For this reason, the leaders felt it restricted them when it came to disciplining learners, thus contributed to a lack of safety in schools. This could also be that they did not know how to implement the policies. There was a need to involve the leaders in the formulation of the policies and educate them about how to implement those that were problematic to them.

Fourthly, policy makers should recognise that there are illegal emigrants who attend these schools, as evidence from Soweto suggests. Therefore, the Department of Education should work together with the Department of Immigration to provide for them. This is because they cause a strain in the school budget, which ends up affecting all the learners.

The exemption of quintile one schools from paying fees (see RSA, 1996a) and the introduction of nutrition programme in the schools, as a social justice issue, did not fully address inequality faced by schools in multiple deprived areas. The government should, therefore, allocate funds to these school, according to their budget. This could help meet their individual needs that may not be experienced by others.

Lastly, the findings suggested that some safety concerns emanated from the community. This was because the majority of the community members were unemployed and, therefore, preyed on the schools and attacked the school personnel. The government should, therefore, introduce programmes that empower the youth.

8.5.2 Implication to practice

The findings suggested that parental negligence depressed safety and orderliness. Majority of learners lived without an adult care giver, or those who could not provide for their needs. Furthermore, some were not good role models for their children. The learners imitated what they watched and heard from their parents. This supports Bandura's (1986) social learning theory that people learn from one another, via observation, imitation and modelling. The school leaders, together with the local leaders, should hold a *lekgotla* with the parents to advise them about the importance of good parenting and how it contributes to good discipline.

Peer support cannot be effective without the guides of the school SBST. The school leaders (SMTs) and SBST should work together with peer support to help with learner problems.

Above all, business and non-governmental organisations should adopt the schools. This could help the schools financially and with other areas that they may need.

8.6 Suggestion for future research

Based on the results and limitations of this study, various issues emerged that need further investigation. The findings suggested that most of the safety and orderliness issues that the schools experienced emanated from the community, which experienced cases of robberies; violent attacks that were sometimes fatal; and drug and substance abuse. These tendencies trickled into the schools. In addition, the schools were soft targets and experienced frequent robberies from the community. Furthermore, the learners copied the violence from the community. They were also used by drug barons, who sold drugs in the schools. Therefore, research should be conducted to investigate how such a violent and unsafe community can be involved in enhancing school safety.

Secondly, *second generation model of school safety and orderliness strategies* (see figure 8.2) designed by me should be examined in rural schools in South Africa. This is because some rural schools are also deprived and experience safety challenges that affect their performance. The model should be examined using a mixed method targeting a larger population. Lastly, similar research should be conducted that includes school safety committee members and a school safety representative from the DBE. Their voices can give more information to the discussion.

8.7 Reflection on the PhD

8.7.1 Reflection on the problem

My professional background and experience with schools in Kenya influenced my decision to conduct research in this area. As an educator, my interest has been to promote quality education as a social justice issue. This, is in line with the South African national vision, where the government articulates its vision for basic education:

> By 2030, South Africans should have access to education and training of the highest quality, leading to significantly improved learning outcomes. The performance of South African learners in international standardised tests should be comparable to the performance of learners from countries at a similar level of development and with similar levels of access. Education should be compulsory up to Grade 12, or the equivalent levels in vocational education and training (National Development Plan, 2013, p. 296).

Despite this, 80% of schools in South Africa serving black learners are considered dysfunctional (see Masando, 2014). My purpose was then to investigate how leaders in multiple deprived areas perceive and enhance safety and orderliness as a basis of school improvement. I was guided by Lezotte and Snyder's (2011) argument that, effective learning can only take place in a safe and orderly environment. The problem may seem too wide. However, I felt it was necessarily since studies indicated that safety and orderliness is a major problem in a significant number of South African schools and especially those located in multiple deprived areas. Furthermore, this is a fairly under researched area by scholars of school improvement.

8.7.2 Reflection on literature

The aim of my study was to investigate how school leaders in multiple deprived areas perceived safety and orderliness and how they enhanced safety and orderliness as a basis of school improvement. I, therefore, organised the literature review section into three chapters. The first chapter of the literature review discussed policies on quality education and safety as Human Rights and social justice theory. I discussed education as human rights using theUnited Nations Universal Declaration of Human Rights (UNUDHR) of 1948, because the current global human rights are contained in it. This was followed by the International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights (ICESCR) and the Convention on the Rights of Children (CRC) to give a deeper understanding of the right to education and safety. There was a need it

discuss how South Africa translated these rights to fit the South African context, therefore I discussed human rights within the constitution of South Africa (1996), SASA, 1996, NEPA, 1996. Most importantly, I used Nancy Fraser's theory of social justice to explain that the schooling within unsafe and multiple deprived conditions is an issue of social justice that needs to be addressed. In order to achieve this, I utilised the three dimensions of social justice theory, which are representation, redistribution and recognition.

The next chapter discussed school improvement and leadership. I examined school improvement by exploring the works of major proponents in the area of school improvement. This included Edmond, Sammons, Hillman and Mortimore, Shannon and Bylsma, Lezotte and Lezotte and Snyder. I then narrowed focused my study to interrogate how leaders can implement one of Lezotte and Snyder's (2011) correlates of school improvement (safety and orderliness). The chapter further discussed leadership theories, that could be used under such circumstances. Lastly, I felt it was important to understand the context where the schools operated, therefore, I discussed the concepts of safety and orderliness. Figure 8.3 illustrates the framework.

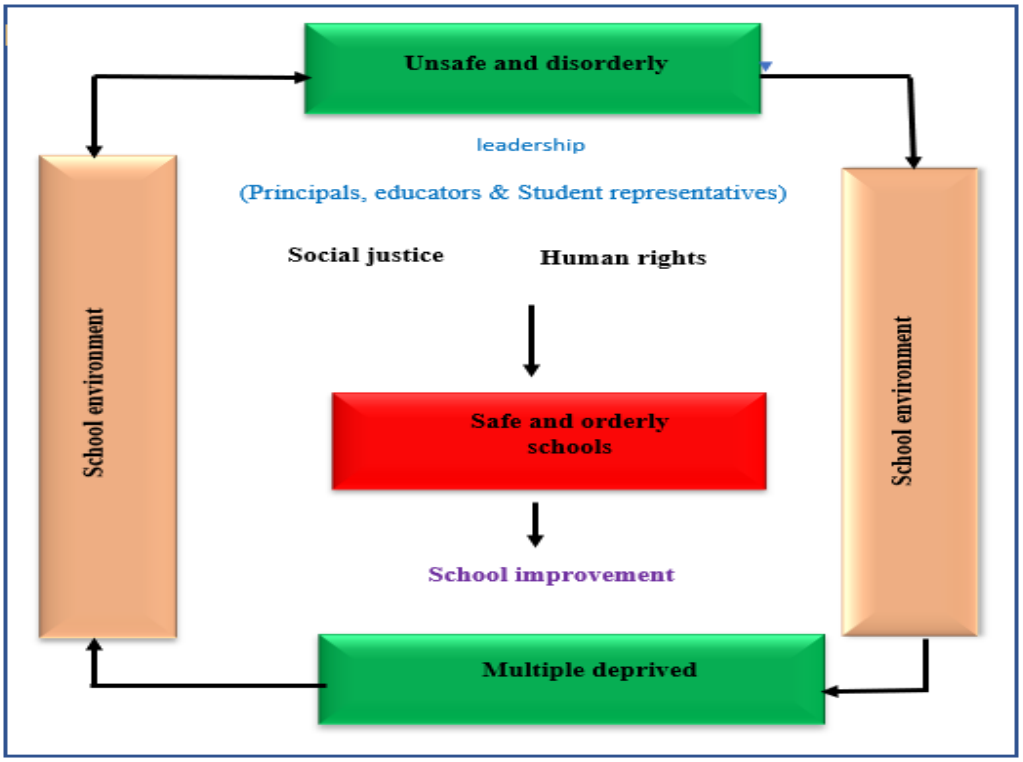


Figure 8-3: Conceptual framework

8.7.3 Reflection on methodology used

This study sought to investigate how school leaders in multiple deprived areas perceive safety. It also sought to establish how they enhance safety and orderliness as a basis of school improvement. I, therefore, employed an interpretive case study design (Yin, 2011) and, thus, provided a systematic way to generate data and analyse data and report results. In addition, it gave a 'thick description', which gave me access to a multiple interpretation of data. However, this research was limited by the small sample used and, therefore, should be generalised with caution.

Retrospectively, when I look back on this research, a question that comes to mind is: What would I do differently if I were to undertake this research again? Three main ideas come to my mind. First, I would add the perspectives of members of the School Safety Committee and school safety officer from the GDE. Secondly, I would include document analysis as a way of generating data. Thirdly, I would choose a parent participant who forms the SGB component. The dual role would give interesting data.

My purpose was to examine how school leaders in multiple deprived areas perceive safety and the strategies they use to enhance safety and orderliness in their schools to improve learner performance. However, school safety strategies in South Africa are stipulated by the central government (see constitution of South Africa of 1996; SASA of 1996; GDE, 2014). In South Africa, the Ministry of Basic Education is concerned with policy formulation. Right now, back on the research procedure, if I somehow happened to do the research once more, I would include the point of view of the individuals from the Department of Basic Education so as to have a more extensive view.

8.7.4 Reflection on findings

Prior to conducting this research, my initial assumption was that the schools were only affected by internal factors, which were limited to the deplorable condition of the premises, lack of adequate facilities and student on-student aggression. I imagined that all these could be solved with effective leadership.

It was gripping to learn that the findings of this study illustrated that school safety and orderliness were not only depressed by internal factors, but also external factors, such as

parental negligence, ills from the community and multiple deprivation that affected the community. In this regard, one of the participants' responses was:

> *...Hmm the community ...is very violent... very cruel...we have children who are stabbed from home fights in the townships we've got a learner that got burnt ... It mainly happens outside school...assault other learners in the school premises... (TB1)*

My other assumption was that school leaders could effectively enhance school safety and orderliness by focusing on factors that affected learners while in school. The findings suggested that no single strategy could enhance safety and orderliness in the schools. The leaders, therefore used a rage of policies to address safety and orderliness in the schools. The strategies ranged from enhancing behavioural safety, physical safety and emotional safety.

8.7.5 Reflection on contribution

I have made two contributions to the debate on school safety, as a basis of school improvement. The first one is in the findings to the research question. This is linked to the development of first-generation safety strategies, which were used by the school leaders to enhance safety and orderliness in schools facing multiple deprivation (see figure 8.1). This is because they did not have enough funds and the autonomy to utilise certain strategies. For the leaders to maintain the learners' entitlement to safety and quality education, there was a need to move to second generation strategies of school safety, the model of which is summarised in figure 8.2. The second-generation model recognised the complexity of school safety and orderliness. It, therefore, calls for context-specific strategies to be utilised under such circumstances.

BIBLIOGRAPHY

Ackroyd, S., & Fleetwood, S. (2008). *Realist perspectives on management and organisation studies*. London and New York: Routledge.

Adams, C. M., Forsyth, P. B., & Mitchell, R. M. (2009). The formation of parent-school trust: A multilevel analysis. *Educational Administration Quarterly*, *45*(1), 4-33.

Adu, E. O., & Ngibe, N. C. (2014). Continuous change in curriculum: South African teachers' perceptions. *Mediterranean Journal of Social Sciences, 5*(23), 983-983.

Agbor, U. I. (2012). Leadership behaviour and the crises of state failure in Nigeria: Towards a transformational leadership attitude for addressing Nigeria's failing state. *Public Policy and Administration Research, 2*(4), 24-38.Gater & Isaacs 2012

Akcan, F. A., Dündar, Y., Akcan, H. B., Uluat, A., Cebeci, D., & Ünlü, İ. (2019). Evaluation of nasal mucociliary clearance time in patients with Vitamin-D deficiency. *European Archives of Oto-Rhino-Laryngology, 276*(4), 1075-1080.

Alexnews (2014, November 14). Bully expelled from school. *Mail & Guardian.* Retrieved 2015, August 14, from https://alexnews.co.za/37095/bully-expelled-from-school/ Mail & Guardian (2014). 'Gauteng Department of Education expelled students over bullying'.

Alkire, S. (2002). *Valuing freedom: Sen's capability approach and poverty reduction*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

American Academy of Paediatrics. (2010). National injury and violence prevention centre. Retrieved from http://www.childerenssafetynetwork.org/ resource.asp.

American Psychological Association. (2013). Specialty guidelines for forensic psychology. *The American Psychologist*, *68*(1), 7.

American Psychological Association. (2015). Guidelines for psychological practice with transgender and gender nonconforming people. *American Psychologist, 70*(9), 832-864.

Anderson, C. A., & Bushman, B. J. (2002). Human aggression. *Annual review of psychology, 53*.

APA, R. W. A. (2015). National information system of water resources, 2006.

Archer, M., Bhaskar, R., Collier, A., Lawson, T. & Norrie, A. (1998). *Critical Realism: essential reading*. London: Routledge.

Arnio, A. N., & Baumer, E. P. (2012). Demography, foreclosure, and crime: Assessing spatial heterogeneity in contemporary models of neighborhood crime rates. *Demographic Research*, *26*, 449-486.

Assembly, U. G. (1948). *Universal Declaration of Human Rights (UDHR), GA Res. 217A (III), UN GAOR, 3d Sess. UN Doc. A/810.* Retrieved November 19, 2015, from http: //www.un.org/Over view/rights.html

Atinmo, T., Mirmiran, P., Oyewole, O. E., Belahsen, R., & Serra-Majem, L. (2009). Breaking the poverty/malnutrition cycle in Africa and the Middle East. *Nutrition Reviews*, *67*(suppl_1), S40-S46.

Avolio, B.J., & Bass, B.M. (2004). *Multifactor leadership questionnaire. Manual and sampler set* (3rd ed.). Redwood City, CA: Mindgarden.

Babbie, E. & Mouton, J. (2001). *The practice of social research*. Cape Town: Oxford University Press.

Babbie, E. (2016). The practice of social research Fourteenth Edition.

Babbie, E., & Rubin, A. (2010). Essential research methods for social work. *Belmont, Ca*.

Baeva, D., Rashkova, V., & Ivanov, I. (2018). Methodological approach to the construction of cultural heritage ontology. In *Proceedings of the eleventh international scientific-practical conference Internet-Education-Science-2018, Vinnytsia, May 25,2018: 244-246.*. ВНТУ.

Banerjee, R., Robinson, C. & Smalley, D. (2012). *Evaluation of the BeatBullying Peer Mentoring Programme*. Brighton: University of Sussex.

Barkley, R. A. (2006). *Attention-Deficit/Hyperactivity Disorder*. Guilford Publications.

Barnes, B. R. (2012). Using mixed methods in South African psychological research. *South African Journal of Psychology*, *42*(4), 463-475.

Baron, R. A., & Richardson, D. R. (2004). *Human aggression*. Springer Science & Business Media.

Barr, R. D., & Parrett, W. H. (Eds.). (2007). *Saving our students, saving our schools: 50 proven strategies for helping underachieving students and improving schools*. Corwin Press.

Barrett, A. E., & Turner, R. J. (2006). Family structure and substance use problems in adolescence and early adulthood: examining explanations for the relationship. *Addiction*, *101*(1), 109-120.

Barth, R. S. (2002). The culture builder. *Educational leadership*, *59*(8), 6-11.

Bass, B.M., & Avolio B.J. (1994). *Improving organizational improvement through transformational leadership*. Thousand Oaks, CA: SAGE Publications, Inc.

Bauman, S., Rigby, K., & Hoppa, K. (2008). US teachers' and school counsellors' strategies for handling school bullying incidents. *Educational Psychology, 28*(7), 837-856.

Beava, A., Bzhenova, D., Bannikov, G.S, Vikhristiuk, O.V. &Gayazova, L.A (2018) Psychological Safety of school environment and adolescents' attitude to life, International Conference on Psychology and Education. Retrieved 2018, November 20, , from https://dx.doi.org/10.15405/eps bs.2018.11.02.9.

Beckmann, J. (2006). Engaging the law and educators in transforming society: A critical chronicle of SAELPA. *South African Law Association 1996*(2), 2003-2005.

Beland, L. & Kim, D. (2015). The effect of high school shootings on school and students performance. *Department of Economics Working Paper Series.* Retrieved 2015, May 4, from http://faculty. bus.Isu. Edu/ workingpaper/pap 15 05

Bergerson, T. (n.d.). *Nine characteristics of high performing schools and districts to access with improving students learning*. Olympia: Office of Superintendent of Public Instruction.

Bergh, A. M., & Soudien, C. (2006). Complex alliances: The institutionalization of comparative education in South Africa in the context of apartheid and the cold war. *European Education, 38*(3), 60-81.

Berkowitz, L. (1993). *Aggression: Its causes, consequences, and control*. Mcgraw-Hill Book Company.

Bhengu, T.T., Naicker, I., & Mthiyane, S.E. (2014). Chronicling the barriers to translating instructional leadership learning into practice. *Journal of Social Science, 40*(2), 203-212.

Biesta, G. (2010). Pragmatism and the philosophical foundations of mixed methods research1. In Tashakkori, A., & Teddlie, C. (Eds.). (2010). *SAGE Handbook Of Mixed Methods In Social & Behavioral Research* (pp. 95-118). Thousand Oaks, CA: SAGE Publications, Inc.

Bilevičienė, T.; Kažemikaitienė, E. (2008). Some social - business factors and public security relationship. *Business and Law*, 2, 10-22.

Black, M. C. (2011). Intimate partner violence and adverse health consequences: implications for clinicians. *American Journal Of Lifestyle Medicine, 5*(5), 428-439.

Blake, J. J., Butler, B. R., Lewis, C. W., & Darensbourg, A. (2011). Unmasking the inequitable discipline experiences of urban Black girls: Implications for urban educational stakeholders. *The Urban Review*, *43*(1), 90-106.

Blanden, J., & Machin, S. (2010). Intergenerational inequality in early years assessments. *Children of the 21st century–the first five years*, 153-168.

Bloch, G. The toxic mix: What's wrong with South Africa's schools and how to fix it. Cape Town; Tafelberg.

Blum, L. (2007) Mother-blame in the prozac nation: raising kids with invisible disabilities, Gender & Society, *21*(2), 202-226.

Blumberg, B. M. (1997). *Old tricks, new dogs: ethology and interactive creatures* (Doctoral dissertation, Massachusetts Institute of Technology).

Bogdan, R. C., & Biklen, S. K. (2003). Data analysis and interpretation. *Qualitative research for education: An introduction to theory and methods*, *4*.

Boissiere, M**.** (2004). Determinants of Primary Education outcomes in Developing Countries. World Bank Operations Evaluation Department. *The World Bank, Washington: DC*. Retrieved November 8, from http://www.worldbank.org.ed.

Bojuwoye, O., & Sylvester, F. (2012). Patterns of gender socialization of adolescent boys in single-mother households: Perspectives from a community in Cape Town, South Africa. *Gender, Technology and Development*, *16*(2), 197-222.

Bosworth, K., Ford, L., & Hernandaz, D. (2011). School climate factors contributing to student and faculty perceptions of safety in select Arizona schools. *Journal of School Health*, 81(4), 194-201.

Bracy, N. L. (2011). Student perceptions of high-security school environments. *Youth & Society*, *43*(1), 365-395.

Bradshaw, C. P., Mitchell, M. M., & Leaf, P. J. (2010). Examining the effects of schoolwide positive behavioral interventions and supports on student outcomes: Results from a randomized controlled effectiveness trial in elementary schools. *Journal of Positive Behavior Interventions*, *12*(3), 133-148.

Bradshaw, C. P., Waasdorp, T. E., & Johnson, S. L. (2015). Overlapping verbal, relational, physical, and electronic forms of bullying in adolescence: Influence of school context. *Journal of Clinical Child & Adolescent Psychology*, *44*(3), 494-508.

Braun, V., & Clarke, V. (2006). Using thematic analysis in psychology. *Qualitative research in psychology*, *3*(2), 77-101.

British Colombia. (2008). Ministry of Education. Safe, Caring and Orderly Schools. A Guide. Retrieved October 06, 2017, from www.bced.gov.bc.ac/sco/

Brophy, J. (2006). History of research on classroom management. *Handbook of classroom management: Research, practice, and contemporary issues*, 17-43.

Brown, B. A., & Duku**,** N. (2008). Negotiated identities: Dynamics in parents' participation in school governance in rural eastern cape schools and implication for school leadership. *South African Journal of Education*, 28(3), 431-450.

Brown, L., Simelane, B. & Malan, G. (July 2016). *Dr. Nelson Mandela high school neighbourhood watch assessment project: an assessment of the Nyanga neighbourhood watch project implemented at Dr. Nelson Mandela high school*. Cape Town: Sub-Programme Policy and Research, Western Cape Department of Community Safety.

Brusie, C. (2017). What are delusions of grandeur? Retrieved February 1, 2019, from https://www.healthline.com/health/mental-health/delusions-of-grandeur#overview

Bryant, L. R. (2011). *The democracy of objects*. Open Humanities Press.

Bryant, R. A. (2011). Acute stress disorder as a predictor of posttraumatic stress disorder: A systematic review. *The Journal of Clinical Psychiatry.* 72, 233-239.

Bryk, A. S., & Schneider, B. (2003). Trust in schools: A core resource for school reform. *Educational leadership*, *60*(6), 40-45.

Bryman, A., & Bell, E. (2015). Business research methods (Vol. 4th). *Glasgow: Bell & Bain Ltd*.

Burke, P. F., Aubusson, P. J., Schuck, S. R., Buchanan, J. D., & Prescott, A. E. (2015). How do early career teachers value different types of support? A scale-adjusted latent class choice model. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, *47*, 241-253.

Burns, R. B. (2000). *Introduction to Research Methods*. London: Sage.

Burton, P. & Leoschut, L. (2013). School violence in South Africa. *Results of the 2012 National School Violence Study, Centre for Justice and Crime Prevention, Monograph series, 12.*

Burton, P. (2006). Easy prey: Results of the national youth victimisation study. *South African Crime Quarterly, 16*, 1-6.

Burton, P. (2007). Someone stole my smile. An exploration of the causes of youth violence in South Africa. *Cape Town: CJCP Monograph Series*, (3).

Burton, P. (2008). Merchants, skollies and stones. Experiences of school violence in South Africa. *Cape Town: Centre for Justice and Crime Prevention (CJCP) Monograph Series*, (4).

Burton, P., Leoschut, L. & Bonora, A. (2009). Walking the tightrope: Youth resilience to crime in South Africa. *Cape Town: Centre for Justice and Crime Prevention*.

Bush, T. & Glover, D. (2009). *Leadership development: Concepts and beliefs*. Nottingham, UK: National College for School Leadership.

Bush, T. (2003). *Theories of educational leadership and management*. Los Angeles, CA: Sage.

Bush, T. (2007). Educational leadership and management: theory, policy, and practice. *South African Journal of Education, 27*(3), 391-406.

Bush, T. (2013). Instructional leadership and leadership for learning: Global and South African perspectives. *Education as Change, 17*(sup1), S5-S20.

Bush, T., & Glover, D. (2003). *School leadership: Concepts and evidence*. Nottingham: National College for School Leadership.

Butts, C. T. (2010). Tools for social network analysis. *R package version, 2*.

Byrnes, R. M. (Ed.). (1996). *South Africa: A country study*. Federal Research Division.

California Department of Education's School Safety and Violence Prevention Office. (n.d.). Safe school plans. Sacramento: Office of the California Attorney General, Crime Prevention Centre.

CALS, AVON Foundation for Women & Ford Foundation. (May 2014). *Sexual violence by educators in South African schools: Gaps in accountability*. Johannesburg: Centre for Applied Legal Studies, Cornell Law School's Avon Global Center for Women and Justice and International Human Rights Clinic. Retrieved 2014, May 17, from https://www.wits.ac.za/ media/ wits-university/faculties-and-schools/commerce-law-and-management/research-entities/cals/documents/programmes/gender/Sexual%20 Vioence%20by%20Educators%20Size%20180270%20NE W.pdf

Campbell, S. B., & von Stauffenberg, C. (2008). Child characteristics and family processes that predict behavioral readiness for school. *Early disparities in school readiness: How families contribute to transitions into school*, 225-258.

Canadian Safe School Task Force 1994. *Safe Schools: Ideas book for Students*. Ontario: Ministry of Education and Training.

Caruth, G. D. (2013). Demystifying mixed methods research design: A review of the literature. *Online Submission, 3*(2), 112-122.

Centre for Justice and Crime Prevention (CJCP). (2016). The national school safety framework. *Cape Town: Centre for Justice and Crime Prevention.* Retrieved, from http://www.cjcp.org.za/ national-school-safety-framework.html

Centre for Justice and Crime Prevention (CJCP). (2017a). Sexual Violence against young girls in schools in South Africa. *Safer Spaces.* Retrieved, *2017, February 5,* from https://www. saferspaces.org.za/be-inspired/entry/sevissa

Centre for Justice and Crime Prevention (CJCP). (2017b). School violence in South Africa. *Cape Town: Centre for Justice and Crime Prevention*. Retrieved, *2018, March 10,* from http://www. cjcp.org.za/school-violence-in-south-africa.html

Centre for Social Development in Africa, University of Johannesburg (2008, September 1,). Johannesburg poverty and livelihood studies. Retrieved 2018, September 14, from https://www.uj.ac.za/faculties/humanities/csda/Documents/Johannesburg%20Poverty%20and%20Livelihood%20Study.pdf

Champion, K. M. (2009). Victimization, anger, and gender: Low anger and passive responses work. *American Journal of Orthopsychiatry*, *79*(1), 71-82.

Chatira, K., & Nikolopoulos, D. (2019). School bullying and post-traumatic stress disorder symptoms: the role of parental bonding. *Frontiers in public health*, *7*, 75.

Chemeli, M., Mwongali, M. & Barmao, C. (2015). Physical infrastructural safeness in public boarding secondary schools in Kenya. *International Journal of Education*, 191-200.

Chikoko, V. Naicker, I. and Mthiyane, S. (2015) School leadership practices that work in areas of multiple deprivation in South Africa, *Educational Management Administration & Leadership* 2015, Vol. 43(3), 452-467.

Chingos, M. M., & Martin, R. W. (2010). *"Do more effective teachers earn more outside of the classroom?"*. working paper.

Chrispeels, J. H. (1992). *Purposeful restructuring: Creating a culture for learning and achievement in elementary schools*. London: Falmer Press.

Christie, P. & Lingard, B. (2001). "Capturing the complexity of educational leadership." Paper presented to the AERA conference.

Christie, P. (1992). From crisis to transformation: Education in post-apartheid South Africa. *Australian Journal of Education*, *36*(1), 38-52.

Christie, P., & Collins, C. (1982). Bantu Education: apartheid ideology or labour reproduction?. *Comparative Education*, *18*(1), 59-75.

Cluver, L., Bowes, L. & Gardner, F. (2010). Risk and protective factors for bullying victimization among AIDS-affected and vulnerable children in South Africa. *Child Abuse & Neglect, 34*(10), 793–803.

Cohen, C., Manion, K. & Morrison, K. (2007). *Research Methods in Education*. London: Routledge.

Cohen, D. K., & Ball, D. L. (1990). Policy and practice: An overview. *Educational evaluation and policy analysis*, *12*(3), 233-239.

Cohen, J. (2006). Social, emotional, ethical, and academic education: Creating a climate for learning, participation in democracy, and well-being. *Harvard educational review*, *76*(2), 201-237.

Cohen, J., McCabe, L., Michelli, N. M., & Pickeral, T. (2009). School climate: Research, policy, practice, and teacher education. *Teachers college record*, *111*(1), 180-213.

Cohen, L., Manion, L. & Morrison K. (2007). *Research methods in education*. London and New York: Routledge.

Cohen, L., Manion, L., & Morrison, K. (2011). Planning educational research. Research methods in education. *New York: Routledge Editors*.

Cohen, L., Manion, L., & Morrison, K. (2011). *Research methods in education* (7th ed.).

Coleman, J. S., Campbell, E., Hobson, C., McPartland, J., Mood, A., & Weinfeld, F. (1966). Equality of educational opportunity study. *Washington, DC: United States Department of Health, Education, and Welfare*.

Conger, R. D., Cui, M., Bryant, C. M., & Elder Jr, G. H. (2000). Competence in early adult romantic relationships: A developmental perspective on family influences. *Journal of personality and social psychology*, *79*(2), 224.

Cornell, D. G., & Mayer, M. J. (2010). Why do school order and safety matter?. *Educational Researcher*, *39*(1), 7-15.

Cotton, K. (2003). *Principals and students' achievement: What the research says*. Alexandria, VA: Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development.

Cotugna, N., & Forbes, S. (2008). A backpack program provides help for weekend child hunger. *Journal of Hunger & Environmental Nutrition*, *2*(4), 39-45.

Crafford, M. J., & Viljoen, M. (2013). Stressors and stress symptoms of Life Science educators in schools in Tshwane North. *South African Journal of Science*, *109*(9-10), 01-08.

Craig, W., Pepler, D., & Blais, J. (2007). Responding to bullying: What works?. *Canada School Psychology International*, *28*(4), 465-477.

Creemers, B. P., & Reezigt, G. J. (1996). School level conditions affecting the effectiveness of instruction. *School effectiveness and school Improvement*, *7*(3), 197-228.

Creemers, B. P., & Reezigt, G. J. (2005). Linking school effectiveness and school improvement: The background and outline of the project. *School effectiveness and school improvement*, *16*(4), 359-371.

Creswell, J.W. (2009). *Research design: Qualitative, quantitative, and mixed methods*. Sage publications.

Cross, C. T., & Rice, R. C. (2000). The role of the principal as instructional leader in a standards-driven system. *NASSP bulletin*, *84*(620), 61-65.

Croswell, J.W. (2008). *Research design: Qualitative, quantitative and mixed method approaches*. Thousand Oaks: Sage publications.

Cumberland County Schools (2015-2016). *Student code of conduct*. Retrieved September 10, 2016, from http://tshs.ccs.k12.nc .us/files/2015/08/2015-2016-Student-Code-of-Conduct-1.pdf

Dake, J. A., Price, J. H., & Telljohann, S. K. (2003). The nature and extent of bullying at school. *Journal of school health*, *73*(5), 173-180.

Daniel McLaren (2015). *Funding Basic Education,* Basic Education Rights Handbook – Education Rights in South Africa. Retrieved July 13, 2016, from http://section27.org.za/wp-content/ uploads/2017/02 /Ch apter-2.pdf

Darling-Kuria, N. (2012). What do we mean by reading readiness?. *Young Children*.

Dass, S., & Rinquest, A. (2017). Amended national norms and standards for school funding. Government notice no. 869. Government Gazette no. 29179 of 31 August 2006. Pretoria: Government Printer.

Davel, C. J. (Ed.). (2000). *Introduction to child law in South Africa*. Juta.

Dawes, A., Long, W., Alexander, L., & Ward, C. L. (2004). Partner violence, attitudes to child discipline and the use of corporal punishment. *Cape Town, South Africa: Human Sciences Research Council*.

De Luigi, N., & Martelli, A. (2015). Attitudes and practices of parents: Disadvantage and access to education. *European Education*, *47*(1), 46-60.

De Luigi, N., & Martelli, A. (2015). Attitudes and practices of parents: Disadvantage and access to education. *European Education*, *47*(1), 46-60.

De Mattos, M. (2009). Violence in schools: Issues of culture and human formation. A paper presented at the congress of LASA. Retrieved May 19, 2017 , from http://www.pdfio.com/k1240279.html

De Moor, M. H., Boomsma, D. I., Stubbe, J. H., Willemsen, G., & de Geus, E. J. (2008). Testing causality in the association between regular exercise and symptoms of anxiety and depression. *Archives of general psychiatry*, *65*(8), 897-905.

De Wet, C. (2005). The nature and extent of bullying in Free State secondary schools. *South African Journal of Education*, *25*(2), 82-88.

De Wet, C., & Jacobs, L. (2009). An exploratory study on learner misbehaviour in Lesotho. *Journal for Educafional Studies*, *8*(2), 52-73.

De Wet, N. C., & Jacobs, L. (2009). A comparison between boys' and girls' experience of peer sexual harassment. *Journal for Christian Scholarship*, 45(3), 55-75

DECD (2012). *Policy on learner attendance.* Pretoria: Department of Education.

Denzin, N. K., & Lincoln, Y. S. (Eds.). (2011). *The Sage handbook of qualitative research*. sage.

Department of Basic Education (DBE) (2006, November). Regulations for safety measures at public schools, regulation 1128 of 2006. Retrieved 2016, November 10, from https://www.education. gov.za/Resources/Legislation/Regulations.aspx

Department of Basic Education (DBE). (2016). Safety in schools. *Pretoria: Department of Basic Education.* Retrieved October 11, 2016, from http://www.education.gov.za/ Programmes/ Safety inSchools/tabid/625/Default.aspx

Department of Basic Education (DBE). (2018). Department to launch STOP, WALK, TALK Anti-Bullying Campaign. Retrieved 2018, April 18, from https://www.education.gov.za/Archived Documents/ArchivedArticles/Anti-bullying Campaign.aspx

Department of Basic Education (DBE). (4 August 2015). "School Safety / Violence & Bullying in Schools; Quality Learning and Teaching Campaign (QLTC) Implementation: progress report," presented at the Presentation to the Portfolio Committee on Basic Education: School Safety Violence and Bullying.

Department of Basic Education, Republic of South Africa and South African Police Service (DBE, RSA, & SAPS). (2011). *Safety in Education: Partnership Protocol between the DBE and SAPS*. Department of Education (1996) *Language in Education Policy*. Pretoria: Government Printer.

Department of Education (2003c). *Life orientation common task for assessment grade 9*. Pretoria: Department of Education.

Department of Education (2006). Regulations relating to safety measures at independent schools. Retrieved 2016, July 13, from https://www.gov.za/sites /default/ files/gcis document/01409/26663b.pdf

Department of Education (2012). Curriculum and assessment policy statement Grades 10-12, Life Orientation. Retrieved 2013, May 14, form https://www.education. gov.za/bPortals/ 0/CD/National%20Curriculum%20Statements%20and%20Vocational/CAPS%20FET %20%20LIFE%20ORIE NTATION%20_%20GR%2010-12%20%20WE BE6B3.pdf?ver=2015-01-27-154251-017

Department of Education (2013). Department of basic education African language policy. Retrieved February 13, 2015, from https://www.gov.za/department-basic-education-african-language-policy-pilot-continues

Department of Education (DBE), (2013). Safety in Schools. Retrieved 2016, January 12, from http:// www.education.gov.za /Programmes/ SafetyinSchools.aspx

Department of Education (DBE). (2000). *Alternatives to Corporal Punishment: The learning experience*. Pretoria: Department of Education.

Department of Education (DBE). (1996, April 24). National Education Policy, Act 27 of 1996. Retrieved 2017, April 1, from https://www.education.gov.za/ LinkClick.aspx? fileticket =l73 mPb_ja4c%3D&tabid=419&portalid=0&mid=4023

Department of Education (DoE) (2007). *National Policy on the conduct, administration and management of the assessment of the national certificate (vocational). Retrieved 2016, October 10, from* http://education.gov.za

Department of Education, Republic of South Africa (2007, September). National assessment report (public ordinary schools): National Education Infrastructure Management System (NEIMS). Retrieved 2017, September 07, from http://www.education.gov.za

Department of Education. (2003a). *National policy on religion and education*. Pretoria: Department of Education.

Department of Education. (2003b). *National curriculum statement grades 10–12: Life Orientation*. Pretoria: Department of Education.

Department of international relations and corporations (2001).United Nation Children's Fund. Retrieved 2017, September 2, from https://www.unicef.org/sowc/archive/ENGLISH/ The%20 State%20of%20the% 20World % 27s%20Children%202001.pdf

Department of Planning, Monitoring and Evaluation (November 3, 2017). Report on the evaluation of the National School Nutrition Programme [NSNP], 2008. Retrieved November 3, 2017 from https://evaluations.dpme.gov.za/evaluations/234

DeWall, C. N., Anderson, C. A., & Bushman, B. J. (2012). Aggression. Chapter in Weiner, I. (Ed.), Handbook of Psychology, Volume 5, 449-466.

Diamond, J. B. (2013). Distributed leadership: Examining issues of race, power, and inequality. In *Handbook of research on educational leadership for equity and diversity* (pp. 101-122). Routledge.

Dinkes, R., Cataldi, E. F., & Lin-Kelly, W. (2007). Indicators of school crime and safety: 2007. NCES 2008-021/NCJ 219553. *National Center for Education Statistics*.

Dlamini, P. (2019, February 03). *Fourth pupil dies after Hoërskool Driehoek walkway collapse*. *Sowetan live.* Retrieved 2019, February 09, from https://www.sowetanlive.co.za/news/ south-africa/2019-02-03-fourth-pupil-dies-after-horskool-driehoek-walkway-collapse/

Draper, B., Pfaff, J. J., Pirkis, J., Snowdon, J., Lautenschlager, N. T., Wilson, I., Almeida, O.P. & Depression and Early Prevention of Suicide in General Practice Study Group. (2008). Long-term effects of childhood abuse on the quality of life and health of older people: Results from the Depression and Early Prevention of Suicide in General Practice Project. *Journal of the American Geriatrics Society*, *56*(2), 262-271.

Draper, C. E., Achmat, M., Forbes, J., & Lambert, E. V. (2012). Impact of a community-based programme for motor development on gross motor skills and cognitive function in preschool children from disadvantaged settings. *Early child development and care*, *182*(1), 137-152.

du Plessis, P. (2013). The principal as instructional leader: Guiding schools to improve instruction. *Education as Change*, *17*(sup1), S79-S92.

Dugard, J. (2005). Diplomatic protection and human rights: the draft articles of the International Law Commission. *The Australian Year Book of International Law Online*, *24*(1), 75-91.

Duke, D.L. (2004). *School Leadership and Instructional Improvement*. New York: Random House.

Dunaway, R. G., Cullen, F. T., Burton Jr, V. S., & Evans, T. D. (2000). The myth of social class and crime revisited: An examination of class and adult criminality. *Criminology*, *38*(2), 589-632.

Duncan, J. (2006). *Gender Violence in Schools in Combating Violence in and Around Schools:* London: Trentham Books.

Dunne, M., Humphreys, S., & Leach, F. (2006). Gender violence in schools in the developing world. *Gender and Education*, *18*(1), 75-98.

Durlak, J. A., Weissberg, R. P., & Pachan, M. (2010). A meta-analysis of after-school programs that seek to promote personal and social skills in children and adolescents. *American journal of community psychology*, *45*(3-4), 294-309.

Duze, C.O. (2012). The changing role of school leadership and teacher capacity building in teaching and learning. *Journal of Emerging Trends in Educational Research and Policy Studies*, 3(1), 111-117.

Dyment, J. E., & Bell, A. C. (2008). Grounds for movement: green school grounds as sites for promoting physical activity. *Health Education Research*, *23*(6), 952-962.

Dyson, M. (2007). My story in a profession of stories: Auto ethnography-an empowering methodology for educators. *Australian Journal of Teacher Education*, *32*(1), 3.

Ecker, M. E. (2012). The BackPack Food Program's Effects on Self-Reported Hunger and On-Task Behavior.

Edmonds, R. (1979). Effective schools for the urban poor. *Educational leadership*, *37*(1), 15-24.

Education Labour Relations Council (South Africa). (2003). *Policy handbook for educators*. Education Labour Relations Council.

Effects of Abuse on Children. (2010). Retrieved March 20, 2016, from_http://marripedia. org/effects_of_abuse_on_children#fn__3

Elbert, T., Schauer, M., Schauer, E., Huschka, B., Hirth, M., & Neuner, F. (2009). Trauma-related impairment in children—A survey in Sri Lankan provinces affected by armed conflict. *Child abuse & neglect*, *33*(4), 238-246.

Ellen, M. E., Léon, G., Bouchard, G., Lavis, J. N., Ouimet, M., & Grimshaw, J. M. (2013). What supports do health system organizations have in place to facilitate evidence-informed decision-making? A qualitative study. *Implementation Science*, *8*(1), 84.

Elmore, R. F. (2004). *School reform from the inside out: Policy, practice, and performance*. Cambridge, MA: Harvard Education Press.

Elmore, R. F. (2008). Leadership as the practice of improvement. In B. Pont, D. Nusche, & D. Hopkins, (Ed.), *Improving school leadership*. *Volume 2: Case studies on system leadership* (pages 21–25), 2nd ed. Paris: Organisation for Economic Co-operartion and Development.

Eloff, I., & Ebersohn, L. (2001). The implications of an asset-based approach to early intervention. *Perspectives in education*, *19*(3), 147-157.

Emerson, P. M., & Souza, A. P. (2008). Birth order, child labor, and school attendance in Brazil. *World Development*, *36*(9), 1647-1664.

Epstein, J.L. (2009). *School, family, and community partnerships: Your handbook for action,* (3rd ed.). Thousand Oaks, California : Corwin Press.

Equal Education. (2016). Of 'Loose Papers and Vague Allegations': A Social Audit Report on the Safety and Sanitation Crisis in Western Cape Schools. Retrieved month date, year, from https://equaleducation.org.za/wp-content/uploads/2016/09/Western-Cape-Schools -Safety-and-Sanitation-Social-Audit-Report.pdf

Ernest, P. (1994). *An introduction to research methodology and paradigms*. RSU, School of Education, University of Exeter.

Escarce, J. J. (2003). Socioeconomic status and the fates of adolescents. *Health services research*, *38*(5), 1229.

Esere, M. O. (2008). Effect of Sex Education Programme on at-risk sexual behaviour of school-going adolescents in Ilorin, Nigeria. *African Health Sciences*, *8*(2).

Espelage, D. L., Polanin, J. R., & Low, S. K. (2014). Teacher and staff perceptions of school environment as predictors of student aggression, victimization, and willingness to intervene in bullying situations. *School psychology quarterly*, *29*(3), 287.

European Agency for Safety and Health at Work. (2013). *Occupational safety and health and education: a whole school approach*. Luxembourg: Publications Office of the European Union.

Evan, S. (2007). Coercive control: How men entrap women in personal life. *New York*.

Everton, C. & Weinstein, C. (2006), Handbook of classroom management. Research practice and contemporary issues. Mahwah, NJ: Erbaum. Evidence in literature. *International Review of Management and Business Research.* 2 (2), 355-361.

Fadaei-Tehrani, R.; Green, T. M. (2002). Crime and society. *International Journal of Social Economics*, 29, 781–795.

Fajnzylber, P., Lederman, D., & Loayza, N. (2002). What causes violent crime?. *European economic review*, *46*(7), 1323-1357.

Farrington, D. P., & Ttofi, M. M. (2009). School-based programs to reduce bullying and victimization. *Campbell Systematic Reviews*, *5*(1), i-148.

Ferdousor, R. K. (2008). Unbundling Human Rights, First Edition, Published by Academic Press & Publisher Library, Prantik, Dhanmondi, Dhaka,1209.

Ferrara, P., Franceschini, G., Namazova-Baranova, L., Vural, M., Mestrovic, J., Nigri, L., ... & Pettoello-Mantovani, M. (2019). Lifelong negative influence of school violence on children. *The Journal of pediatrics*, *215*, 287-288.

Fidel, R. (1993). Qualitative methods in information retrieval research. *Library and Information Science Research*, *15*, 219-219.

Fielding, M., & Moss, P. (2011). *Radical education and the common school: A democratic alternative*. Routledge.

Fisher, K**.** (2001). Building better outcomes: The impact of school infrastructure on student outcomes and behaviour. *Schooling Issues Digest*, Canberra: Australia. Retrieved 2018, August 12, from http://www.dest.gov.au/sectors/school /publications _resources/schooling_issues_digest

Fitzgerald, R. (2010). Parenting, school contexts and violent delinquency. *Statistics Canada*. Ottawa, ON: Ministry of Industry. Retrieved 2016, June 12, from http://www. statcan.gc.ca/pub/85-561-m/85-561-m2010019-eng.pdf

Flisher, A.J., Ward, C.L., Liang, H., Onya, H., Mlisa, N., Terblanche, S., Bhana, A., Parry, C.D. & Lombard, C.J. (2006). Injury-related behaviour among South African high-school students at six sites. *South African Medical Journal*, *96*(9), 825–830.

Fontes, L. A. (2005). *Child abuse and culture: Working with diverse families*. Guilford Press.

Foster, J. B. (2000). *Marx's ecology: Materialism and nature*. NYU Press.

Fougère, D., Kramarz, F., & Pouget, J. (2009). Youth unemployment and crime in France. *Journal of the European Economic Association*, *7*(5), 909-938.

F. J. (2002). *Survey research methods*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage

Foy, R., Hempel, S., Rubenstein, L., Suttorp, M., Seelig, M., Shanman, R., & Shekelle, P. G. (2010). Meta-analysis: effect of interactive communication between collaborating primary care physicians and specialists. *Annals of Internal Medicine*, *152*(4), 247-258.

Fraenkel, J. R., & Wallen, N. E. (2006). *How to design and evaluate research in education (6th ed.).* New York, NY McGraw-Hill.

Franklin, S., & McLaren, D. (2015). *Realising the right to a basic education in South Africa: An analysis of the content, policy effort, resource allocation and enjoyment of the constitutional right to a basic education*. SPII Studies in Poverty and Inequality Institute.

Fraser, D. (2007). Proactive prevention: A multi-pronged approach is most effective when addressing school safety. *American School and University*. Retrieved 2017, February 1, from http://asumag.com/security/proactive-prevention.

Fraser, N. (1999). Social justice in the age of identity politics: Redistribution, recognition, and participation. *Culture and economy after the cultural turn*, 25-52.

Fraser, N. (2003). Rethinking recognition: overcoming displacement and reification in cultural politics. *Recognition struggles and social movements: Contested identities, agency and power*, 21-32.

Fraser, N. (2010). Marketization, social protection, emancipation: toward a neo-Polanyian conception of capitalist crisis.

Fritz, G.K. (2006). *Creating a Safe, Caring Environment and Respectful Environment*. Brown University: Wiley Company.

Gailliot, M. T. (2013). Hunger and reduced self-control in the laboratory and across the world: Reducing hunger as a self-control panacea. *Psychology*, *4*(01), 59.

Gall, M.D., Gall, J.P. & Borg, W.R. (2003). *Research Educational: An Introduction*. Boston: Longman Publishers.

Garner, P. (2009). *Special Educational Needs the Key Concepts*. Oxon: Routledge.

Gastic, B. (2006, April). At what price? Safe school policies and their unintentional consequences for at-risk students. In *annual meeting of the American Educational Research Association, San Francisco*.

Gastic, B. (2011). Metal detectors and feeling safe at school. *Education and Urban Society*, *43*(4), 486-498.

Gauteng Department Education, (1997). Assessment policy statements (CAPS). Curriculum and assessment policy statements. Retrieved 2017, July1 from https://www. education.gov.za/Curriculum/Curriculum AssessmentPolicystatements (CAPS).aspx

Gauteng Department of Education (GDE). (1997). Regulations and rules: Governing bodies of public schools. *General Notice* 786 of 1997. Pretoria: Government Printer.

Gauteng Provincial Government (2017). Estimate of provincial revenue and expenditure. Retrieved 2017, April 15, from http://www.treasury.gov.za/documents/provincial% 20budget/2017/4.%20Estimates%20of%20Prov%20Rev% 20and%20Exp/ GT/GT% 20 -%20EPRE%20-%20Full %20Document.pdf

Gelo, O., Braakmann, D., & Benetka, G. (2008). Quantitative and qualitative research: Beyond the debate. *Integrative psychological and behavioral science*, *42*(3), 266-290.

Gershoff, E. T. (2008). Report on physical punishment in the United States: What research tells us about its effects on children. *Columbus OH: Center for Effective Discipline.*

Gershoff, E. T. (2008). Report on physical punishment in the United States: What research tells us about its effects on children.

Gershoff, E. T. (2017). School corporal punishment in global perspective: prevalence, outcomes, and efforts at intervention. *Psychology, health & medicine*, *22*(sup1), 224-239.

Gevers, A. & Flisher, A.J. (2012). School-based violence prevention interventions. In *C. Ward, A. van der Merwe, & A. Dawes (Eds.), Youth violence: Sources and solutions in South Africa*. Cape Town, South Africa: UCT Press, 175–212.

Gibson, J. L., Ivancevich, J. M., & Donelly Jr, J. H. (1985). *Organizations*. Plano TX: Business Publication. Hersey, P., & Blanchard, K. H. (1988). Situational leadership: A summary. *San Diego, CA: University Associates*.

Givens, J. & Swearer, S. M. (2010). School violence. In C. S. Claus-Ehlers (Ed.), *Encyclopedia of Cross-Cultural School Psychology*. Springer Science & Business Media, 852-854.

Gjelten, 2017 Gjelten, Tom. "With his choice of inauguration prayer leaders, Trump shows his values." *NPR, January* 13 (2017).

Gladstone, M. J., Lancaster, G. A., Jones, A. P., Maleta, K., Mtitimila, E., Ashorn, P., & Smyth, R. L. (2008). Can Western developmental screening tools be modified for use in a rural Malawian setting?. *Archives of Disease in Childhood*, *93*(1), 23-29.

Goldberg, L., Elliot, D. L., MacKinnon, D. P., Moe, E. L., Kuehl, K. S., Yoon, M., ... & Williams, J. (2007). Outcomes of a prospective trial of student-athlete drug testing: the Student Athlete Testing Using Random Notification (SATURN) study. *Journal of Adolescent Health*, *41*(5), 421-429

Gorman, G. E. Clayton. P.(2005). *Qualitative research for the information professional: A practical handbook*. Facet Publishing.

Government of the Republic of South Africa. (15 August 2012). Chapter 12: Building Safer Communities in *National Development Plan 2030: Our future – make it work.* Retrieved August 15, 2014, from https://www.gov.za /sites/default/files/ NDP-2030-Our-future-make-it-work_r.pdf

Graven, M. H. (2014). Poverty, inequality and mathematics performance: The case of South Africa's post-apartheid context. *ZDM–International Journal on Mathematics Education*, 46(7), 1039-1049.

Gray, C. G. (2009). Principle of least action. *Scholarpedia*, *4*(12), 8291.

Gray, D.E. (2009). *Doing research in the real world* (3rded.). Los Angeles: Sage.

Gray, J. (2000). *Causing concern but improving: A review of schools' experience*. London: Department of Education and Skills.

Gregory, A., & Ripski, M. B. (2008). Adolescent trust in teachers: Implications for behavior in the high school classroom. *School Psychology Review*, *37*(3), 337-353.

Gregory, A., Cornell, D., & Fan, X. (2010). The relationship of school structure and support to suspension rates for Black and White high school students. *American Educational Research Journal*, *48*(4), 904-934.

Gregory, A., Cornell, D., Fan, X., Sheras, P., Shih, T. H., & Huang, F. (2010). Authoritative school discipline: High school practices associated with lower bullying and victimization. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, *102*(2), 483.

Grenda, J.P., & Hackmann, D.G. (2014). Advantages and challenges of distributing leadership in middle-level schools. *NASSP Bulletin, 98(1) 53-74.*

Grinspun, A. (2016). No small change: The multiple impacts of the Child Support Grant on child and adolescent well-being. *Child Gauge*, 44.

Grix, J. (2004). *The Foundation of Research.* Palgrave Macmillan.

Grobler, R, (2019). Violence in SA's schools is worse than you think, and spanking is part of the problem, News 24. Retrieved June 13, 2019, from https://www.news24.com/ South Africa/News/violence-insas-schools-is-worse-than-you-think-and-spanking-is-part-of-the-problem-20190607

Guba, E. G., & Lincoln, Y. S. (1994). Competing paradigms in qualitative research. *Handbook of qualitative research*, *2*(163-194), 105.

Guba, E. G., & Lincoln, Y. S. (2005). Paradigmatic controversies, contradictions, and emerging confluences. In N. K. Denzin & Y. S. Lincoln (Eds.), *The Sage Handbook Of Qualitative Research* (p. 191–215). Sage Publications Ltd.

Gümuseli, A., Hacıfazlıoğlu, O. & Çakmak, E. (2014). Student teachers' perceptions on bullying in schools. *Journal in Anthropology*, 941–948.

Gutman, L. M., & Midgley, C. (2000). The role of protective factors in supporting the academic achievement of poor African American students during the middle school transition. *Journal of youth and adolescence*, *29*(2), 223-249.

Haberman, M. (2004). *Teacher burnout in black and white.* Milwaukee, WI: Haberman Educational Foundation.

Hair, E., Halle, T., Terry-Humen, E., Lavelle, B., & Calkins, J. (2006). Children's school readiness in the ECLS-K: Predictions to academic, health, and social outcomes in first grade. *Early Childhood Research Quarterly*, *21*(4), 431-454.

Hall, K., & Giese, S**.** (2008). Addressing quality through school fees and school funding. In S. Pendlebury, L. Lake, & C. Smith (Eds.), *South African child gauge 2008/2009* (pp. 35-40). Cape Town: Children's Institute, UCT.

Hallinger, P. & Murphy, J. (1985). Assessing the instructional leadership behaviour of principals. *Elementary School Journal,* 86(2), 217–248.

Hallinger, P., & Heck, R.H. (2009). Distributed leadership in schools: Does system policy make a difference? In Harris, A. (Ed.), *Distributed leadership. Different perspectives* (p.101-117). Amsterdam: Springer.

Hallinger, P., & Lee, M. (2013). Mapping instructional leadership in Thailand: Has education reform impacted principal practice?. *Educational Management Administration & Leadership*, *42*(1), 6-29.

Hallinger, P., Bickman, L., & Davis, K. (1996). School context, principal leadership, and student reading achievement. *The Elementary School Journal*, *96*(5), 527-549.

Halpern, R. (1990). Poverty and early childhood parenting: Toward a framework for intervention. *American Journal of Orthopsychiatry*, *60*(1), 6-18.

Hamber, B. (1999). Have no doubt it is fear in the land: An exploration of the continuing cycles of violence in South Africa. *Zeitschrift für Politische Psychologie*, *7*(1-2), 13-128.

Hankin, A., Hertz, M., & Simon, T. (2011). Impacts of metal detector use in schools: Insights from 15 years of research. *Journal of School Health*, *81*(2), 100-106.

Hankin, B. L., Nederhof, E., Oppenheimer, C. W., Jenness, J., Young, J. F., Abela, J. R. Z., ... & Oldehinkel, A. J. (2011). Differential susceptibility in youth: evidence that 5-HTTLPR x positive parenting is associated with positive affect 'for better and worse'. *Translational psychiatry*, *1*(10), e44-e44.

Hanover Research, (2013). School fencing: Benefits and disadvantages. Retrieved June 7, 2015, from http://www.hanover research.com/ evaluation/index.php

Harber, C. (2001). State of transition: Post-apartheid educational reform in South Africa. Symposium Books Ltd.

Harris, A. (2004). Distributed leadership: Leading or misleading. *Educational Management and Administration*, 32(1), 11–24.

Harris, A. (2007). Distributed leadership: Conceptual confusion and empirical reticence. *International Journal of Leadership in Education*, 10(3), 1–11.

Hartel, J., & Thomson, L. (2011). Visual approaches and photography for the study of immediate information space. *Journal of the American Society for Information Science and Technology*, *62*(11), 2214-2224

Hastings, R. & Bham, M. (2003). The relationship between student behaviour patterns and teacher burnout. *School Psychology International*, 24(1), 115-127.

Hattie, J. A. C. (2009). *Visible learning: A synthesis of 800 meta-analyses relating to achievement*. Oxford, England: Routledge.

Heck, R. H., & Hallinger, P. (2004). The study of educational leadership and management: Where does the field stand today?. *Educational Management Administration & Leadership*, *33*(2), 229-244.

Hemphill, J. K., and Coons, A. E. (1957) Development of the leader behavior description questionnaire. In Stodgill, R. M. and Coons, A. E. (Eds.) *Leader Behavior: Its Description and Measurement*. Columbus, Ohio: Bureau of Business Research, Ohio State University, 6-38.

Henderson, A. T. and Mapp, K. L. (2002). *A new wave of evidence: The impact of school, family, and community connections on student achievement.* National Center for Family and Community Connections with Schools, Southwest Educational Development Laboratory.

Henderson, R. (2006). The innovator's dilemma as a problem of organizational competence. *Journal of Product Innovation Management*, *23*(1), 5-11.

Hermann, C. (2016). The public sector and equality. *Global Social Policy*, *16*(1), 4-21.

Heron, J. (1996). *Co-operative inquiry: Research into the human condition*. Sage.

Heugh, K. (2002). *Revisiting bilingual education in and for South Africa*. PRAESA.

Heugh, K. (2014). Multilingualism, the 'African lingua franca' and the 'new linguistic dispensation' [internet]. In H. McIlwraith (Ed.), *Language rich Africa: Policy*

dialogue. The Cape Town language and development conference: Looking beyond (pp. 80–87).

Hoachlander, G., Alt, M., & Beltranena, R. (2001). Leading school improvement: What research says. A review of the literature. *Retrieved March 14, 2015, from www. sreb. org*.

Hollander, E. P. (1978). *Leadership dynamics: A practical guide to effective relationships*. New York: Free Press.

Honneth, A. (1995) *The Struggle for recognition: The moral grammar of social conflicts*, trans. Joel Anderson. Cambridge, MA: MIT Press

Horvat, E. M., Weininger, E. B., & Lareau, A. (2003). From social ties to social capital: Class differences in the relations between schools and parent networks. *American Educational Research Journal*, *40*(2), 319-351.

Hoy, W. K., & Miskel, G. C. (2013). *Educational Administration, Theory, Research and Practice*. (Translation editor: Selahattin Turan) Ankara, Nobel Yayınları 7. Edition.

Human Sciences Research Council (HSRC). (15 June 2017). Schools are so violent teachers live in fear. Retrieved 15 June 2017, from http://www.hsrc.ac.za/en/hsrc-in-the-news/education-and-skills-development/violence-in-schools

Hungi, N., Makuwa, D., Ross, K., Saito, M., Dolata, S., van Cappelle, F., et al. (2010). SACMEQ III Project Results: Achievement levels in reading and mathematics: Working Document Number 1. Retrieved April 2, 2015, from http://www. sacmeq. org/downloads/sacmeqIII/WD 01_ SAC MEQ_III_Results_Pupil_Achievement.pdf)

Hyslop, J. (1976). *An archaeological investigation of the Lupaca Kingdom and its origins* (Vol. 1). Columbia University.

Inter-agency Network for Education in Emergencies (INEE) (2011). Education for Peacebuilding. Retrieved June 8, 2011, from https://inee.org/

Iyer, L., & Topalova, P. B. (2014). Poverty and crime: evidence from rainfall and trade shocks in India. *Harvard Business School BGIE Unit Working Paper*, (14-067).

Jacobs, M., Vakalisa, N. C. G., & Gawe, N. (Eds.). (2011). *Teaching-learning dynamics*. Pearson Education South Africa.

James, N., & McCallion, G. (2013). School resource officers: Law enforcement officers in schools.

Jansen, J. D. (2009). *Knowledge in the blood: Confronting race and the apartheid past*. Stanford University Press.

Jansen, J.D. (1997) 'Essential alterations?' A critical analysis of the states syllabus revision process, Perspectives in Education, 17(2), 1-11.

Jansen, J.D. (2007). *The Research Question: First Steps in Research.* Pretoria: Van Schaik Publishers.

Jessie Böhr. (23 July 2018a). Ulutsha Street Festival 2018: Stop Violence against Children and Women!. *SaferSpaces*. Retrieved 23 July, 2018, from https://www.safer spaces.org.za/blog / entry/ulutsha-street-festival-2018-stop-violence-against-childr en -and-women

Jessop, B. (1974). Book review: Rebel leadership: Commitment and charisma in the revolutionary process, Introduction to social movements. *Sociology*, *8*(3), 515-517.

Jimerson, S. R., Haddock, A., & Brown, J. A. (2012). Beyond grade retention and social promotion: Toward supporting students with learning and behavioral disabilities. *Classroom Behavior, Contexts, and Interventions*, *25*, 167-190.

Johnson, R.B. & Onwuegbuzie, A.J. (2004). Mixed method research: A research paradigm whose time has come. *Educational Research*, 33(7), 14–26.

Johnson, R.B. & Onwuegbuzie, A.J. (2007) Towards a definition of mixed methods research. *Journal of Mixed Methods*, 1(2), 112–133.

Johnson, V., & Pandina, R. J. (2000). Alcohol problems among a community sample: Longitudinal influences of stress, coping, and gender. *Substance use & misuse*, *35*(5), 669-686.

Joong, P., & Ridler, O. (2006). Teachers' and students' perceptions of school violence and prevention. *Brock Education: A Journal of Educational Research and Practice*, *15*(2).

Joppe, M. (2000). The research process. Retrieved August 17, 2016, from http://www.ryerson .ca/-mjoppe/rp.htm.

Joubert, H. J., & Prinsloo, I. J. (2001). *Education law: a practical guide for educators*. Van Schaik.

Joyner, E. T., Ben-Avie, M., & Comer, J. P. (2004). *Transforming school leadership and management to support student learning and development: The field guide to Comer schools in action*. Corwin Press.

Kallaway, P. (1991). *Education and nation-building in South Africa in the 1990s: Reforming history education for the post-apartheid era*. Centre for African Studies, University of Cape Town.

Kallaway, P. (Ed.). (1984). *Apartheid and education: The education of black South Africans*. Ravan Pressof South Africa.

Kallman, K. (2005). Food for thought: a review of the National School Nutrition Programme. *Cape Town: University of Cape Town*. Retrieved, from www.ci.org.za/depts/ci/pubs/pdf/ poverty/facts/Foodforthought .pdf

Kant, I. (2000). *Critique of the Power of Judgment*. Cambridge University Press.

Kataoka, S., Langley, A. K., Wong, M., Baweja, S., & Stein, B. D. (2012). Responding to students with posttraumatic stress disorder in schools. *Child and Adolescent Psychiatric Clinics*, *21*(1), 119-133.

Katz, D., & Kahn, R. L. (1978). *The social psychology of organizations* (Vol. 2, p. 528). New York: Wiley.

Kaufman, C. E., & Stavrou, S. E. (2004). 'Bus fare please': The economics of sex and gifts among young people in urban South Africa. *Culture, health & sexuality*, *6*(5), 377-391.Killen & de Waal, 2000

Kaya, A. & Göçen, A. (2013). Instructional leadership levels of school principals under of constructivist primary-program-quantitative results. *Middle-East Journal of Scientific Research*, 17(1), 58-63.

Kennedy, M. (2004). Providing safe schools. *American School & University, 76*(5), 61-64.

Khomola, P. L. (2012). *Challenges facing secondary school managers in dealing with school safety and security* (Doctoral dissertation, University of Johannesburg).

Killen, M., Smetana, J. G., & Smetana, J. (2006). Thought, emotions, and social interactional processes in moral development. In *Handbook of moral development* (pp. 25-54). Psychology Press.

Kimunyu, H. (August 4th, 2015). *Here is the list of worst school fires in Kenya, Nairobi News.* Retrieved August 4th, 2015, from https://nairobinews.nation.co.ke/news/worst-school-fires-in-kenya

King, D. (2002). The changing shape of leadership. *Educational Leadership*, 59(8), 61–63.

King, W. R. (2009). Knowledge management and organizational learning. In *Knowledge management and organizational learning* (pp. 3-13). Springer, Boston, MA.

King-Hill, S., & Barrie, R. (2015). Perceptions of consent in adolescents who display harmful sexual behaviour. *British Journal of School Nursing*, *10*(5), 231-235.

Kirk, J.K. & Jones, T.L. (2004). *Effective Schools: Assessment* Report. San Antonia: Pearson Education.

Kitchen, J., & Bellini, C. (2013). Making schools safe and inclusive: Gay-straight alliances and school climate in Ontario. *Canadian Journal of Educational Administration and Policy*, (146).

Klaasen, E. (1990). The impact of violence on children. *The influence of violence on children.* Cape Town: Centre for Intergroup Studies.

Kompridis, N. (2007). Struggling over the meaning of recognition: A matter of identity, justice, or freedom?. *European Journal of Political Theory*, *6*(3), 277-289.

Korpershoek, H., Harms, T., de Boer, H., van Kuijk, M., & Doolaard, S. (2014). Effective classroom management strategies and classroom management programs for educational practice. *Journal of Educations*.

Krahé, B. (2013). *The social psychology of aggression*. Psychology Press.

Kubrin, C. E., & Stewart, E. A. (2006). Predicting who reoffends: The neglected role of neighbourhood context in recidivism studies. *Criminology*, *44*(1), 165-197.

Kuhn, T. S. (1962). The structure of scientific revolutions. *The Un. of Chicago Press*, *2*, 90.

Kupchik, A., & Bracy, N. L. (2010). To protect, serve, and mentor? Police officers in public schools. *School under surveillance: Cultures of control in public education*, 21-37.

Kutsyuruba, B., Klinger, D. A., & Hussain, A. (2015). Relationships among school climate, school safety, and student achievement and well-being: a review of the literature. *Review of Education*, *3*(2), 103-135.

Ladson-Billings, G. (2001). But that's just good teaching! The case for culturally relevant pedagog. *Theory into Practice*, 34(3), 159–165.

Lamb, G. and Warton, G. (2017). School Safety in the Western Cape: Strengths, Limitations and Recommendations. *Round table briefing document. Cape Town: Safety and Violence Initiative, University of Cape Town.*

Lambers, W. (Ed.). (2009). *Ending World Hunger: School Lunches for Kids Around the World: Interviews with Officials from the United Nations World Food Programme about School Feeding Initiatives that Fight Child Hunger*. William Lambers.

Lambers, W.2009. Fighting Hunger in Kenya with School Meals. Global Hunger Examiner. Retrieved August 23 2014, from http://www.examiner.com/x-16819-Global-Hunger-Examiner ~y2009 m7d15-Fighting-Hunger-in-Kenya-with-School-Meals.

Lassen, S. R., Steele, M. M., & Sailor, W. (2006). The relationship of school-wide positive behavior support to academic achievement in an urban middle school. *Psychology in the Schools*, *43*(6), 701-712.

Laub, J. H., & Sampson, R. J. (2005). Coming of age in wartime: How World War II and the Korean War changed lives. *Historical influences on lives and aging*, 208-228.

Lee, T. H. (2000). *Education in traditional China: A history* (Vol. 13). Brill.

Leithwood, K., & Sun, J. (2012). The nature and effects of transformational school leadership: A meta-analytic review of unpublished research. *Educational Administration Quarterly*, *48*(3), 387-423.

Leithwood, K., Day, C, Sammons, P., Harris, A., & Hopkins, D. (2006). *Successful school leadership: What it is and how it influences pupil learning*. University of Nottingham: National College for School Leadership.

Leithwood, K., Harris, A., & Strauss, T. (2010). *Leading school turnaround: How successful leaders transform low-performing schools*. John Wiley & Sons.

Leithwood, K. Louis, K.S., Anderson, S., & Wahstrom, K. (2004). *How Leadership Influences Student Learning*. New York: Wallace Foundation.

Lemmer, E. M. (2007). Parent involvement in teacher education in South Africa. *International Journal about parents in education*, *1*(0), 218-229.

Leoschut, L. & Burton, P. (2006). How rich the rewards: Results of the 2005 National Youth Victimisation Study. *Cape Town: Centre for Justice and Crime Prevention.*

Leoschut, L. (2008). School violence: What makes learners vulnerable. *Cape Town: Centre for Justice and Crime Prevention, Issue Paper*, *7*, 1-11.

Leoschut, L. (2009). Running Nowhere Fast: Results of the 2008 National Youth Lifestyle Study. *Cape Town: Centre for Justice and Crime Prevention.*

Levin, B. (2005). *Governing education*. Toronto, ON.: University of Toronto Press.

Levinsky, A. (2016). *Development of the education and support program for bipolar disorder caregivers* (Doctoral dissertation, Spalding University).

Lewontin, R. C. (2001). *It ain't necessarily so: The dream of the human genome and other illusions*. New York Review of Books.

Lezotte, L. (1991). *Correlates of Effective Schools. The First and Secondary Generation.* Okemo: Effective Schools Production Ltd.

Lezotte, L. (2001). *Revolutionary and Evolutionary: The Effective School Movement*. Okemos: Effective School Production Ltd.

Lezotte, L. W., & Snyder, K. M. (2011). *What effective schools do: Re-envisioning the correlates*. Solution Tree Press.

Liang, H., Flisher, A.J. & Lombard, C.J. (2007). Bullying, violence, and risk behavior in South African school students. *Child Abuse & Neglect, 31*(2), 161-171.

Lincoln, Y.S. & Guba, G.E. (1985). *Naturalistic Inquiry*. Beverly Hills, CA: Sage Publications.

London: British Council. Retrieved May 3, 2014, from http://www.britishcouncil.org.za/sites/default/files/language_rich_africa_policy_dialogue_british_council.pdf

Long, L. L., Burnett, J. A., & Thomas, R. V. (2006). *Sexuality counselling: An integrative approach*. Upper Saddle River, NJ: Pearson.

Lunenburg, F. C., & Lunenburg, M. R. (2013). Convergent roles of the school principal: Leadership, managerial, and curriculum-instructional. *International journal of education*, *1*(1), 1-9.

Luthar, S. S., & Cicchetti, D. (2000). The construct of resilience: Implications for interventions and social policies. *Development and psychopathology*, *12*(4), 857-885.

Maarman, R. (2009). Manifestations of 'capabilities poverty' with learners attending informal settlement schools. *South African Journal of Education*, *29*(3).

Mabuza, E. (2014, January 23). A Grade R pupil, suffered a gruesome death when the toilet collapsed and he fell. *Times Live*. Retrieved February 11, 2015, from https://www.facebook.com/Times LIVE/posts/five-year-old-michael-a-grade-r-pupil-suffered-a-gruesome-death-when-the-toilet-/10158342931269 617/

Maccoby, E. E., Martin, J. A., Mussen, P. H., & Hetherington, E. (1983). Handbook of child psychology.

Madden, J. V., Lawson, D., & Sweet, D. (1976). School effectiveness study. *Sacramento, CA: State of California Department of Education*.

Madfis, E. (2016). "It's better to overreact": School officials' fear and perceived risk of rampage attacks and the criminalization of American public schools. *Critical Criminology*, *24*(1), 39-55

Makhubu, N. (2015, July 1). Gang rape at primary school. *IoL*. Retrieved July 15, 2015, from https://www.iol.co.za/news/gang-rape-at-primary-school-1878634

Maltz, M. (2002). *New Psycho-Cybernetics*. Penguin.

Maltz, W. (2002). Treating the sexual intimacy concerns of sexual abuse survivors. *Sexual and Relationship Therapy*, *17*(4), 321-327.

Manion, K. & Morrison, L (2008). *Research Methods in Education*. New York: Routledge.

Maringe, F., & Moletsane, R. (2015). Leading schools in circumstances of multiple deprivation in South Africa: Mapping some conceptual, contextual and research dimensions. *Educational Management Administration & Leadership*, *43*(3), 347-362.

Maringe, F., Masinire, A., & Nkambule, T. (2015). Distinctive features of schools in multiple deprived communities in South Africa: Implications for policy and leadership. *Educational Management Administration & Leadership*, *43*(3), 363-385.

Marks, H. M., & Printy, S. M. (2003). Principal leadership and school performance: An integration of transformational and instructional leadership. *Educational administration quarterly*, *39*(3), 370-397.

Marotz. R.L., Cross, Z.M. & Rush, M.J. (2005). *Health Safety and Nutrition for Young Children.* USA: Graphic World Publishing Services.

Marshall, C & Rossman, G. (1999). *Designing Qualitative Research*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Marzano, R.J. (2005). *What Works in Schools: Translating Research into Action*. Alexandria, VA: Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development.

Masondo, S. (2016, May 31). *Education in South Africa: A System in Crisis*. Retrieved from City Press: Retrieved June 6, 2016, from http://city-press.news24.com/News/education-in-south-africa-a-system-in-crisis-20160531

Masitsa, M. G. (2011). Exploring safety in township secondary schools in the Free State province. *South African Journal of Education*, *31*(2), 163-174.

Maslow, A. (1994). *Towards a Psychology of Being*. New York: Van Nostrand.

Maslow, A. H. (1943). A theory of human motivation. *Psychological review*, *50*(4), 370.

Massarik, F., & WESCHLER, I. R. (1961). *Leadership and Organization. A behavioral science approach.[By] Robert Tannenbaum, Irving R. Weschler, Fred Massarik*. McGraw-Hill Book Company.

Masten, A. S., Herbers, J. E., Desjardins, C. D., Cutuli, J. J., McCormick, C. M., Sapienza, J. K., ... & Zelazo, P. D. (2012). Executive function skills and school success in young children experiencing homelessness. *Educational Researcher*, *41*(9), 375-384.

Matimbe, (2014) *Financial Management*. Harare: Zimbabwe Open University.

Matshe, P.F.A. (2014). Challenges of parental involvement in rural public schools in Ngaka Modiri Moleme District of North West Province. *International Journal of Humanities Social Sciences and Education, 1*(6), 93-103.

McCleskey, J. A. (2014). Situational, transformational, and transactional leadership and leadership development, 5 (4), 117-130.

McDermott, K. (2008). Addressing the weak link: Enhancing support for the sponsors of student placements in cooperative education. *International Journal of Work-Integrated Learning*, *9*(2), 91.

McKinney, C. (2017). *Language and power in post-colonial schooling: Ideologies in practice*. New York: Routledge.

McLaren, P. (2017). *Rhetorics of Whiteness: Postracial hauntings in popular culture, social media, and education*. SIU Press.

McMillan, J. H., & Schumacher, S. (2014). Research in education: Evidence-based inquiry. Harlow, UK.

McMillan, J.H. & Schumacher, S. (2010). *Research in Education: Evidence Based Inquiry*. Boston: Ally & Bacon.

Mehlum, H., Moene, K., & Torvik, R. (2006). Institutions and the resource curse. *The economic journal*, *116*(508), 1-20.

Meintjes, G., Schoeman, H., Morroni, C., Wilson, D., & Maartens, G. (2008). Patient and provider delay in tuberculosis suspects from communities with a high HIV prevalence in South Africa: a cross-sectional study. *BMC infectious diseases*, *8*(1), 72.

Meintjes, H., John-Langba, J., & Berry, L. (2008). Demography of South Africa's children. In Proudlock, P., Dutschke, M., Jamieson, L., Monson, J., & Smith, C. (Eds.), *South African Child Gauge* (PP. 10-14). Cape Town: Children's Institute, University of Cape Town.

Mercy, J. A., & Vivolo-Kantor, A. M. (2016). The center for disease control and prevention's (CDC) youth violence prevention centers: Paving the way to prevention. *The journal of primary prevention*, *37*(2), 209-214.

Merriam, S.B. (1988). *Qualitative Research Case Study Application in Education*. San Francisco: Josssey-Bass.

Messner, S. F., & Tardiff, K. (1986). Economic inequality and levels of homicide: An analysis of urban neighbourhoods. *Criminology*, *24*(2), 297-316.

Mhlongo, T. (2017). The perceptions and experiences of students regarding weapons in schools in Umgungundlovu District, KwaZulu-Natal (Doctoral dissertation, University of KwaZulu-Natal)

Midkiff, B., & Cohen-Vogel, L. (2015). Understanding local instructional responses to federal and state accountability mandates: A typology of extended learning time. *Peabody Journal of Education*, *90*(1), 9-26.

Mills, A. (2012). Health policy and systems research: defining the terrain; identifying the methods. *Health policy and planning*, *27*(1), 1-7.

Ministry of Education, Science and Technology (MOEST), (2008). Safety standards manual for schools in Kenya: Schools as safe Zones, Nairobi: Church World Service.

Mncube, V. (2009). The perceptions of parents of their role in the democratic governance of schools in South Africa: Are they on board?. *South African Journal of Education*, *29*(1), 83-103.

Mncube, V. S. (2005). *School governance in the democratisation of education in South Africa: the interplay between policy and practice?* (Doctoral dissertation, University of Birmingham).

Mncube, V. U. S. I., & Harber, C. (2013). The dynamics of violence in South African schools. *Report. Pretoria: University of South Africa*.

Mncube, V., & Du Plessis, P. (2011). Effective school governing bodies: parental involvement. *Acta Academica*, *43*(3), 210-242.

Mncube, V., Davies, L., & Naidoo, R. (2014). Democratic school governance, leadership and management: A case study of two schools in South Africa. *International Journal of Educational Development in Africa*, *1*(1), 59-78.

Mnyaka, N. M. (2006). *Exploring the Promotion of safe Schools in the Eastern Cape: A whole school Development Approach* (Doctoral dissertation, University of South Africa).

Mogano, R. (1993). *The resurgence of pupil power: Explaining violence in African schools*. Centre for the Study of Violence and Reconciliation.

Moloi, P. I. M. (2002). *The role of parents in discipline as an aspect of school safety* (Doctoral dissertation, University of Johannesburg).

Moore, S., Armstrong, C., & Pearson, J. (2008). Lecture absenteeism among students in higher education: A valuable route to understanding student motivation. *Journal of Higher Education Policy and Management*, *30*(1), 15-24.

Motshekga denies responsibility in toilet death. (2015, October 2). Mail & Guardian. Retrieved 2015, October 2, from https://mg.co.za/article/2015-10-02-motshekga-denies-responsibility-in-toilet-death

Moyo, W. (2013). Causes and Effects of Poverty on Academic Achievements of Rural Secondary School Students: Case of Tshazi Secondary School in Insiza District. *International Journal of Asian Social Science, 3*(10), 2104-2113.

Mteweni, J. (2008). *The Role of Education in the Management of School Discipline in Nkangala Region of Mpumalanga*. Pretoria: UNISA.

Mujis, D. (2002). Teacher leadership-improvement through empowerment. An overview of the literature. *Educational Management, Administration and Leadership*, 31(4), 437-448.

Mullan, C.A. (2007). *The Handbook of Leadership and Professional Learning Communities*. New York: Springer.

Murphy, J. (2002). *The Landscape of Leadership of Leadership Preparation: Reframing the Education of School Administrators*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Corwin.

Murphy, J., Elliott, S.N., Goldring, E. & Porter, A.C. (2007). Leadership for learning: A research-based model and taxonomy of behaviours. *School Leadership and Management*, 27(2), 179-201.

Najumba, J. (2013). *The effectiveness of teaching and learning in primary schools*. Boston: Sage Publications.

Nansel, T. R., Overpeck, M., Pilla, R. S., Ruan, W. J., Simons-Morton, B., & Scheidt, P. (2001). Bullying behaviors among US youth: Prevalence and association with psychosocial adjustment. *Jama*, *285*(16), 2094-2100.

National Centre for Injury Prevention and Control (CDC), Division of Violence Prevention. *The Bully-Sexual Violence Pathway in Early Adolescence*. Retrieved April 6, 2018, from https://www.cdc.gov/violenceprevention/ pdf/ asapbullyingva. pdf

National Treasury, Republic of South Africa, (May 2012*). Local government equitable share formula review. Discussion paper 2: Analysis of the Current Local Government Equitable Share Formula.* Retrieved 2017, May 4, from https://ffc.co.za/ docman-menu-item/reports/613-lges-discussion-paper-2-analysis-of-the-current-formula-2

Naz, A., Khan, W., Daraz, U., Hussain, M., & Khan, Q. (2011). The impacts of corporal punishment on students' academic performance/career and personality development up-to secondary level education in Khyber Pakhtunkhwa Pakistan. *International Journal of Business and Social Science, 2*(12).

Ncontsa, V. N., & Shumba, A. (2013). The nature, causes and effects of school violence in South African high schools. *South African Journal of Education, 33*(3).

Netshitahame, N. E., & Van Vollenhoven, W. J. (2002). School safety in rural schools: Are schools as safe as we think they are?. *South African Journal of Education*, *22*(4), 313-318.

Neuman, W. L. (2000). The meanings of methodology. *Social research methods*, *60*, 87.

Neuman, W. L. (2014). *Basics of social research*. Pearson/Allyn and Bacon.

Neuman. W.L. (2011). *Social research methods: Qualitative and quantitative approaches*. Boston: Pearson.

Newman Jr, W. J., Abell, S. K., Hubbard, P. D., McDonald, J., Otaala, J., & Martini, M. (2004). Dilemmas of teaching inquiry in elementary science methods. *Journal of Science teacher education*, *15*(4), 257-279.

Ngara, R. & Magwa, S. (2015). School Safety: Practices and Issues in Gweru Urban Schools in Zimbabwe. *Greener Journal of Educational Research*, 5(4), 127-133.

Ngqakamba, S. (2019, August 14). More than R120m lost to theft and vandalism at Gauteng schools – Lesufi. *News 24*. Retrieved 2019, August 30, from https://www.news24.com/South Africa/News/more-than-r120m-lost-to-theft-and-vandalism-at-gauteng-schools-lesufi-20190814.

Ngqakamba, S. (2019, June 10). *Forest High School stabbing accused granted bail*. Retrieved 2019, September 19, from https://www.news24.com/SouthAfrica/News/forest-high - school-stab bing-suspect-granted-bail-20190610

Ngqela, N. & Lewis, A. (2012). Exploring adolescent learners' experiences of school violence in a township high school. *Child Abuse Research: A South African Journal*, *13*(1), 87–97.

Nhlapo, V. A. (2006). Managing school safety in the primary school. Vanderbijlpark: North West University. *Unpublished dissertation*.

NICOC Gangsterism Task Team. (October 2015). National Anti-Gangsterism Strategy. *Pretoria: NICOC*.

Nkomo, M. O. (Ed.). (1990). *Pedagogy of domination: Toward a democratic education in South Africa*. Africa World Pr.212.

Noble, M., Barnes, H. & Wright, G. et al. (2009). Small area indices of multiple deprivation in South Africa. *Social Indicators Research*, 95(2), 281–297.

Northouse, P.G. (2016). *Leadership: Theory and practice* (3rd ed.). London: Sage. Publications.

Nuckols, C. (2013). The diagnostic and statistical manual 5th edition. Retrieved 2017, July 4, from https://dhss.delaware.gov/dsamh/files/si2013_dsm5foraddictionsmhandcriminaljustice.pdf

Odumeru, J.A. & Ifeanyi, G.O. (2013). Transformational vs. transactional leadership theories: Evidence in literature. International Review of Management and Business Research. 2(2). 355-361. Retrieved 2015, July 21, from http://irmbrjournal.com

Ogawa, R. T., & Bossert, S. T. (1995). Leadership as an organizational quality. *Educational administration quarterly*, *31*(2), 224-243.

Okeke, C. I. (2014). Effective home-school partnership: Some strategies to help strengthen parental involvement. *South African Journal of Education*, *34*(3).

Olweus, D. & Limber, S.P. (2010). The Olweus bullying prevention program: implementation and evaluation over two decades." In *S. R. Jimerson, S. M. Swearer, & D. L. Espelage (Eds.), Handbook of bullying in schools: An international perspective* (pp. 377-401). New York, NY, US: Routledge/Taylor & Francis Group.

Ontario Ministry of Education (2012). Caring and safe schools in Ontario. Retrieved 2015, Novermber 1, from http://www.edu.gov.on.ca/eng/general/elemsec/speced/ ca ring _safe_ school.pdf

Osher, D., Bear, G. G., Sprague, J. R., & Doyle, W. (2010). How can we improve school discipline?. *Educational researcher*, *39*(1), 48-58.

Panday S, Makiwane M, Ranchod C, Letsoalo T (2009). *Teenage pregnancy in South Africa - with a specific focus on school-going learners.* Pretoria: Department of Basic Education.

Pelo, G. (2018, September 19). Breaking Down the 2017/18 Crime Statistics. *Soweto Urban, p1*.

Patchin, J. W., & Hinduja, S. (2011). Traditional and nontraditional bullying among youth: A test of general strain theory. *Youth & Society*, *43*(2), 727-751.

Pather, R. (2018, March 16). Another child dies in a pit latrine. *Mail and Guardian.* Retrieved 2018, June 10, from https://mg.co.za/article/ 2018 -03-16-00-another-child-dies-in-a-pit-latrine/

Patterson, D. (1991). The eclipse of the highest in higher education. *The Maine Scholar: A Journal of Ideas and Public Affairs*, *3*, 7-20.

Pheto, B. (2018, October 12). Angie Matshokga: Schools are becoming crime scenes. *Times Live*, p.1

Phipps, S. (2003). Well-being of Canadian children. *The economic implications of social cohesion*, *16*, 79.

Phurutse, M. C. (2005). *Factors affecting teaching and learning in South African public schools*. HSRC press.

Pitso, T., Njeje, T. P., Bonase, T. D., Mfula, T., Nobendle, B. S., & Nogaga, P. (2014). The impact of crime among learners in high school. *Academic Journal of Interdisciplinary Studies*, *3*(1), 333.

Plewis, I. & Mason, P. (2005). What works and why: Combining qualitative and quantitative approaches in large-scale evaluation. *International Journal of Social Research Methodology*, 8(3), 185–194.

Plexousakis, S. S., Kourkoutas, E., Giovazolias, T., Chatira, K., & Nikolopoulos, D. (2019). School bullying and post-traumatic stress disorder symptoms: the role of parental bonding. *Frontiers in public health*, *7*, 75.

Pont, B., Nusche D., & Moorman, H. (2008). *Improving School Leadership.* Vol 1 Policy and Practice. OECD publishing.

Prinsloo, I. J. (2005). How safe are South African schools? *South African journal of education*, *25*(1), 5-10.

Pupil painted white before rape. (2015, February 6). *Enca*, Retrieved 2015, April 15, from https://www. news24 .com/SouthAfrica/News/Pupil-painted-white-before-rape-report-20150206

Putnam, R. D. (2014). *Our kids: The American dream in crisis*. Simon and Schuster.

Rabiee, F. (2004). Focus-group interview and data analysis. *Proceedings of the nutrition society*, *63*(4), 655-660.

Ragin, C.C. & Amoros, L.M. (2001). *Constructing social research. The unity of diversity of methods*. Northweston University: Pine Forge Press.

Ramorola, M. Z., & Taole,J. M. (2014). The links between school violence and drug usage in schools: external or internal factor?. *Journal of Sociology and Social Anthropology*, *5*(1), 11-18.

Rauch Jr, C. F., & Behling, O. (1984). Functionalism: Basis for an alternate approach to the study of leadership. In *Leaders* Gibson, J. L., Ivancevich, J. M., & Donelly Jr, J. H. (1985). Organizations. Business Publication (pp. 45-62). Pergamon.

Rebusoajoang, (April 1979). Education and social control in South Africa. *African Affairs*, Volume 78, Issue 311, Pages 228–239, https://doi.org/10.1093/oxfordjournals. afraf. a097088

Reddy, K. S., Xie, E., & Tang, Q. (2016). Higher education, high-impact research, and world university rankings: A case of India and comparison with China. *Pacific Science Review B: Humanities and Social Sciences*, *2*(1), 1-21.

Redpath, J. 2007. Parallel lines: policies relevant to child safety in South Africa. Centre for Justice and Crime Prevention, Monograph Series, No 2, Cape Town.

Republic of South Africa (2013). National Development Plan, 2013. Retrieved 2016, February 19, from https://www.gov.za/issues/national-development-plan-2030

Republic of South Africa (RSA) (2 August, 2000). South African Council for Educators, Act 31 of 2000. Retrieved 2017, August 2, from https://www.gov.za/ doc uments/south-african-council-educators-act

Republic of South Africa (RSA). (7 August 2013). The DBE and SAPS celebrate the symbolic signing and launch of the partnership protocol agreement. Retrieved 2016, August 17, from http://www.gov.za/dbe-and-saps-celebrate-symbolic-signing-and-launch-partnership-protocol-agreement

Republic of South Africa, (February, 2009). Final Draft National Scholar Transport Policy. Retrieved 2016, September 13, from https://www.Fedsas.Org.Za/Files/Documents/ Archive/10 _5820National%20Scholar%20 Transport%20Policy.Pdf

Republic of South Africa. (1996a). *South African Schools Act of 1996*. Pretoria: Government Printers.

Republic of South Africa. (1996b). *Further training and teaching Act*. Pretoria: Government Printers.

Republic of South Africa. (2011). Department of Basic Education. Curriculum and Assessment Policy Grades 4-6. Life Skills.

Republic of South Africa. (1996c). Constitution of the Republic of South Africa (Act 108 of 1996). *Government Gazette No. 25799*.

Republic of South Africa. (1998). *The Constitution of the Republic of South Africa* Act 108 of 1996. Pretoria: Government Printers.

Robbins, S.M. & Alvy, H.B. (2003). *The principals' companion: strategies and hints to the make job easier*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Corwin Press.

Robinson, V., Lloyd, C.A., & Rowe, K.J. (2008). The impact of leadership on student outcomes. An analysis of the differential effects of leadership types. *Educational Administration Quarterly, 44(5), 635-674.*

Rollison, J., Banks, D., Martin, A. J., Owens, C., Thomas, N., Dressler, K. J., & Wells, M. (2013). Improving School-Justice Partnerships: Lessons Learned from the Safe Schools/Healthy Students Initiative. *Family Court Review*, *51*(3), 445-451.

Ronoh, R. K**.** (2018). Adequacy of safety procedures and infrastructure for school safety in Kenya. *International Journal of Academic Research in Progressive Education and Development*, *7*(3), 401-413.

Roosa, M. W., Jones, S., Tein, J. Y., & Cree, W. (2003). Prevention science and neighborhood influences on low-income children's development: Theoretical and methodological issues. *American journal of community psychology*, *31*(1-2), 55-72.

Rossouw, D. (2003). Intellectual Tools: Skills for the human sciences. Cape Town: Creda Communications.

Rothstein, R. (2004). *Class and schools*. Teachers College, Columbia University.

Rubin, A., & Babbie, E. (2010). Research methodology for social work. *Belmont, CA: Thomson Brooks/Cole*.

Rüppel, F., Liersch, S., & Walter, U. (2015). The influence of psychological well-being on academic success. *Journal of Public Health*, *23*(1), 15-24.

Safe Schools Action Team [SSAT]. (2006). *Safe schools policy and practice: An agenda for action.* Kingston, ON: Queen's Printer for Ontario. Retrieved July 11, 2006, from http://www.edu.gov.on.ca/eng/ssareview/report0626.pdf

Sammons, P., Hillman, J., & Mortimore, P. (1995). Key characteristics of effective schools. *A review of school effectiveness research.*

Sapa, N. (2014, March 1). *No answers on Soweto school deaths*. *Saturday Star*. Retrieved July 24, 2015, from https://www.iol.co.za/saturday-star/no-answers-on-soweto-school-deaths-1654713

Sapin, K. (2013). *Essential skills for youth work practice*. Sage.

Sarra, C. (2003). *Young and black and deadly: Strategies for improving outcomes for Indigenous students*. Australian College of Educators.

Sayer, A. (2000). *Realism and social science*. London: Sage.

Schneider, R. M. (2010, October). A comparison of information security risk analysis in the context of e-government to criminological threat assessment techniques. In *2010 Information Security Curriculum Development Conference* (pp. 107-116).

Schoon, I., Jones, E., Cheng, H., & Maughan, B. (2012). Family hardship, family instability, and cognitive development. *J Epidemiol Community Health*, *66*(8), 716-722.

Schwab-Stone, M., Chen, C., Greenberger, E., Silver, D., Lichtman, J., & Voyce, C. (1999). No safe haven II: The effects of violence exposure on urban youth. *Journal of the American Academy of Child & Adolescent Psychiatry*, *38*(4), 359-367.

Seeking, J. (1993). Heroes or Villains? Youth politics in the 1980s. Johannesburg: Ravan Press.

Seleka, N. (July 28). Thieves strike Soweto schools. *Sowetan Live.* https://www.timeslive.co.za/

Selye, H. (1976). Stress without distress. In *Psychopathology of human adaptation* (pp. 137-146). Springer, Boston, MA.

Shanks, C. B., & Harden, S. (2015). A reach, effectiveness, adoption, implementation, maintenance evaluation of weekend backpack food assistance programs. *American Journal of Health Promotion*, *30*(7), 511-520.

Shannon, G. S., & Bylsma, P. (2007). *Nine characteristics of high-performing schools*. Office of Superintendent of Public Instruction.

Sharma, M. D., Mendez, A., & O'Byrne, J. W. (2005). The relationship between attendance in student-centred physics tutorials and performance in university examinations. *International Journal of Science Education*, *27*(11), 1375-1389.

Shatzer, R. H., Caldarella, P., Hallam, P. R., & Brown, B. L. (2014). Comparing the effects of instructional and transformational leadership on student achievement: Implications for practice. *Educational Management Administration & Leadership*, *42*(4), 445-459.

Shaw, M. (2005). Chapter 10: Comprehensive approches to school safety and security - An international view. In *School Safety and Security: Lessons in Danger*. OECD Publishing, 91–107.

Shenton, A. K. (2004). Strategies for ensuring trustworthiness in qualitative research projects. *Education for information*, *22*(2), 63-75.

Silverman, W. K., & Kurtines, W. M. (2004). Research progress on effectiveness, transportability, and dissemination of empirically supported treatments: Integrating theory and research. *Clinical Psychology: Science and Practice*, *11*(3), 295-299.

Silverstein, M., Gans, D., & Yang, F. M. (2006). Intergenerational support to aging parents: The role of norms and needs. *Journal of family Issues*, *27*(8), 1068-1084.

Simons, H. (2009). *Case study research in practice*. Los Angeles, CA: Sage.

Skevington, S., Birdthistle, I., & Jones, J. (2003). Creating an environment for emotional and social well-being. *Geneva: World Health Organization's information series on school health. Document*, *10*.

Smyth, J. (2006). The politics of reform of teachers' work and the consequences for schools: Some implications for teacher education. *Asia-Pacific Journal of Teacher Education*, *34*(3), 301-319.

Soudien, C., & Juan, A. (2018). The right to education in South Africa: the struggle continues. *The Right to Education Movements and Policies: Promises and Realities*, 01, 89-91.

South African Council for Educators. (2002). *Handbook for the code of conduct of professional ethics*. Centurion: SACE.

South African Human Rights Commission (SAHRC) (2006). Report of the Public Hearing on the Right to Basic Education. Retrieved 2015, June 21, from https://www.sahrc.org.za/home/21/files/Reports/Right%20to%20basic%20education%202006.pdf

South African Police Service (SAPS), (2016). Annual Crime Report 2015/2016. Retrieved 2016, March 31, from https://www.saps.gov.za/about/stratframework/annualreport/2015_2016/sapsannual_report_2015_2016.pdf

Southworth, G. (2002). Instructional leadership in schools: Reflections and empirical evidence. *School Leadership & Management*, 22(1), 73-91.

Southworth, G. (2004). Learning-Centred Leadership. In Davies, B. (ed.). *The Essentials of school leadership*. London: Paul Chapman Publishing.

Sparks, C. S. (2011). Parental investment and socioeconomic status influences on children's height in Honduras: An analysis of national data. *American Journal of Human Biology*, *23*(1), 80-88.

Spaull, N. (2013). South Africa's education crisis: The quality of education in South Africa 1994-2011. *Johannesburg: Centre for Development and Enterprise*, 1-65.

Spillane, J.P. (2006). *Distributed leadership.* Jossey-Bass, San Francisco, CA.

Spillane, J.P., Halverson, R. & Diamond, J.B. (2004). Towards a theory of leadership practice: A distributed perspective. *Journal of Curriculum Studies*, 36(1), 3–33.

Squelch, J. (2001). Do school governing bodies have a duty to create safe schools? *An Educational Law Perspective in Education*, 19(4), 137–150.

Stansell, A., & McLaughlin, T. F. (2013). A brief comparison of rural poverty and urban poverty at its consequences for students with special needs. *International Journal of Basic and Applied Science*, *1*(3), 587-593.

Steffgen, G., & Ewen, N. (2007). Teachers as victims of school violence–the influence of strain and school culture. *International journal on violence and schools*, *3*(1), 81-93.

Stogdill, R. M. (1950) Leadership, Membership and Organization. *Psychological bulletin 47* (1), 1-14.

Stretesky, P. B., Pogrebin, M., Unnithan, N. P., & Venor, G. (2007). Prisonization and accounts of gun carrying. *Journal of criminal justice*, *35*(5), 485-497.

Suber, C. (2012). Characteristics of effective principals in high-poverty South Carolina Elementary Schools. *International Journal of Educational Leadership Preparation*, *7*(1), n1.

Taliaferro, J. D., DeCuir-Gunby, J., & Allen-Eckard, K. (2009). 'I can see parents being reluctant': perceptions of parental involvement using child and family teams in schools. *Child & Family Social Work*, *14*(3), 278-288.

Tan, A. S. (1980). Mass media use, issue knowledge and political involvement. *The Public Opinion Quarterly*, *44*(2), 241-248.

Tang, C. F. (2011). An exploration of dynamic relationship between tourist arrivals, inflation, unemployment and crime rates in Malaysia. *International Journal of Social Economics*, 38, 50-69.

Tashakkori, A. & Teddlie, C. (1998). Mixed methods: Combining qualitative and quantitative approaches. *Applied Social Research Methods Series* (46). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Tashi, K. (2015). A quantitative analysis of distributed leadership in practice: Teachers' perception of their engagement in four dimensions of distributed leadership in Bhutanese schools. *Asia Pacific Education Review*, *16*(3), 353-366.

Taylor, C. (1994). *Multiculturalism: Examining the politics of recognition*. Princeton University Press, 41 William St., Princeton, NJ 08540.

The Department of Education (2017). Guidelines for general upkeep and maintenance of education facilities. Retrieved 2017, October 10, from https://www.Education .gov. za/Portals/0Documents/Publications/General%20upkeep%20and%20maintenanc e%202018.pdf?ver=2018-09-17-105447-213

The National Authority for Campaign against Alcohol and Drug Abuse (NACADA), (2014). A handbook on prevention of Drug and Substance abuse in Kenya. Retrieved 2014, November 28, from https://nacada.go.ke/

Thomas, G. (2013). A review of thinking and research about inclusive education policy, with suggestions for a new kind of inclusive thinking. *British Educational Research Journal*, *39*(3), 473-490.

Thompson, B. (2006). *Foundations of behavioral statistics: An insight-based approach*. Guilford Press.

Thornberry, T. P., & Henry, K. L. (2013). Intergenerational continuity in maltreatment. *Journal of abnormal child psychology*, *41*(4), 555-569.

Thro, W. (2006). Judicial enforcement of educational safety and security: The American experience. *Perspectives in Education*, *24*(1), 65-72.

Tikly, L., & Barrett, A. M. (2009). Social justice, capabilities and the quality of education in low income countries. *International Journal of Educational Development*, *31*(1), 3-14.

Tikly, L., & Barrett, A. M. (2011). Social justice, capabilities and the quality of education in low income countries. *International journal of educational development*, *31*(1), 3-14.

Tobach, E., & Schneirla, T. C. (1968). The biopsychology of social behavior of animals. *Biologic basis of pediatric practice*, *1*, 68-82.

Tomaševski, K. (2002). Report of the Special Rapporteur on the right to education to the Commission on Human Rights. *Documento das Nações Unidas, E/CN*, *4*(2002), 60.

Toronto Catholic District School Board [TCDSB]. (2015). Safe schools' inquiry: Panel report. Retrieved 2015, June 13, from https://www.tcdsb.org/ProgramsServices/Safe Schools/Documents/TCDSB%20Safe%20Schools%20Inquiry%20Report%202015%2 0-%20Final%20Report.pdf

Townsend, P. (1979). *Poverty in the United Kingdom: a survey of household resources and standards of living*. Univ of California Press.

Triegaardt, J. D. (2005). The child support grant in South Africa: A social policy for poverty alleviation. *International Journal of Social Welfare*, 14, 249-255.

Trump, K.S. (2008). *Leadership is the Key to Managing School Safety*. Cleveland: District Administration.

Tsegaye, A. (2008). *Higher Diploma Program for Teacher Educators: Impact and Practice at Gondar College of Teachers' Education* (Doctoral dissertation, Addis Ababa Universty).

Tsegaye, S. (2008). Short lives and limited life chances: An overview of child well-being in Africa. *Journal of the African Child Policy Forum* 144, 320-400.

Tucker, P. D., & Stronge, J. H. (2005). *Linking teacher evaluation and student learning*. ASCD.

Tyack, D. B., Kirst, M. W., & Hansot, E. (1980). *Educational reform: Retrospect and prospect*. Institute for Research on Educational Finance and Governance.

U.S. Department of Health and Human Services (2010). Understanding and improving health. Retrieved 2010, August 4, from https://www.healthypeople.gov/2010/document pdf/uih/2010 uih.pdf

Uline, C., & Tschannen-Moran, M. (2008). The walls speak: The interplay of quality facilities, school climate, and student achievement. *Journal of educational administration*.

UNESCO. (2001). Children in war. Retrieved 2016, May 16, from http: www.unesco.org/ clidren-inwar/

UNICEF (2009). Domestic Violence against Women and Girls. Retrieved 2016, February 12, from https://www.unicef-irc.org/publications/213-domestic-violence-against-women-and-girls.html

United Nations Children's Fund (UNICEF) (2001). The State of the world's children 2001. Retrieved 2018, September 4, from https://www.unicef.org/publications/files/pub_sowc 01_en.pdf

United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO) (2003). Right to education: scope and implementation; General comment 13 on the right to education, Art. 13 of the International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights. Retrieved 2017, October 10, from https://unesdoc.unesco.org/ark:/48223/ pf0000133113

United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO (2011). Education for conflict prevention and peacebuilding: meeting the global challenges of the 21st century. Retrieved 2017, March 20, from https://unesdoc.unesco.org/ark :/48223/pf0000217106

United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO (2011). The physical school environment. Retrieved 2016, March 8, from https://learning portal.iiep. unesco.org/en/issue-briefs/improve-learning/schools-and-classrooms/the-physical-school-environment

United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO (2011). Career Guidance and Counselling – the bridge from secondary school to tertiary education. Retrieved 2019, February 9, from https://unesdoc.unesco.org/ark:/48223/pf0000248069

United Nations Educational, Social and Cultural Organization (UNESCO). (2017). *School violence and bullying: global status report*. Place de Fontenoy, Paris, France. Retrieved 2017, June 16, from http://unesdoc.unesco.org/images/0024/002469/2 46970e.pdf

United Nations Human Rights Office of the High Commissioner (1989). Convention on the Rights of the Child, Adopted and opened for signature, ratification and accession by General Assembly resolution 44/25 of 20 November 1989 entry into force 2 September 1990, in accordance with article 49. Retrieved 2015, September 2, from https://www.ohchr.org/ Documents/ Professional Interest/crc.pdf

United Nations Human Rights Office of the High Commissioner, (1976). International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights. Adopted and opened for signature, ratification and accession by General Assembly resolution 2200A (XXI) of 16 December 1966 entry into force 3 January 1976, in accordance with article 27. Retrieved 2016, June 25, from https://www.ohchr.org/en/professionalinterest/pages /cescr.aspx

United Nations Universal Declaration of Human Rights (UNUDHR) (1948). The Universal Declaration of Human Rights. Retrieved 2017, December 10, from https://www.un. org/en/universal-declaration-human-rights/

United States Agency for International Development (2013. Foreign Operations FY 2013 Performance Report. Retrieved 2015, December 16, from https://www.usaid.gov/ sites/default/files/ documents/1870/USAID FY20 13APR.pdf

United States Environmental Protection Agency (2014). Climate Change Indicators in the United States, 2014. Retrieved 2015, April 20, from https://www.epa.Gov /sites/production/files/2016-07/documents/ climateindicators-full-2014.pdf

US Department of Education, Office of Safe and Drug-free Schools. (2007). Protocol information on crisis planning: A guide for schools and communities. Retrieved 2016,

September 11, from http://www.ed.gov/admins/lead/safety/ emergency plan/crisisplanning

USAID (2013). *Literature Review on the Intersection of Safe Learning Environment and Educational Achievement*. Washington DC: USAID.

Valdez (2007) Aggressive Crime, Alcohol and Drug Use, and Concentrated Poverty in 24 U.S. Urban Areas, American Journal of Drug and Alcohol Abuse, 33(4), 595-603.

Valero, P., & Skovsmose, O. (Eds.). (2002). *Proceedings of the Third International Mathematics Education and Society Conference: Helsingør, Denmark, 2nd-7th April 2002, Centre for Research in Learning Mathematics, The Danish University of Education, Roskilde University, Aalborg University*. Centre for Research in Learning Mathematics.

Vally, S., Dolombisa, Y., & Porteus, K. (1999). Violence in South African schools. *Current issues in comparative education*, *2*(1), 80-90.

Van der Horst, H., & McDonald, R. (1997). *OBE, outcomes-based education: A teacher's manual*. Kagiso Publishers.

Van Jaarsveld, L. (2011). *Violence in Schools: A Security Problem*. Pretoria: UNISA.

Van Wyk, N., & Lemmer, E. (2009). Redefining home-school community in the context of the HIV/AIDS pandemic.

Vandeyar, S. (2008). Shifting selves: The emergence of new identities in South African schools. *International Journal of Education and Development* 28(3), 286-299.

Vavrus, F., & Cole, K. (2002). "I didn't do nothin'": The discursive construction of school suspension. *The Urban Review*, *34*(2), 87-111.

Veriava, F., Thom, A., & Hodgson, T. F. (2017). *Basic education rights handbook: Education rights in South Africa*. SECTION27.

Vornberg, J. (2002). Texas public school organization and administration: 2002 . Dunuque, IO: Kendall.

Ward, M. (2007). Rural education. *India Infrastructure Report 2007*, 286-317.

Wargo, J. (2004). *The World Health Organisation's Information Series on School Health: The School Physical Environment*. New Haven Connecticut: Yale University.

Watkins, M. W., Crosby, E. G., & Pearson, J. L. (2001). Role of the school psychologist: Perceptions of school staff. *School Psychology International*, *22*(1), 64-73.

Webster, C., & Kingston, S. (2014). Poverty and crime: UK. *Center for Applied Social Science Research, Leeds Metropolitan University*.

Weinreich, P. (2009). 'Enculturation', not 'acculturation': Conceptualising and assessing identity processes in migrant communities. *International Journal of Intercultural Relations*, *33*(2), 124-139. Emmel, N. (2013). *Sampling and choosing cases in qualitative research: A realist approach*. Sage.

Western Cape Education Department (WCED). (24 May 2018). Safe Schools Programme. *SaferSpaces*. Retrieved 2018, May 24, from https://www.saferspace s. org.za/be-inspired/entry/safe-schools-programme

Western Cape Government (WCG). (2016). Making our schools safe for every learner. Retrieved 2019, January 4, from https://www.westerncape.gov.za/general-publication/making-our-schools-safe-every-learner

Western Cape Government (WCG). (2018). After School Game Changer. *Western Cape Government.* Retrieved 2019, January 21, from https://www.westerncape.gov.za/ after-school-game-changer/

Western Cape Government Department of Community Safety (WC DOCS). (2017, February 10). Report on the Expert Workshop on National Anti-Gangsterism Strategy, held on 2 December 2016 at Chrysalis Academy, Tokai. Retrieved 2017, February 10, from https://www.westerncape.gov.za/assets/departments/community-safety/ ex pert _workshop_national_anti_gangsterism_strategy_report.pdf

Wikström, P. O. H., & David, A. Butterworth (2006): Adolescent Crime: Individual differences and lifestyles. *European Journal of Criminology*, *7*(5), 395-410.

Wilkinson, R. & Pickett, K. (2010). *The Spirit Level*. London: Penguin.

Wilson, R. S., Niehaus, A. C., David, G., Hunter, A., & Smith, M. (2014). Does individual quality mask the detection of performance trade-offs? A test using analyses of human physical performance. *Journal of experimental biology*, *217*(4), 545-551.

Woolman, S. and Fleisch, B. (2009). *The Constitution in the classroom: Law and education ABC.* Press Cape Town

World Health Organisation (WHO) (2002). World report on violence and health. Retrieved 2016, August 8, from https:// www.who.int/violenceinjuryprevention/violence/ world report/en/

World Health Organisation (WHO) (2004). The World Health Report 2004. Retrieved February 16, 2015, from https://www.who.int /whr/2004/en/report04_en.pdf

World Health Organisation (WHO) (2010). Prevention of bullying-related morbidity and mortality: a call for public health policies. Retrieved 2016, February 12, from https://www. who.int/bulletin/volumes/88/6/10-077123/en/

World Health Organization (WHO). (2002). *World Report on Violence and Health*. Geneva: WHO.

Xaba, M. (2006). An investigation into the basic safety and security status of schools' physical environments. *South African Journal of Education*, *26*(4), 565-580.

Xaba, M. I. (2014). A holistic approach to safety and security at schools in South Africa. *Mediterranean Journal of Social Sciences*, *5*(20), 1580-1580.

Xaba, M. I. (2014). An Examination of the Effectiveness of the Implementation of Safety and Security Measures at Public Schools in South Africa. *Mediterranean Journal of Social Sciences*, *5*(27 P1), 490.

Yin, R. K. (2011). *Applications of case study research*. Sage.

Yin, R.K. (2004). *Case study research: Design and methods*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.

Yoshikawa, H., & Kholoptseva, J. (2013). Unauthorized immigrant parents and their children's development. *Migration Policy Institute. Washington, DC*.

Yukl, G. (2013). *Leadership in organizations* (8th ed.). Boston: Pearson Education, Inc.

APPENDICES

APPENDIX A: ETHICS CLEARANCE FROM WITS SCHOOL OF EDUCATION

Wits School of Education



27 St Andrews Road, Parktown, Johannesburg, 2193 Private Bag 3, Wits 2050, South Africa. Tel: +27 11 717-3064 Fax: +27 11 717-3100 E-mail: enquiries@educ.wits.ac.za Website: www.wits.ac.za

12 August 2016

Student Number: 0606502T

Protocol Number: 2016ECE016D

Dear Caroline Adhola

Application for ethics clearance: Doctor of Philosophy

Thank you very much for your ethics application. The Ethics Committee in Education of the Faculty of Humanities, acting on behalf of the Senate, has considered your application for ethics clearance for your proposal entitled:

The Role of School Leaders in School Improvement: Exploring Perceptions, Practices and Prospects of School Safety and Orderliness in South African School Facing Multiple Deprivation

The committee recently met and I am pleased to inform you that clearance was granted.

Please use the above protocol number in all correspondence to the relevant research parties (schools, parents, learners etc.) and include it in your research report or project on the title page.

The Protocol Number above should be submitted to the Graduate Studies in Education Committee upon submission of your final research report.

All the best with your research project.

Yours sincerely,

MMabeka

Wits School of Education

011 717-3416

cc Supervisor - Prof Felix Maringe.

APPENDIX B: RESEARCH APPROVAL FROM GDB

For administrative use only:
Reference no: D2017 / 336
enquiries: 011 843 6503

GAUTENG PROVINCE
EDUCATION
REPUBLIC OF SOUTH AFRICA

GDE RESEARCH APPROVAL LETTER

Date:	23 November 2016
Validity of Research Approval:	6 February 2017 to 29 September 2017
Name of Researcher:	Adhola C.A.
Address of Researcher:	University of the Witwatersrand; Private Bag 3; Wits; 2050
Telephone / Fax Number/s:	062 144 8929
Email address:	caroadhola@gmail.com
Research Topic:	The role of school leaders in school improvement. Exploring perceptions, practices and prospects of school safety in multiple deprived secondary schools in Gauteng Province.
Number and type of schools:	SIX Secondary Schools
District/s/HO	Johannesburg Central; Johannesburg West and Sedibeng East

Re: Approval in Respect of Request to Conduct Research

This letter serves to indicate that approval is hereby granted to the above-mentioned researcher to proceed with research in respect of the study indicated above. The onus rests with the researcher to negotiate appropriate and relevant time schedules with the school/s and/or offices involved. A separate copy of this letter must be presented to the Principal, SGB and the relevant District/Head Office Senior Manager confirming that permission has been granted for the research to be conducted. However participation is VOLUNTARY.

The following conditions apply to GDE research. The researcher has agreed to and may proceed with the above study subject to the conditions listed below being met. Approval may be withdrawn should any of the conditions listed below be flouted:

CONDITIONS FOR CONDUCTING RESEARCH IN GDE

1. *The District/Head Office Senior Manager/s concerned, the Principal/s and the chairperson/s of the School Governing Body (SGB) must be presented with a copy of this letter.*

2016/11/23

1

Making education a societal priority

Office of the Director: Education Research and Knowledge Management ER&KM)
9th Floor, 111 Commissioner Street, Johannesburg, 2001
P.O. Box 7710, Johannesburg, 2000 Tel: (011) 355 0506
Email: David.Makhado@gauteng.gov.za
Website: www.education.gpg.gov.za

APPENDIX A: INFORMATION SHEET PRINCIPAL / SGB CHAIR

Dear Sir/Madam

RE: REQUEST FOR PERMISSION TO CONDUCT RESEARCH IN YOUR SCHOOL.

My name is Caroline Adhola and I am a PhD student at University of the Witwatersrand. I am writing to request for your permission to conduct research in your school. My study targets the principal, SGB representatives, teachers and learner representatives. The research is titled: **A Social Justice Framework for Exploring the Role of Leaders in Redressing School Safety and Orderliness: A Case Study of Multiple Deprived schools in Johannesburg.** This is a qualitative case study and data will be collected through document analysis and individual interviews with the principal and educators and focus group interviews with the student representative. The interviews will take approximately 30-45 minutes. I also intend to use take photos and audio record the individual interviews and the focus group interviews. The reason for audio recording is to capture the data accurately and for future reference when writing up.

It is envisaged that my research activities will not interfere with the students' lessons and other academic activities. All the ethics issues will be taken into consideration. For example, letter of request and consent forms will be sent to respective participants inviting them to engage in the research process. The consent documentation will contain brief information about the research project and the research expectations. Efforts will be made to ensure confidentiality of the data and to protect the privacy and anonymity of all participants and the school. Participation is voluntary for all participants. All participants will be accorded the right to withdraw from the research project at any time if they feel so inclined without any penalty. Further, participants will not be advantaged or disadvantaged in any way. There are no foreseeable risks in participating and participants will not be paid for participating in the study.

All research data will be destroyed between 3-5years after completion of the project. Only my supervisor and I will have access to the raw data that I collect. I hope that the study will add knowledge to existing literature about school leaders' practices in creating safety and orderliness in multiple deprived areas.

Please let me know if you require any further information. If you think you might need more

details about this research and therefore would like to know more details about it, you can contact my supervisor, Prof. Felix Maringe on Felix.maringe@wits.ac.za or alternatively you can contact me on caroadhola@gmail.com or 0621448929. I will be happy to share with you a detailed explanation of the purpose and procedures of the investigation.

Thank you very much for your help.

Yours sincerely,

Caroaa

NAME: Caroline Adhola

EMAIL: caroadhola@gmail.comTELEPHONE NUMBER: 0621448929

APPENDIX D: TEACHERS INFORMATION SHEET

Dear sir/madam

My name is Caroline Adhola and I am a PhD student at University of the Witwatersrand. I am conducting a research on the role of school leaders in creating safety and orderliness in secondary schools facing multiple deprivation in Gauteng Province.

My research topic is: A Social Justice Framework for Exploring the Role of Leaders in Redressing School Safety and Orderliness: A Case Study of Multiple Deprived schools in Johannesburg. My research involves interviewing you as a teacher to ascertain how school leaders create safety and orderliness in schools, manage teaching time and compensate for any time lost. I also intend to look at the structures put to support learning and collaboration in your school. I would therefore like to invite you to participate in this study. I would like to interview you and the interview will be audio tapped. I may take photographs too. The interview will take approximately 30-45 minutes. The reason why I am inviting you to be part of the study is because your participation will be of great value to the study.

Your name and identity will be kept confidential at all times and in all academic writing about the study. Your individual privacy will be maintained in all published and written data from the study.

All research data will be destroyed between 3-5 years after completion of the project. You will not be advantaged of disadvantaged in any way. Your participation is voluntary. If you choose to participate you can withdraw your permission at any time during this project without any penalty. There are no foreseeable risks in participating and you will not be paid for participating in this study.

Please let me know if you require any further information. If you think you might need more details about this research project and therefore would like to know more details about it, feel free to contact my supervisor, Prof. Felix Maringe on Felix.maringe@wits.ac.za or alternatively you can contact me on caroadhola@gmail.com or 0621448929. I will be happy to share with you a detailed explanation of the purpose and procedures of the investigation.

Thank you very much for your help.

Yours sincerely,

Caroaa

NAME: Caroline Adhola

EMAIL: caroadhola@gmail.com

TELEPHONE NUMBER: 0621448929

Appendix E: Teacher Consent Form

Please fill in and return the reply slip below indicating your willingness to be a participant in my voluntary research project called: **A Social Justice Framework for Exploring the Role of Leaders in Redressing School Safety and Orderliness: A Case Study of Multiple Deprived schools in Johannesburg.**

I, _____ give my consent for the following:

Permission to be audiotaped	**Circle one**
I agree to be audiotaped during the interview.	YES/NO
I know that the audiotapes will be used for this project only	YES/NO

Permission to be photographed	
I agree to be photographed	YES/NO
I know that photographing will be used for this project	YES/NO

Permission to be interviewed	
I would like to be interviewed for this study.	YES/NO
I know that I can stop the interview at any time and don't have to answer all the questions asked.	YES/NO

Informed Consent

I understand that:

1) my name and information will be kept confidential and safe and that my name and the name of my school will not be revealed.
2) I do not have to answer every question and can withdraw from the study at any time.
3) I can ask not to be audiotaped.
4) all the data collected during this study will be destroyed within 3-5 years after completion of the project.

Sign_____ Date_____

APPENDIX F: PROTOCOL AND INTERVIEW FOR THE PRINCIPAL

INTERVIEWS

PRINCIPALS

1. How would you define a safe and orderly school?
2. How would you describe the state of your school in terms of safety and orderliness?
3. What measurers have you put in place to alleviate insecurity in your school?
4. How do you manage instructional time and compensate for any time lost due to disruptive behaviour?
5. How do you make learners feel safe in school?
6. Describe how you encourage positive behaviour in your school?
7. Discuss the structures that you have placed to support teacher collaboration?
8. How are the strategies identified through collaboration implemented in classroom?
9. How do you minimize factors that can disrupt collaborative behaviour?

Protocol

1. My name is Caroline Adhola and I am a PhD student at University of the Witwatersrand, and I thank you for allowing me in.
2. The reason for coming to do the interview and the purpose of my study is to examine how leaders create safety and orderliness for school improvement.
3. I want to assure you that what we are going to discuss during the interview is not going to cause any harm to you. I am not going to share the information with anyone else except my supervisor. Your name will not be mentioned in this research, instead pseudonyms or coding system will be used and confidentiality will be maintained at all cost. You have the right to withdraw at any stage of the research without any penalty should you feel like doing so.
4. I am hoping that this interview will not take more than 40 minutes of your time.
5. I would like to ask for your permission to record the interview.
6. May you please sign this consent form before we begin

APPENDIX G: INTERVIEW FOR TEACHERS TEACHER

1. How long have you been a teacher in this school?
2. How would you describe safety in this school?
3. What role do you play as a teacher to make learners and other teachers feel safe in school?
4. What challenges do you face in trying to achieve this?
5. How would you define teacher collaboration?
6. What strategies are in place to facilitate regular, meaningful collaboration (eg meeting times, timetabling) in you school?
7. What strategies are in place to support regular classroom observation and feedback so that teachers can reflect on their practice?
8. What professional learning on engaging in collaborative strategies has the school provided for teachers?
9. How do you minimize disruptive behavior in you class? How do compensate for any time lost?
10. In what ways can the issue of safety and orderliness be improved in your school?

Protocol

1. My name is Caroline Adhola and I am a PhD student at University of the Witwatersrand, and I thank you for allowing me in.
2. The reason for coming to do the interview and the purpose of my study is to examine how leaders create safety and orderliness for school improvement.
3. I want to assure you that what we are going to discuss during the interview is not going to cause any harm to you. I am not going to share the information with anyone else except my supervisor. Your name will not be mentioned in this research, instead pseudonyms or coding system will be used and confidentiality will be maintained at all cost. You have the right to withdraw at any stage of the research without any penalty should you feel like doing so.
4. I am hoping that this interview will not take more than 40 minutes of your time.
5. I would like to ask for your permission to record this interview.
6. May you please sign this consent form before we begin?

APPENDIX H: INTERVIEW FOR LEARNER REPRESENTATIVES

INTERVIEWS

1. How would you describe the issue of safety and orderliness in your school?
2. What are the causes of insecurity in your school?
3. What does the school leadership do to make educators and learners feel safe?
4. How does the school support effective learning?
5. How do you contribute to a sense of cooperation/team work? What could others do?
6. How do teachers provide for good use of time when learners arrive early?
7. How would you describe the relationship between teachers and learners?
8. Explain how indiscipline cases are handled in your school?
9. Are students rewarded for positive behaviour? If yes, explain.
10. How is teaching and learning conducted in your school?

Protocol

1. My name is Caroline Adhola and I am a PhD student at University of the Witwatersrand and I thank you for giving me your time.
2. The reason for coming to do this interview and the purpose of my study is to examine the role of leaders in creating safety and orderliness for school improvement.
3. I want to assure you that what we discuss during the interview is not going to cause any harm to you. I am not going to share the information with anyone else except my supervisor. Your name will not be mentioned in this research, instead pseudonyms or coding system will be used and confidentiality will be maintained at all cost. You have the right to withdraw from the research at any stage without any penalty should you feel like doing so.
4. I am hoping that this interview is not going to take more than 40 minutes of your valuable time.
5. I would like to ask your permission to record the focus group interview.
6. May you please sign this consent form before we begin

APPENDIX I: LEARNER INFORMATION SHEET

Dear learner,

My name is Caroline Adhola I am a student in the School of Education at the University of the Witwatersrand in South Africa. I am conducting research that is required for my degree on: A Social Justice Framework for Exploring the Role of Leaders in Redressing School Safety and Orderliness: A Case Study of Multiple Deprived schools in Johannesburg.

My investigation involves understanding what makes your school unsafe. In addition, I would like to learn how your principal, educators and you as student leaders do to make your school a safe place. The reason why I have chosen your school is because it is one of the schools that have experienced cases of safety threats.

I was wondering whether you would mind if I asked you to participate in my research. I will need your help with filling in a form about yourself (biodata). After that you will participate in a focus group interview with me to discuss the issues of safety in your school.

Remember, this is not a test, it is not for marks and it is voluntary, which means that you don't have to do it. Also, if you decide halfway through that you prefer to stop, it is completely your choice and will not affect you negatively in any way. I will not be using your own name, but I will make one up so no one can identify you. All information about you will be kept confidential in all my writing about the study. Also, all collected information will be stored safely and destroyed between 3-5 years after I have completed my project.

Your parents have also been given an information sheet and consent form to allow me to work with you; but remember that at the end of the day it is your decision to be part of the research.

I look forward to working with you!

Please feel free to contact me if you have any questions.

Yours sincerely,

Caroline Adhola

Telephone number: 0621448929

Or

caroadhola@gmail.com