
**HOW POLICY DISCOURSES AND CONTEXTUAL
REALITIES INFLUENCE ENVIRONMENTAL TEACHING
AND LEARNING PROCESSES IN EARLY CHILDHOOD
DEVELOPMENT: A CASE STUDY OF THE RAGLAN
ROAD CHILD CARE CENTRE**

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for the degree of**

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ABSTRACT

This case study considers the relationship between context, school policy and environmental teaching and learning processes at a community-based early childhood development centre in South Africa. The study recognises that educational practices in the early childhood development field are shaped by historical, cultural, economic and political realities at both local and national levels. It is from the understanding that each school is a unique composition of these shaping factors that the research was designed to consider the community-based school participating in this study.

By compiling a contextual profile, this study attempts to consider dominant contextual factors affecting the school. Through the critical discourse analysis of a school policy document, this study considers local level policy, and through the literature chapter, national policy. Teacher interviews provide insight into teacher understanding of school policy in response to contextual issues, as well as providing insight into how teachers perceive their translation of policy into teaching practice. Observations of lessons in the centre provided an opportunity to see how context and policy translated into and influenced environmental teaching and learning processes.

This study looks at how environmental education is addressed in the Raglan Road Child Care Centre, and provides insight into how environmental education within the context of the school and in relation to school policy may be strengthened.

It comments on the tensions and ambivalences arising from the relationships between context, policy and environmental teaching and learning processes and makes recommendations to address these ambivalences in ways that are contextually relevant.

The main recommendations were designed to be practically useful for the school involved in the study and are focused around engaging the ambivalences emerging from this study to open up 'spaces' for deliberating environmental teaching and learning processes and other tensions arising out of the study at an ECD level. Recommendations included: 1) engaging with the strong development focus in school policy and the educational focus in national policy and teacher discourse; 2) deliberating the ways in which school policy and national policy respond to risk; 3) engaging with the ambivalence in the school-parent relationship; 4) the re-alignment of the explicit curriculum and broadening the contextually-based view of whole child development; and 5) engaging the ambivalence in approaches to education at the centre.



DEDICATION

To all the children at the Raglan Road Childcare Centre who show daily courage in the face of the many challenges affecting their lives, and who, in spite of overwhelming odds, still find moments in every day to play, to dance, to laugh, and to build their dreams for tomorrow.



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LIST OF ACRONYMS

CDA	Critical Discourse Analysis
CNE	Christian National Education
CSD	Centre for Social Development
C2005	Curriculum 2005
DoE	Department of Education
ECD	Early Childhood Development
EE	Environmental Education
IUCN	International Union for the Conservation of Nature
LSM	Learning Support Materials
RNCS	Revised National Curriculum Statement
SGB	School Governing Body
UNESCO	United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organisation
WWF	World Wildlife Fund

CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

The early childhood field can be visualised as a multicoloured patchwork quilt bound by a thread of commitment to young children. The colours and patterns of the quilt are as diverse as the contexts, policies and beliefs in early childhood ... [t]he hope for the future is a quilt of shades of green where early childhood environmental education is promoted and supported in all contexts and at all levels...

(Environmental Protection Authority 2003:3)



1.1 THE SEARCH FOR A RESEARCHABLE STUDY

During the conceptualization of this study, and after attending a particularly moving presentation on discourse analysis and positioning, I intended to look at how children are positioned in society. As with many first-time researchers, I had already made up my mind about what I would find – that children were somehow constructed as second-class citizens. Through these initial birth pains, my supervisors, peers and I began to look at what I meant by ‘positioning’, and how this was related to environmental education. ‘Positioning’ slowly began to shift to ‘influence’, and ‘society’ became context.

After a very long period of listening to my supervisor tell me to wait until I had completed the study before I decided what the findings were, I realised that I knew very little about the Early Childhood Development (ECD) sector¹, and what experience I had was based on the privately-based Montessori Schooling System, which I had been studying for a ‘Diploma in Modern Montessori’. This put me in a very poor position to ‘decide’ anything. It did, however, begin to open up opportunities for meaningful research interests. This was further narrowed by the time-frame of the study, and by the academic guidelines for a half-thesis.

During the compilation of a contextual profile of three types of ECD centres in Grahamstown as one of my earlier course assignments, I realised that this sector was greatly under-researched, especially from an environmental education perspective (Vallabh 2004a). This was one of the more important shaping factors of this study, as it required a careful study of what the field actually consisted of. This need was all the greater due to my lack of experience in the ECD sector as I came from a conservation management and education background. Through the contextual profile, I identified two schools I wished to conduct the research in, one a private school-based ECD school, and the other, a community-based multipurpose centre. The decision to conduct the research in only one school was made as my research interest developed and the scope of the study was clarified, during which time I decided to conduct the study in the community-based site as I felt that this would provide more useful insight from environmental education and social justice perspectives.

Through a process of consultation with the Centre for Social Development (CSD) in Grahamstown, and through the compilation of the initial contextual profile (Vallabh 2004a), the Raglan Road Community Centre was chosen. This site had several favourable factors, including i) it was close enough to town to make frequent visits

¹ The ECD sector includes a wide range of programmes and interventions for 0-6 years old and 6-9 year olds. This study focuses on the 0-6 years age group.

feasible; ii) the area was relatively safe for a woman on her own; iii) I had already begun to establish a good working relationship with the teachers and staff at the centre; iv) the school was highly functional, with enough resources to sustain the programme; v) there were a number of peripheral programmes being run in support of the ECD programme, all of which were community initiated; and vi) the teachers perceived no explicit environmental education programme.

1.2 THE RESEARCH FOCUS

This study focuses on environmental teaching and learning processes in one community-based ECD centre in Grahamstown in the Eastern Cape, South Africa. Through this report, I intend exploring and documenting how context, policy and environmental teaching and learning processes are inter-related, in addition to describing environmental teaching and learning processes at the centre. The study aims to explicitly describe these processes in ways that are meaningful for further work in the area.

1.3 THE RESEARCH SITE

This study is based on research generated at the Raglan Road Community Centre, and specifically, at the Childcare Centre. This centre is a community-based centre run in partnership with the Centre for Social Development (CSD), relying on the CSD for many of their training needs and managerial support. It is located in Grahamstown East, in the Eastern Cape, South Africa, an area which faces many social, economic and environmental issues and risks (Moller 2001; also see Vallabh 2004a and Hamaamba 2004). Grahamstown East is a township area on the borders of central Grahamstown (see fig 1.1). Like many other South African towns and cities, Grahamstown was affected by the *Group Areas Act*, which was passed in 1950. Although segregation began long before the passing of this law, imposition of this law forced the populace into a segregated settlement plan, with white folk living in central Grahamstown and enjoying municipal services, prime land and the provision of state supported education systems and training (Holleman 1997; NEPI 1992), and black folk being consigned to the fringes of the town. During the 1960's and 1970's, the Apartheid government firmly held the view that all non-whites were in 'white' South Africa as temporary labourers and refused to spend, or spent very little on education (see Section 2.3), housing, welfare and services for black people (Holleman 1997). Due to these political structures, housing for the black population of Grahamstown became problematic. Although the population was growing, there was nowhere for them to live, and after the council application to raise a loan was turned down, the local administration released an old cemetery for temporary housing. This incident and a number of similar decisions resulted in the development of a number of informal settlements on the borders of central Grahamstown. Pressure for

housing is still evident today in the informal settlements of Grahamstown (Holleman 1997).

The Raglan Road Community Centre is situated within an area of the township that has some service provision, although services are unreliable and limited (Vallabh 2004a; Thambo 2004, also see fig. 1.2).

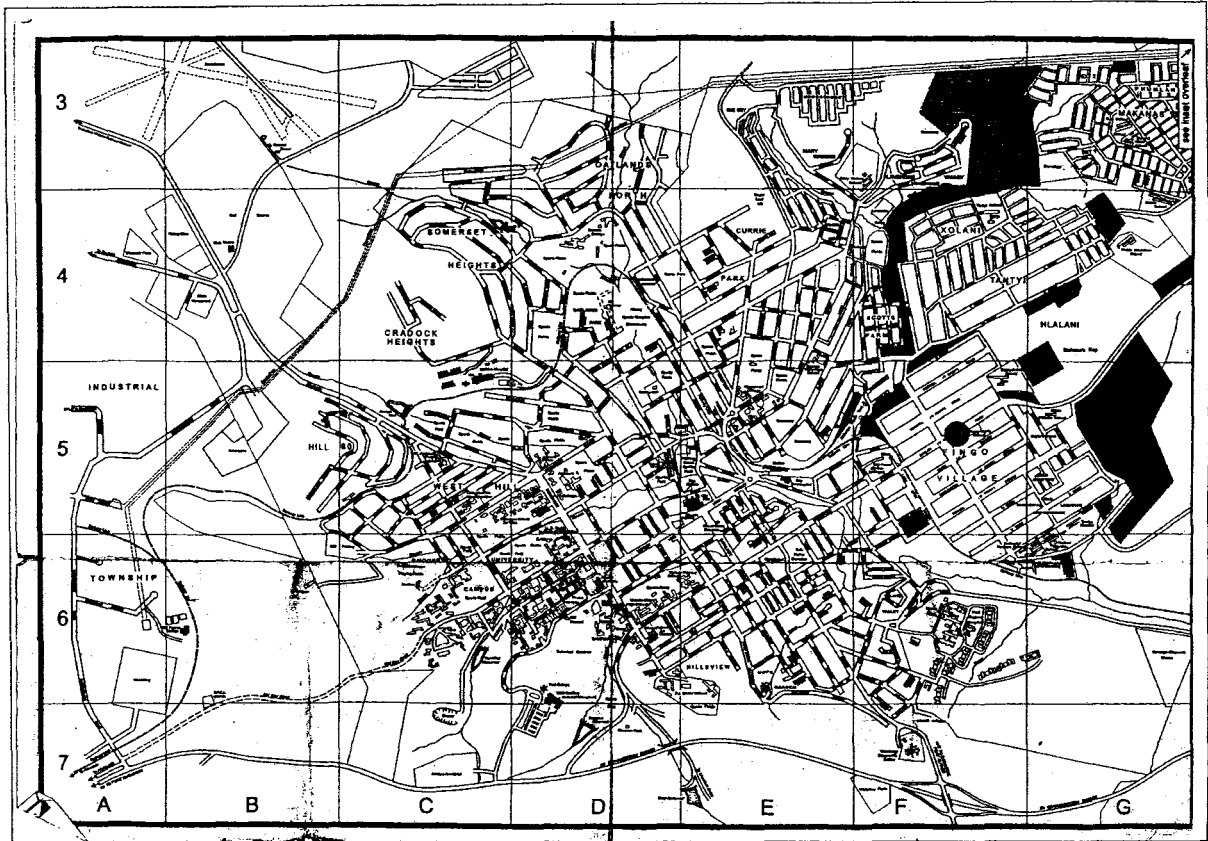


Fig 1.1. Map of Grahamstown and surrounding townships.
● Raglan Road Community Centre



Fig 1.2. Pictures of the area surrounding the Raglan Road Community Centre, depicting some of the contextual issues affecting the surrounding community.

1.4 THE RESEARCH QUESTION

As described above, the research question has been shaped and limited by a number of factors in order to make the study manageable in the allotted time-frame. After a great deal of subtle shifting between ideas and foci, the question settled into this current form.

How do policy discourses and contextual realities influence environmental teaching and learning processes in early childhood development centres?

The goals of the study are:

- To gain insight into the contextual environment of a community-based ECD centre;
- To explore the relationship between context and school policy²; and

² As discovered in this study, school policy within an environmental education research interest is influenced by national and international policy, so these have also been considered in the study, although the main focus was on school policy.

- To explore the relationship between context, school policy and environmental teaching and learning processes.

With the long term view, beyond the scope of this study:

- To inform future studies in environmental education in the under-researched ECD sector;
- To create an interest in ECD as an important area for environmental education in ways that are responsive to children in context.

1.5 OVERVIEW OF THE CONTENTS AND STRUCTURE OF THIS STUDY

Chapter Two: In the following chapter, I present the contextual landscape of the study. The chapter includes an overview of ECD in South Africa as it currently exists, as well as the political and policy influences of the past. In addition I attempt to outline the various components that constitute ECD in South Africa, with a particular focus on community-based approaches to ECD. I also use this chapter to locate ECD within an environmental education and curriculum framework by examining both the implicit and explicit curriculum, and theories of risk and sustainable development.

Chapter Three: In this chapter, I describe and discuss the overall design of the study through the methodological approaches and the methods of data generation and analysis. (Further details of these approaches can be found at the beginning of each section, where I discuss findings resulting from the data generation processes, as outlined in chapter 4 & 5.) In addition, I include an outline of the considerations of ethical, validity and trustworthiness issues.

Chapter Four: In this chapter, I first present data generated through the compilation of a contextual profile, focussing on issues identified through interviews and a newspaper search. I then go on to present data generated through a critical discourse analysis (CDA) of a school policy document. These data sets are aimed at providing insight into contextual issues affecting the learners and the school, and at providing insight into the socio-cultural nature of the school policy document. This chapter begins to shed light on some of the relationships between context and policy at a local level.

Chapter Five: In this chapter, I present data generated through two teacher interviews and through observations of five lessons at the school. The experiences and insights gained through the contextual profile and CDA of school policy are used to guide the analysis of data presented in this chapter. This chapter carefully reports on lessons observed during the study to provide insight into the links between context, policy and teaching and learning processes.

Chapter Six: This chapter draws on the descriptions and analysis presented in chapters four and five to discuss the relationships between context, school policy and teaching and learning processes that influence environmental learning at the school in light of the study's aims and research question. These relationships are presented and discussed with special emphasis on the ambivalence that arises between various influences and shaping factors.

Chapter Seven: In this chapter, I reflect on the research process and the emerging findings of this case study. I then reflect on directions for further research, as highlighted in this study and present recommendations with regard to future development of environmental education approaches in the ECD sector, specifically in community-based ECD sites.

1.6 CONCLUSION

In this chapter, I have described the process of developing my research interest and this study. I then went on to describe my research focus and introduce the research site. Thereafter, I presented my research question and goals. Finally, I provided an overview of each chapter in the study.

In the next chapter, I present the conceptual landscape of the study, with an overview of ECD in South Africa and a description of the political and policy influences of the past. I also outline the various components that constitute ECD in South Africa, with a focus on community-based approaches to ECD. In addition, I locate ECD within an environmental education and curriculum framework.

CHAPTER 2

“THE STATE OF PLAY”?

Basic education provides the foundation for all future education and learning. Its goal, as concerns those in the pre-school and primary school-age population, whether enrolled in school or not, is to produce children who are happy with themselves and others, who find learning exciting and develop inquiring minds, who begin to build up a storehouse of knowledge about the world and, more importantly, an approach to seeking that they can use to develop throughout their lives. Basic education is also integral to lifelong learning, especially increasing the level of adult literacy ... learning to know, to do, to be ... and to live together with others ... [i]t is thus, not only the foundation for lifelong learning, but also the foundation for sustainable development.

(UNESCO 2002:13)



2.1. INTRODUCTION

In this chapter, I provide a theoretical and contextual background to this study through a review of relevant literature. I begin with a broad overview of the ECD sector in a South African context, drawing on international research in the field to narrate current ECD practices as well as issues currently facing the field. I then go on to narrate the political journey of ECD in South Africa, drawing on policy developments to explain trends and developments. Thereafter, I examine policy and curriculum influences on curricula in ECD settings, drawing on various theories to narrate these influences. Finally, I provide a brief outline of the historical development of environmental education, both internationally and nationally, ending with the sustainable development approaches within which this study is situated.

2.2. A BROAD OVERVIEW OF EARLY CHILDHOOD DEVELOPMENT EDUCATION IN SOUTH AFRICA AND SPECIFICALLY, THE EASTERN CAPE

The broader landscape of Early Childhood Development (ECD) provision is characterised by that of unequal provision. This affects distribution and quality of ECD particularly between urban and rural areas, and between former white and non-white communities (RSA 2001: Section 2). In Grahamstown, the majority of the poor population are Xhosa, and live in Grahamstown East (Van Hees 1998; also see chapter 1.3).

The Nationwide Audit of ECD Provisioning in South Africa estimated that in 2001, approximately 1 million of the 6 million children in South Africa in the 0-6 year age bracket were enrolled in some form of early childhood care (RSA 2001). 23 482 sites were identified in the afore mentioned audit of ECD sites. 3,231 ECD sites (14% of the total) were identified in the Eastern Cape. It is estimated that 152,451 children were enrolled in schools under the control of the provincial Department of Education in the Eastern Cape. The highest number of ECD provision sites nationally were community-based (49%), with a further 34% being home-based and only 17% being school-based. 6,354 practitioners and child minders were counted and an educator-child ratio of 1:24 was determined for the province. Country-wide, the larger part of ECD education services are for children aged 3 - 5 years old (RSA 2001; Atmore 2002).

Home-based sites generally cater for children from birth to 5 years of age. They are owned and run by private individuals and have no formal training requirements. These sites receive little or no funding from the government. There are two types of school-based sites in South Africa – those that are privately funded such as Montessori Schools and those attached to private schools, and those that are funded through the

Department of Education and provincial government structures. These government funded sites are often attached to a primary school and have a Grade-R (Reception Year) class.

Community-based Sites: Raglan Road Community Centre is a community-based site (see Section 1.3). These sites are community initiatives, with community members forming the larger part of support structures for the school. They are often assisted by NGOs (either financially or through services), community fund-raisers and centres such as the Centre for Social Development in Grahamstown or the Early Learning Resource Unit (ELRU) in Cape Town. These schools generally have a school governing body and are independent of government regulation and control. These schools generally cater for children from 3 to 6 years of age, often with Grade-R programmes that are sometimes funded by the education department, but run by the school governing body.

Factors that affect the quality of ECD programmes include finances, resource availability, lack of minimum standards/ guidelines for registration, absence of evaluation or monitoring systems, educator qualification inequalities, the absence of a national curriculum for children under 5 years of age and inadequate support services (RSA 2001; Atmore 2002). At present, the main government focus in ECD provision is focused on the grade-R (reception year class).

Many of the government, NGO and research initiatives in ECD education argue for the improvement of the following aspects of child-development; social (social behavioural development), mental (cognitive development), economic (long-term poverty alleviation strategies), emotional (learning to express feelings and control them) and physical (brain development and whole body development), all of which are based on substantial scientific and sociological research and documentation (Biersteker & Vale 2003; RSA 2001). There is evidence to show that attending an ECD centre may increase IQ; enhance cognitive, verbal and social development; provide better school preparation, which increases the children's ability to cope with the stresses of school; decrease likelihood of exhibiting delinquency and anti-social behaviour; decrease violent tendencies; decrease the likelihood of repeating grades and dramatically help form concepts of social structure, equity and democracy (socialisation patterns) (see for example Schweinhart 2001; RSA 2001; NEPI 1992; State of Texas Education 1999; Katz 1999; Massey 1998; Schweinhart 1997; Schweinhart 1994). There is also a belief that these years play a pivotal part in spiritual development (Biersteker & Vale 2003). These first few years of life are essential to the all-round development of children, providing the basic social and cultural skills and orientation they will need in later years. Also, a healthy environment is seen as a key influence on whole-child development (Biersteker & Vale 2003, Atmore 2002).

The Department of Education (DoE) in South Africa (RSA 2001:11) notes that it is during their early childhood years that children:

develop their abilities to think and speak, learn and reason and lay the foundation for their values and social behaviour as adults, ... and [these years] are also critical for the acquisition of the concepts, skills and attitudes that lay the foundation for lifelong learning.

These areas of potential development open up learning possibilities that can be supported in early childhood education processes, including the significance of social issues, such as poverty in ECD settings. There is also potential to consider how these factors may influence the learning and fostering of democracy and equity in a changing society as well as the potential to work towards these issues.

The informal structure of ECD education in South Africa lends itself to a process of education embedded with environmental concepts and ideals, for example, an exploration of the relationship between contextual issues and environmental degradation or poverty and resource consumption, and can potentially support learning about areas of the children's environment that are impacted by social injustice and other large and prominent social issues, such as poverty, abuse, HIV/AIDS, discrimination, lack of human dignity and unsustainability.

The theoretical framework for this study is situated within the spheres of social development, education and sustainable development (which incorporates environmental education processes) (NEPI 1992; RSA 2001; Atmore 2002). Early childhood development centres are formed around a collection of child, community and parent needs in a particular context, leading to a large number of theoretical, environmental and social influences depending on the centre one is looking at.

ECD is broadly defined as strategies that meet the basic needs of children from age 0 to at least age 9, divided into a 0-6 years pre-school bracket and a 6-9 years primary school bracket. From published matter discussing ECD, I have identified four general areas that contribute to the structure of ECD centres: 1) context and environment; 2) primary health care; 3) whole child development; and 4) children's rights. It is a combination of these areas that shape and determine the structure and type of programme a centre offers (Porteus 2004; Biersteker & Vale 2003; Atmore 2002; Atmore 1998; NEPI 1992; RSA 2001). Each is briefly discussed below:

CHILDREN'S RIGHTS: Much priority has been given to children's rights in the last decade. ECD centres are seen as a 'tool' for social upliftment, and are potentially able to target and alleviate many of the social issues that affect children. An example of this is the presence of a nutrition programme in many ECD centres that responds to a child's right to food. In addition, many centres monitor neglect, abuse and other such contextual issues, and provide support structures for the alleviation of these issues (World Bank 1997; Stats SA 2004). Although children's rights have formed a central conceptual pillar for policy development in the new democracy, ECD has been consigned to the periphery of this policy attention, especially in the education sector (Porteus 2004). Children's rights have influenced policy on a national level, as well as at a school level (see Sections 2.3 and 4.3).

PRIMARY HEALTH CARE AND NUTRITION: ECD centres provide a structure that enables easier access to primary health care, providing a central point of practice, and staff who are already engaged in daily activity with children. Care givers are able to offer long-term supervision of learners, and are more likely to observe changes in behaviour or prolonged illness than a visiting nurse would. Teachers are also in contact with parents on an almost daily basis, and are thus in a position to liaise with them on health care issues. For example, the school in this study has a herbal remedy and food garden nutrition programme as a form of cost effective health care, and many of the issues that teachers deal with are environmental health issues (see Section 4.2.6).

There are two major challenges affecting children's health in South Africa: poverty-related health issues and HIV/AIDS (see Section 4.1). Approximately 75% of children in South Africa have inadequate access to food and healthy nutrition leading to malnutrition (Biersteker & Vale 2003, Hornby 2004). Research shows that malnutrition in the early childhood years (birth to 6 years old), can affect children's cognitive (perceptual) development and learning ability, and lead to poor school performance and, eventually, school drop out and behavioural problems (NEPI 1992, World Bank 1997, Steyn 2000, Thom 2000, RSA 2001, Biersteker & Vale 2003). In addition, malnutrition can also affect verbal and non-verbal development, visual-motor development and hand-eye co-ordination. It is also recognised that the window for cognitive development falls within these early childhood years, and once past them, the damage is often irreversible (NEPI 1992, World Bank 1997, Steyn 2000, Thom 2000, RSA 2001, Biersteker & Vale 2003).

Section 28(1) of the South African Constitution notes that "every child has the right to basic health care services" (Children's Institute 2002: 3). Besides the Constitution, the Draft of the new National Health Bill is the only piece of national legislation that addresses children's health issues, although this is not done specifically (*ibid*). There is no mention of children's health rights in the new Child Care Act. The lack of child focus

in the National Health Bill places children at the bottom of a list of priorities. “[T]his is because children are not represented in government, are often not able to speak up for themselves, do not vote, and invariably find themselves in a position of powerlessness in the hierarchy of society” (*ibid*). There was however, provision for free health care for pregnant mothers and children under 6 years of age in the primary health system reform process, which has since been extended to all South Africans (Porteus 2004).

The need to provide for and prioritise health structures dedicated to children’s health through services, structures, resourcing and staff is evident. Although there is allowance for free basic health care to all persons in national policies, and the right to health care is enshrined in the Constitution, the reality of the situation is that this is not national practice in South Africa. Instead, clinics in rural and peri-urban areas often run out of basic medicines (Hornby 2004 & Thambo 2004 pers. comm.) and misappropriation of the health budget (Grocott’s Mail 2003:1) has led to a lack of funds for re-stocking, and training in community clinics, in addition, the 2004/2005 health budget was been decreased (Slater 2004). This has put communities in the position of having to cope with less than the basic health care requirements that are needed for themselves and their children. Marginalised communities often have no ‘national voice’ and their needs are low priorities in the political agenda that dictates policy and the prioritisation of resources (Children’s Institute 2002). This leaves these communities and the organisations working with them in a state of frustration and need (Hornby pers. comm. 2004).

In response, one of the options communities and partner organisations are working towards involves a strategy of community projects and programmes that enable communities to help themselves, and that empower them to meet some of their basic needs from within, with a minimum of resource input. Due to the lack of freely available resources, these ‘self-help’ programmes are forced to be sustainable, often as part of larger programmes that favour more holistic development approaches. The herbal remedy and nutrition programme at Raglan Road Community Centre is one of the community responses to self-help health care (Vallabh 2004b).

WHOLE-CHILD DEVELOPMENT: Whole child development refers to an educational and developmental approach that focuses on a number of areas of a child’s development as opposed to a focus on cognitive development. For example, whole child development considers physical, emotional, cognitive, social and creative development, and refers to life skills as well as skills children would need to gain employment. Whole-child development is seen as an important function of ECD centres, especially community and school based centres. Theory informing the practice of whole-child development is as contextual and tailored as ECD centres in general. Theoretical perspectives have been developed to guide practice in the following areas:

- Barriers to learning, inclusion and managing diversity;
- Learning and learning-centred education, including play;
- Promoting healthy development enabling active learning; and
- Human development from birth to death, development stages and approaches to development (CSD 2003a).

Amongst the most broadly used theories informing policy and practice in the ECD field are those developed by Piaget (Wood 1999), Vygotsky (Moll 1990; Wood 1999), and most recently, Bruner (Wood 1999). Piaget, in his theory discussing phases of development, looks at early childhood as a period of active and tactile learning. Vygotsky looks at the development of language and thinking as a social phenomenon. Bruner draws on Piaget and Vygotsky's theories to discuss a development theory that concentrates on the different processes used in creative problem solving, laying great emphasis on language, communication and instruction as important in relation to the development of knowledge and understanding. Both active learning and social interaction are seen as integral parts of learning in many ECD centres (Hornby pers. comm. 2004). Of the other dominant theories, Herlock (CSD 2003a), with his theory of play as a tool for learning in the early childhood years, is also greatly influential. There is, however, no standard set of theories framing ECD practice in South Africa. The field is mainly practical, and practice is informed by what has worked and what has not (Larkin 2004 pers. comm.).

CONTEXT and ENVIRONMENT: Different environments have the potential to influence whole child development in a number of different ways, and as such environmental learning is integral to ECD learning processes (the implicit curriculum as noted by Eisner 1985). An analysis of interviews for a contextual profile of three ECD schools in Grahamstown indicated that teachers recognised the importance of taking the home environment and the larger community environment (with all their related issues) into account in ECD settings (Vallabh 2004). They believed that all these places, including school, provided different and varied learning environments for the learners, and that issues in one environment were often closely related to issues in one of the child's other learning environments. The programme manager of the school chosen for this study stressed the need for a multi-environment consciousness when helping children to deal with their daily challenges (Thambo pers. comm.. 2004). In addition, teachers felt that different environments could greatly support and enrich each other, and that this was in fact necessary for the healthy functioning of both school and family units. The teachers interviewed saw the environment as a place full of opportunities for learning, exploring and sharing, all of which encourage healthy development (Vallabh 2004).

Amos-Hatch (1995) notes that the context includes areas of cultural belief and cultural norms, resource availability, and environmental issues in the immediate and larger environment, all of which inform practice in the ECD field. During a contextual profile study of three schools in the Grahamstown area, teachers highlighted a broad range of contextual issues as the main environmental issues and risks that potentially affect learning processes and the lives of learners in their schools (see Section 4.2). In addition, issues of sanitation, water supply, waste management and other basic municipal services were identified in a newspaper search as issues affecting this community as a whole (Vallabh 2004a). This reflects a broad view of environment as constituted by a combination of political, social, economic and biophysical aspects (as articulated by O'Donoghue 1993), and which provides the perspective on environment taken in this study.

2.3. THE POLITICAL AND POLICY JOURNEY OF ECD IN SOUTH AFRICA: PATTERNS OF ECD PROVISIONING

...the South African state has not given tangible recognition to the importance of the early years of life, has not displayed a comprehensive understanding of or an integrated approach to the problem, and it has as yet revealed little evidence of a willingness to move towards the prioritization of services on the basis of need. Rather ...state provision for pre-school education and care in South Africa can be characterized as totally inadequate, a situation exacerbated by the fact that what state provision there is, occurs inversely to need. State provision can further be characterized as segregated, fragmented, uncoordinated, and as lacking in both a comprehensive vision and a commitment to democratic involvement.

(Van den Berg & Vergnani 1987, cited in NEPI 1992:11)

In compiling this section of the context of ECD provisioning in South Africa, it became apparent that there were a limited number of published sources available, especially at a government level, from which to create a profile. This is perhaps indicative of the lack of focus and support that characterises the ECD field in South Africa.

In 1940, the committee of the Heads of Education Departments differentiated between nursery schools as institutions whose purpose was primarily education, and crèches which were seen as a custodial substitute for the home (NEPI 1992). This resulted in a separation between education and welfare that has profoundly affected all aspects of the ECD field since then. Although welfare subsidies were available to all groups during this period, educational subsidies were not available to African children. Furthermore, although these educational subsidies were initially calculated to cover the running costs of the programmes, they did not increase in line with running costs over the years. This

resulted in those centres that were subsidised having to rely more and more on fees to cover running expenses, resulting in nursery schools with trained teachers becoming privileged middle-class institutions, while institutions serving working-class children provided only custodial care. In effect, this re-enforced white privilege and non-white disadvantage. Unequal teacher training further entrenched this racial domination (NEPI 1992, Porteus 2004).

During Apartheid, however, the Nationalist government was not in favour of any form of provision for young children, feeling that it was a parent's duty to bring up their own children. This resulted in government policy discouraging the development of ECD (0-6 years old) services during the period between 1949 – 1969. With the consolidation of the apartheid system, 'poor white' children were provided with educational subsidies according to parental earnings, and parental income limits were introduced for the welfare subsidy, but the welfare subsidy for non-white children was in effect removed for the majority of African children with most of these subsidies being received by coloured children (with only a few local authorities supporting some centres), and training programmes for African teachers were forced to close as part of the governments attempt to eliminate mission schools (NEPI 1992, Porteus 2004).

In 1969, because of the National Education Policy Act of 1967, the white provincial education departments were legally empowered to take over pre-primary education and set up teacher training, resulting in the expansion of ECD provision for white children in the 1970's. Pre-primary education was put on hold once again in the mid 1980's, with the official reason being the exclusion of pre-primary education from the calculations of the educational budget and the introduction of the new tricameral 'own affairs' dispensation. Within other sectors, per-capita subsidies for Indian and coloured children remained low. In 1979, the Department of Education and Training was authorised to register and subsidize pre-primary schools; however, after a short period during which increasing numbers of community schools for African children qualified for the subsidy in the mid 1980's, this form of support was frozen in 1988. Although there were some instances of teacher training for African and coloured ECD (0-6) teachers during the period between 1972 and the 1980's through state funding, though none for Indian teachers, all of these courses were phased out by the end of 1990. The assistant courses for Indian teachers were also phased out when training at technical colleges was introduced prior to 1992 (*ibid*). Although the state did phase out training, there were and remain a number of NGOs and private ECD ventures that supported teacher training through donor funding. (The Bernard van Leer Foundation is a donor organisation that sources funding for training and support for ECD initiatives in South Africa and other 'developing' countries and The College of Modern Montessori in Johannesburg are examples of these.)

The treatment of children under this system of provision served as an important piece of apartheid scaffolding. These strategies were actively aimed at constructing a society based on the principles of inequity, fostered by supporting unequal patterns of cognitive and whole child development based on race (implemented through a lack of teacher training, and variations in curricula based on race), the differential seeding of human potential (and possibilities) and further establishing the concepts of power and human worth in South African society.

During the planning for a shift to democracy, one of the more significant policy processes for ECD in South Africa was the National Educational Policy Investigation, which ran between 1990 and 1992. One of the key perspectives to come out of this process was to rights-based approach to ECD policy questions, as a result of which ECD became an extension of children's rights 'to live and develop to their full potential', and women's rights, enabling them to have control and power over their own lives (NEPI 1992; Porteus 2004). This was further supported and strengthened by the ratification of the Constitution of South Africa (Porteus 2004), which is arguably one of the most important policy developments during the democracy to affect ECD in South Africa because the rights of the child and equality and democracy for all citizens are enshrined (although at this time, there is no right to ECD provision within The Constitution). This same Constitution also enshrines the right to a healthy environment that is not harmful to the health and welfare of a person in its Bill of Rights.

With the change in government and the forming of a new democracy, a new political will and approach to children began to emerge through the following: i) the signing of the convention of the Rights of the Child by the new government; ii) the provision of free medical services for pregnant women and children (although this provision is currently ineffective in many areas due to a lack of staff and provisions in many clinics and hospitals); iii) the establishment of a government department for ECD, which includes the foundation phase, within the Department of Education; iv) the establishment of a family and child section within the Ministry of Welfare; and v) the drawing up of Education and Welfare White Papers with sections on ECD, with a focus on the provision of a compulsory reception year for all 5-year-olds (Atmore 1998).

During the first two years of democracy, the *White Paper on Education and Training* (RSA 1995:33-34) identified ECD as an area of priority needing attention, and committed the government to the provision of ten years of free compulsory schooling per child, to begin with a Reception Year catering to five-year-olds.

In providing a broad policy vision for ECD, the DoE's *Interim Policy on Early Childhood Development* (1996) emphasised the multi-pronged and integrated nature of ECD strategies that included a range of partnerships. It also suggested a framework for the introduction of a Reception Year through a National Implementation Plan (Porteus 2004). In 1996, due to a conflict of will, the political leadership of the DoE approved two research processes in place of a massive investment into ECD service expansion and redress (*ibid*). These two processes included i) a national audit of service provision, and ii) a national pilot project considering models of ECD service provisioning. Although these processes inevitably delayed investment decisions into ECD services, they have potentially provided a more informed vision for ECD service provisioning (*ibid*).

One of the tensions that was evident in the national audit of service provision was that between a community-based, multi-age-group model of intersectorial provision with an emphasis on the development of safety nets for children and families on the one hand, and the school-based model that focused on formal education (and later, on the provision of a Reception year) on the other (Porteus 2004). Community-based centres inevitably serve children who are faced with a number of development challenges and issues, with under-trained or untrained teachers, and living in poor socio-economic conditions. Although many school-based sites serve a number of poorer children due to feeding and, in some cases, free schooling, formal school setups often reflect far fewer socio-economic challenges to development. In addition to the above-mentioned policy influences, a large number of ECD educational programmes and almost all curricula and resources are based on and inherited from white Euro-centric middle class contexts (Porteus 2004; Hornby 2004 pers. comm.), although the majority of South African children live in rural or peri-urban areas in working class or unemployed family settings (DoE 2001). In a country with such a large spectrum of contexts including those of extreme poverty and extreme wealth, urban and rural, and contexts that are over or under-resourced and include a variety of cultural practices and beliefs, it is hard to imagine that such a programme would be appropriate, useful, or even achievable in any functional and successful way.

In 2001, the Education White Paper 5 on Early Childhood Development (RSA 2001), informed by the national audit, the pilot project and a range of international research that confirmed ECD as a cost-effective national investment for birth to 6-year-olds, was released. The White Paper, however, focuses on school-based provision for five-year-olds (contrary to research on early childhood development that shows that damage done by this stage is often irreparable for children) (Porteus 2004). Responsibility for children between 0 and 4 years old has largely been shifted to the Department of Social Development, and the policy provides no guidelines or concrete support for five-year-olds (Porteus 2004, RSA 2001). As noted in the NEPI (1992) and by Atmore (2002) in

his report of the findings of the Nationwide ECD Audit study (also see DoE 2001), there is reference to the need for interdepartmental collaboration between the Departments of Education, Health, Social Development and Welfare (as well as Local Government, and the Office of the Presidency), but no direction or funding specifications are noted in either of these documents.

Both of these documents detail the planned Reception-year programme as an attachment and extension of primary school and the foundation phase, with only a small community-based component. The medium-term goal noted in the White Paper is for all children entering Grade 1 to have participated in an accredited reception year programme by the year 2010 (Porteus 2004, Atmore 2002, RSA 2001).

In choosing to focus support on school-based reception-year programmes (85% of policy provision), the policy effectively marginalises over 80% of the sector that constitutes community and home-based sites (Porteus 2004, RSA 2001). Given that these sites generally provide employment opportunities for women in low income areas, and service marginalised communities that have an array of socio-economic challenges (Porteus 2004, Vallabh 2004a), not the least of which is a high repetition and school drop out rate, the policy choice to support school-based centres denies support to areas that need it most and which will benefit most from such support. In addition, the type of support offered to community-based centres often does more harm than good (Hornby pers. comm. 2004). Currently, the provision of and focus on grade-R, the reception year class preceding formal schooling starting at grade 1, is still in the implementation stage. Government has provided subsidies, and a nutritional plan for this age, as well as teacher subsidies, to boost the grade-R teacher salary from provincial departments of education (funding is not guaranteed beyond 3 years of the release of the White Paper). ECD teachers in community areas earn low salaries compared to formal sector teachers, with wages of just a few hundred Rand (in some cases, as little as R80 a month) (Hornby pers. comm. 2004). With the grant, the salary increase for grade-R teachers is R12 000,00 annually, paid in two lump sums of R6000,00. The grant is optional, and although many ECD centres in Grahamstown initially accepted the grant, it has since been dropped, as the influx of subsidy into the system exclusively for grade-R children and their teachers created many internal implications and disturbed the balance of, and community-minded spirit present in many of the community-based sites (*Ibid*).

Nor does the policy consider the possibilities of linking the adult basic education and training (ABET) programmes to ECD services in the form of parental services and development. The diversity of the community sector has been well documented in the national audit (DoE 2001) and through the NEPI (1992). Contextualised support of multi-faceted community self-help programmes (*ibid*), may provide a more suitable approach

to ECD in community-based centres than the support proposed for school-based centres. The policy further notes a medium term goal of reducing the community and home-based sectors from 80% to 15%, with the aim of decreasing this percentage even further in the long-term (RSA 2001).

The decision to focus on grade-R provision in the formal school-based sector is not supported by the National Audit, the Pilot project, or international research in the field (Porteus 2004, also see for example, Biersteker & Vale 2003, Steyn 2000, Schweinhart 2001, Schweinhart 1994). In fact, the pilot project was not designed to consider multi-age integrated community-and home-based services; it was aimed at considering the reception-year models, regardless of the viability and need for support of these 'informal' sectors (Porteus 2004). Porteus (2004:357), notes that in effect, "this policy works largely against, rather than with, the diversity of local initiatives in the area" as a result of the decision not to support local model development where it is already growing.

These policy choices have several worrying implications for the future of community-based ECD provision. With the aim of reducing the community-and home-based sectors from 80% to less than 15% in the medium and long-term, and the relocation of 5-year-olds into the formal schooling sector, the community and home-based centres are subject to a number of converging factors, including:

- Poverty - the persistence of household poverty among households with children who require ECD care suggests that an increased reliance on fees is unviable;
- The continued retraction of donor funding;
- The lack of a significant increase in investment from the Health or Social Development Departments;
- The expansion of primary school-based reception year classrooms that absorb 5-year-olds from community-and home-based centres is at risk of undermining attendance in community and home-based sites and thus 'crowding out' community-and home-based centres (Porteus 2004).

In addition, there is the real risk that these school-based reception year classrooms will bring poor quality services to already marginalised communities due to budgetary constraints, with funding for these reception year learners at 70% of the current expenditure for grade 1 learners, and no further capital expenditure explicitly allocated to this sector (RSA 2001, Porteus 2004). The impact of these trends has particular concern for children and families and care givers in marginalised and poor households and communities, in that the decline of community-and home-based sites and the relocation of the five-year olds to the formal schooling sector can be expected to produce an increase in parental fee contributions, further marginalising the poorest learners from services. The intended decrease of these sites is also

likely to have significant implications for ECD provision for children under five-years of age, in addition to impacting on the women in marginalised areas who staff these community-and home-based sites.

In tracing the shift from the pre-1994 vision of integrated service provision and partnerships, with a value placed on community-based services, NGO innovation and increased financial support, all aimed at re-dressing past imbalances and supporting marginalised communities, to the current situation of community-and home-based centre marginalisation, which in effect, marginalises communities who were previously marginalised, Porteus (2004:360-362) notes the following:

- Economic implications overrode educational and social implications in policy processes;
- In a society where women's voices are still relatively weak in policy processes, this sector is highly feminised;
- Due to past policy practices (see earlier section), this sector is less organised than other sectors of education, with children between the ages of nought and nine lacking the socially-organised voices that are present in other educational sectors;
- The Reception-year focus enjoyed international dominance in the early and mid-nineties, when policy processes were initiated. The World Bank in particular advocated this idea during that period, although they have since stepped back from this position. The reception year model is an established model in industrialised countries, and had been a privilege of white children during apartheid, which also accounts for the dominance of this perspective;
- There is a lack of fit between the needs of young children in South Africa, and the operations of the state bureaucracy. Many of the proposals for more innovative approaches focused on concepts of community organisation for children in essence transcend the structure of the state.

In conclusion, the current policy for ECD support and provision would seem to need re-examination in the context of what is needed to support marginalised communities, and more importantly, marginalised children.

2.4 POLICY AND CURRICULUM IN ECD

2.4.1 The three human interests

Habermas (1972, in Grundy 1987) discusses three human interests in his thesis of knowledge, including the technical, practical and emancipatory interests. He describes these in terms of the human action arising out of each interest, and Grundy (*ibid*) describes some of the implications of these for curriculum (and policy).

According to Habermas, the technical interest allows us to potentially control our environment based on knowledge, and requires the development of factual and scientific knowledge, aimed at enabling individuals to predict changes in the environment, which in turn, potentially allows them to control and manage the environment based on that knowledge. In curriculum, this interest is translated into practice by an empirical-analytical science approach, taught through experience and observation, which are often gained through experimentation (*ibid* :11). Within an ECD curriculum context, this approach can be seen within environmental experiments, for example, growing bean plants, working with water in class or to compare volume. Curriculum topics that are prescribed and taught in information-centred, decontextualised ways can also be seen to represent this knowledge interest. Grundy (1987:12 – emphasis Grundy’s) notes that “put succinctly, the technical interest is: *a fundamental interest in controlling the environment through rule-following action based upon empirically grounded laws*”. A purely economic basis or empirically based research framework for policy (as explained in Section 2.3 above) can be seen to be located within this knowledge interest.

The practical interest is orientated towards understanding the environment, so that one is able to interact with it, and is grounded in the fundamental need to live in and as part of the world as opposed to living in competition with it for survival. Within this interest, moral positions become more explicit (as opposed to the technical interest where moral positions are hidden behind ideas of objectivity). Grundy (1987:12) notes that the practical interest is an interest in “taking right action (‘practical action’) within a particular environment”. The practical interest involves a process through which learners and teachers interact in order to make meaning of the world and their relationships with the world (*ibid* :15). Grundy notes that “[i]t follows from the moral imperative associated with the practical interest that curriculum informed by such an interest will be concerned, not simply with promoting knowledge in pupils, but also with promoting right action”. In an ECD context, this curriculum approach can be seen within the sphere of values education, and to some extent, religious education, often extending to the exploration of social issues such as disease, poverty or abuse, and also in more experiential approaches to environmental education, where learners understand the environment through experiences in it. Policy intention both at national and local levels may be influenced by this knowledge interest. As regards national policy, broader ideologies and values are represented with the intention of implementation in local contexts, where they are contextualised and understood through experience and practical engagements with the policy ideas such as ‘a healthy environment’ or ‘children’s rights’.

The emancipatory interest is linked to individual freedom in society. Grundy (1978:16) notes that:

because of the interactive nature of human society, individual freedom can never be separated from the freedom of others ... [h]ence emancipation is also inextricably linked to notions of justice and ultimately with equality.

In South Africa (as with many other parts of the world) the ECD sector has recently been orientated within a rights-based approach, implicitly incorporating this interest into curriculum, policy and centre structures in a number of ways. Grundy (*ibid*) notes that an emancipatory curriculum works towards freedom on a number of levels; this is particularly evident within the structures of community-based ECD centres, where there is often a multi-faceted approach to emancipation (for example, long and short term poverty alleviation strategies and women empowerment programmes). While the practical and technical interests are concerned with understanding and controlling the environment, the emancipatory interest is concerned with empowerment, which Grundy describes as “ the ability of individuals and groups to take control of their own lives in autonomous and responsible ways” (*ibid*: 19). This interest translates into practice through involving participants (teachers and learners) in educational encounters that involve action which attempts to change the structures within which learning occurs and “which constrain freedom in often unrecognised ways ...[it] entails a reciprocal relationship between self-reflection and action” (*ibid*: 19). In policy, this interest becomes evident in policy intentions that are aimed at critical engagement/s in society and that seek empowerment (eg. empowerment of women care-givers, as argued for by Porteus (2004).

2.4.2 Different learning and social theories shaping teaching and learning in ECD

The ECD field is influenced by an amalgamation of a number of different learning theories, with influence shifting from country to country and school to school. One of the key learning theorists to influence the ECD field is Piaget, with his theory of stages of development (Lotz-Sisitka 2002a). This key idea draws on the notion that psychological structures present in our minds explain our behaviour, and are invariant across cultures, settings and tasks, being essentially independent of individual relations to other individuals, social practices, and the cultural environment (see Lotz-Sisitka 2002a). This led firstly to a focus on sensory and concrete operational materials as the primary approach to teaching learners during these years, and secondly, to the development of resources and curricula that were in many ways, generic across the world (see for example the High Scope Materials). Due to the nature of the ECD field, this set of theories has played and still plays an influencing role in shaping teaching and learning

processes in many ECD centres in a number of ways including the following: in many circumstances, the ECD sector makes use of concrete and sensory activities to develop understanding in children, for example, children learn about shapes through the manipulation of concrete models with various textures and sizes, and the role of the teacher includes showing children how these materials can be manipulated, naming shapes in conjunction with providing visual and concrete examples and repeating these processes a number of times. This theory ignores individual variance in understanding and learning; and it does not cater for the needs of learners with special needs or learning disabilities in a group situation, or differing cultural and socio-economic influences on learning and learners.

More recently, social constructivist learning theories introduced by Vygotsky and Bruner that focus on social meaning making, language and culture (*ibid*), have come to influence the field. Vygotsky proposed that, contrary to Piaget's theory, cognitive development is internal and individualistic in nature, that cognitive abilities are formed and built up in part by social phenomena and are inter-subjective and created through interaction with the social environment (*ibid*, also see Wood 1999). Vygotsky emphasised the social and cultural nature of learning, the role of purposeful activity in learning and the relationship between spontaneous concepts learnt from unconscious experience in the everyday and scientific concepts that are mediated and taught. In addition, Vygotsky introduced what he termed '*the zone of proximal development*' which referred to the frontiers of a child's learning, and to those learning activities that cannot be achieved unaided, but can be achieved with the guidance of an adult or a more knowledgeable peer. Bruner built on these theories and proposed the idea of scaffolding as the mediation of tasks through temporary structuring and support (*ibid*). Vygotsky stressed the context of social interactions, which are analysed in terms of systems of meaning that mediate social functioning, of which language is the most familiar, and emphasised the role of scaffolding through language (Lotz-Sisitka 2002a, also see Moll 1990 and Wood 1999).

More recently critical social theorists such as Giroux and Apple, drawing on Habermas, are beginning to influence the field of ECD partially through the integration of environment into broader educational policy, and partially through the rights-based, critical approaches to whole-child development prevalent in many ECD contexts in South Africa. This process was also further facilitated by a change in national policies from policies of exclusivity to those of inclusivity that enabled greater political power for marginalised groups and the ECD sector as a whole (Porteus 2004). These theorists focus on 'real world problems' in context, and on the interdisciplinary nature of learning experiences. Popkewitz (1999 in Lotz-Sisitka 2002a:11) proposes the location of a 'social epistemology' for education, which is located within a socio-historical, contextual

narrative as opposed to a philosophy of consciousness. The role of processes of transformation in wider social and political structures and their influence on teaching and learning processes in ECD contexts is slowly, if in many cases implicitly, being integrated into the ECD field of practice, this can especially be seen in South Africa, within the transformative drive aimed at shifting society from apartheid to democracy. Within this movement can be seen the influences of feminist and post modern critical theorists who work to challenge meta-narratives that socially construct people, including racism, sexism and the dominance of western scientific knowledge as opposed to the valuing of different ways of knowing and being (*ibid*).

These social theories translate into practice both implicitly and explicitly in a South African ECD context. With the agenda of community development and the development of safety nets for children and families in many ECD settings, and especially in community-based settings, issues of social dominance, racism, sexism and exclusivity are dealt with in integrated approaches to community development, through programmes that empower adults, and in many instances women specifically, by means of the creation and support of various capabilities, the most common of which is skills development targeted at increasing employment opportunities. As concerns teaching and learning processes, these theories can be seen to influence the types of learning that take place around various subjects and through the values inherent in any curriculum. One of the approaches to the implementation of critical and constructivist curricula is that of active learning, an approach adopted by the RNCS and evidenced in the format of teacher guides and learning experiences. This is particularly so in the ECD field, where much of the learning takes place through experiential encounters within context, facilitated by the lack of resources that have caused many educators to turn to their local environments to supplement learning experiences. For example, learners learning about their community would speak to adults in the community and very often visit community settings such as hospitals, clinics, other schools, fire stations or supermarkets in order to observe and interact with these environments.

Many of these theoretical perspectives have come to influence environmental learning in the ECD sector, for example Opie's work '*The Dawn Years*' has been influenced by Piaget (O'Donoghue 1994) and the *We Care Primary* series has been influenced by social constructivist learning theories within active learning frameworks (Lotz 1996; also see Fountain 1990; Lorentzson 2004). For example, in the *We Care Primary* series, suggested lessons include socially critical engagement with community issues, explorations of socio-ecological issues and themes designed to engage learners actively in meaning-making within their context with their community through active learning. This project was developed as a participatory materials development project, with teachers, in response to socio-ecological issues confronting young learners and their communities in

the Western Cape (Lotz 1996). As indicated above, the ECD curriculum (both implicit and explicit) is permeated by numerous environmental learning opportunities, for example, community themes provide opportunity for the exploration of self in community as well as various aspects of community including public places, biophysical spaces, and historical influences on the local context. These diverse environmental learning opportunities are influenced by theories of learning and social change in ECD, contextual factors and local and national policies.

2.4.3 Curriculum theory and ECD practice

In attempting to understand curriculum issues in the context of community-based ECD centres such as the Raglan Road Centre, I draw on Cornbleth's notion of a curriculum as a "*contextually shaped process*" that is created and experienced "within multiple, interacting contexts" (Cornbleth 1990:13) and on Grundy's notion of curriculum (1987) as a cultural construction shaped by Habermas's three human knowledge interests (see Section 2.3.1). Cornbleth notes that one of the key features of a critical curriculum perspective, in addition to its normative stance against domination, is its context sensitivity, and this allows for a practice orientated curriculum that focuses on contextual change. She further notes that "[i]n order for curriculum to further critical purposes, it must be seen as value laden and contextualised" (Cornbleth 1990:3). In the context of political change and the national shift to values based on inclusivity and respect currently shaping South African society (see for example, the RNCS policy statement and the new Constitution of South Africa), the use of education as a critical tool for transformation is widely recognised as important. Cornbleth further notes that a curriculum is both structural and socio-cultural, with structural influences from government and departmental policy, operating procedures, shared beliefs (or the beliefs of dominant groups in power?) and social norms (again, interpreted by dominant social groups) and socio-cultural influences, including economic, political, spiritual, biophysical and social influences. Curriculum (and educational systems) are influenced and shaped by government funding and government policy, leading to high levels of government control over what is taught, to whom, how and why (see Section 2.3 above). Curriculum as a contextualised social process includes both social organisation and subject matter as well as their interrelatedness; it also includes personal, social and world knowledge (*ibid*).

Cornbleth (1990:12) notes that curriculum conceptions "cannot be value free or neutral ... [t]hey necessarily reflect our assumptions about the world, even if those assumptions remain implicit and unexamined". According to Eisner (1985), all schools have three distinct curricula: The explicit (defined goals and objectives of the programme), implicit curriculum (areas that are not directly stated, but are implied or required by the explicit

curriculum), and the null curriculum (the absence of a set of perspectives that have bearing on an issue to which the programme responds).

At an early childhood development level, the **explicit curriculum** is normally taught through a series of themes that are linked together throughout the year. For example, the learners will begin learning about seasons, then move on to fruit and vegetables, domestic animals and wild animals. These themes are related to the biophysical environment. In addition, a larger number of themes relate to the social and economic environments, for example, themes on HIV/AIDS, community helpers, the hospital, my body and water (both social and biophysical). This thematic approach provides a framework for inter-disciplinary study (Downton 1991), an approach which is favoured in the RNCS curriculum, with its emphasis on integration, particularly in the foundation phase (which includes grade-R).

Many environmental activities in ECD programmes fall within what O'Donoghue and Janse van Rensburg (1995) call learning **for** and **about** the environment. There are also a number of activities **in** the environment. These activities are situated in an active learning approach as depicted below, and include learning **in**, **for** and **about** the environment, for example, learning in the environment would include visiting places such as hospitals, farms or gardens; learning about the environment would include learning vocabulary or reading stories about the environment and learning for the environment would include contextually relevant action that is aimed at developing action competence so that learners can address environmental concerns both in the present as well as in the future in a variety of contexts, as well as on local and global levels. Developing environmentally orientated values through intentionally participating in environmental campaigns (such as writing to newspapers or changing habits of water consumption at home) are examples of this.

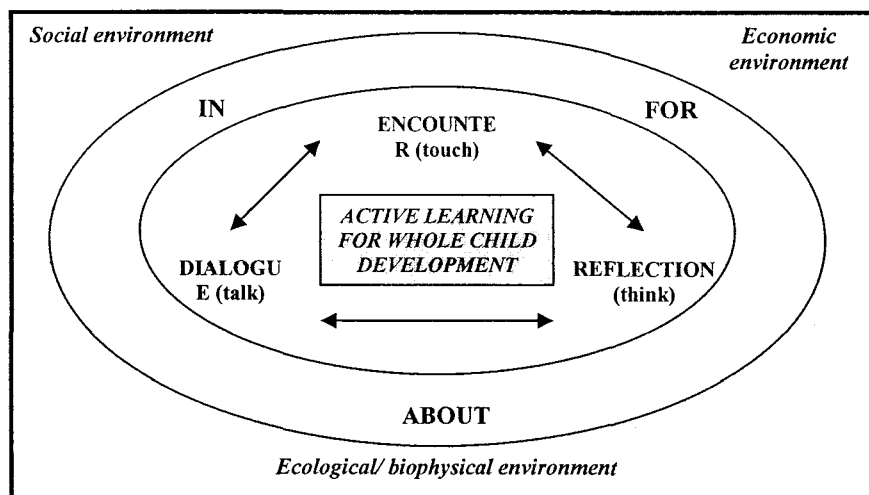


Fig 2.1: Processes and contexts of environmental learning in many ECD settings. Adapted from O'Donoghue and Janse van Rensburg 1995).

The **implicit curriculum** refers to practices that influence learning processes, as well as those things that are required by and embedded in the explicit curriculum. The implicit curriculum is often part of the unconscious workings of the school, although many aspects of it are recognised by educators in ECD, especially within community settings where there are a number of social as well as educational goals. One of the greatest implicit aims of many ECD centres, and especially of community-based centres is that of community development. According to the NEPI (1992:65),

[Y]oung children provide a rallying point for mobilizing community resources and building civil society structures. The potential advantages are that a community development approach favours continuity and sustainability of programmes: children's needs can be met in an integrated way, whole communities benefit, not just children, through gaining knowledge and skills, offering women opportunities to become involved in community affairs, possibly providing jobs, and developing the organisational capacity to solve other community problems.

Many ECD centres implicitly aim to foster community development through a multi-programme approach that maintains and supports the interests of children and child welfare as central to each programme offered. In addition, many implicit environmental agendas are met by the programmes offered in that programmes are based on principles of economic sustainability, which in the context of some projects, lead to ecological sustainability (for example, food and herb gardens are economically sustainable as well as ecologically sustainable). Also, many programmes are aimed at skills development; these skills implicitly aim at both long-and short-term poverty alleviation and community empowerment, which support agendas of social justice and empowerment.

The **null curriculum** (Eisner 1985, Jickling 1999a) draws attention to the 'absent' areas of a curriculum to that which is not said, discussed or included, and varies greatly between contexts and centres. Jickling (1999a:2) notes that "what is not said about a curriculum often tells more about a curriculum than what is said". He draws attention to the importance of considering the null curriculum in environmental education.

2.5. ENVIRONMENTAL EDUCATION IN ECD SETTINGS

Environmental education in South Africa has become more and more integrated into school and work contexts, with environmental education being implemented by teachers, NGOs, government parties and many other social bodies over and above those organisations and individuals specifically who traditionally implemented environmental education programmes in isolation from other social structures. Lotz-Sisitka (2002b) describes the way in which environmental education has moved "from the margins" to be an integrated dimension of educational policy and practice in South Africa over a 12 year

period. Today a healthy environment is a core curriculum principle and environment is integral to each learning area. This has implications for environmental education processes in ECD, as outlined by NEEP-GET (2004) in their book on 'lesson planning for a healthy environment'.

2.5.1 A brief history of environmental education

The concept of environment and environmental education has evolved both nationally and internationally from a relatively simple understanding of people/environment relationships that gave rise to preservation education and nature experiences that considered people as separate from nature to a complex understanding and consideration of the interaction and inter-dependence of people in the environment, with a broadened understanding of environment to include people and their social realities (O'Donogue and Janse van Rensburg 1995). Irwin and Lotz-Sisitka (2003) give the following account of this journey: current understanding of environment has its roots in the 19th century and is related to the boom in the production of consumable goods and the accompanying increase in waste production and resource depletion. During the 20th century, in the post-World War Two period, there was an increase in the need for public knowledge and awareness about the environment and an increase in recognition of environmental issues with the expansion of industrial development. One of the first efforts in this direction was the seminal book entitled *Silent Spring* by Rachel Carson first published in 1962.

In addition, this period saw the establishment of the first international organisations concerned with environmental issues. Among the most notable of these were the IUCN (The International Union for the Conservation of Nature and Natural Resources) established in 1948, which was primarily a scientific body concerned with diminishing natural resources including wildlife. Another of these was the World Wildlife Fund (WWF), which was formed in 1961, with the primary aim of raising funds for wildlife conservation. Both of these organisations have since adopted aims and ideals that integrate social, economic and cultural concerns, as well as educational issues. With this change in perspective, environmental organisations began engaging with and influencing government, NGOs and other organisations, a trend which was paralleled in South Africa. One of the most fruitful partnerships internationally was with UNESCO (The United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organisation), established in 1946 as part of the broader United Nations enterprise. Although initially concerned only with education in a development context, it has gradually become involved in the development of environmental education through its contact with bodies such as the IUCN. Although these organisations were initially primarily concerned with conservation education, through a broadening of environmental views and understanding, they have incorporated the concept of 'environmental education' almost universally.

One of the milestones in the development of environmental education internationally was the United Nations 'Conference on the Human Environment' held in Stockholm in 1972, during which both rich and poor nations met together for the first time to discuss issues of environmental concern, leading to a number of issues affecting 'developing countries' being placed on the conference agenda for discussion. This led to the establishment of the United Nations Environment Programme (UNEP), the first UN agency to have its headquarters in a 'developing country' in Africa. UNEP was tasked with establishing environmental education, as opposed to other terms (such as conservation education), marking a conceptual shift within which further development could take place internationally. Following after this, the first 'Intergovernmental Conference on Environmental Education' held in 1977 in Tbilisi in the USSR resulted in the declaration of the *Tbilisi Principles of Environmental Education* (1977) – 12 principles providing the framework and guidelines for national, regional and global environmental education practice. In South Africa, however, many of these principles were in conflict with government politics, and it was left to NGOs to strategise the implementation of these principles.

In 1980, the publication of the groundbreaking *World Conservation Strategy*, updated in 1991 as *Caring for the Earth: A strategy for sustainable living* was sponsored by IUCN, UNEP and WWF. This was followed in South Africa by a version entitled *Caring for the Earth South Africa: A guide to sustainable living* in 1997 (Yeld 1997). Although there was little government response to either of these documents, substantial public awareness campaigns were mounted by WWF (SA) and the Wildlife and Environment Society of South Africa (WESSA) in respect of the 1991 publication.

In addition to the above, a number of commissions and reports significantly influenced the manner in which people viewed environment, and what became known as the 'environmental crisis' and environmental education. Of particular note are the 1983 Brandt Commission Report that focused on the relationship between the so called rich north and poor south and world distribution of wealth and resources, entitled *Common Crisis North-South: Co-operation for world recovery*; the 1982 *Global 2000 Report to the President of the United States: Entering the 21st century*, which was commissioned by one American president (Jimmy Carter) and rejected by the next (Ronald Reagan) despite the wealth of insights it contained; and thirdly, the commission which had the greatest influence of the three, the 1987 Report of the World Commission on Environment and Development, entitled *Our Common Future*³; and lastly, with special relevance to South Africa, and other countries in the South, is the 1990 *Report of the*

³ Also referred to as the Brundtland Report after the Prime Minister of Norway at the time, who chaired the commission.

*South Commission: The challenge to the South*⁴, which supported the findings and recommendations of the 1983 *Brandt Report*, although it had very little impact internationally or in Africa. Between them, these reports added conceptual and intellectual weight to growing concerns about the unequal distribution of resources between countries in addition to introducing the notion of 'sustainable development', which achieved prominence at the Rio Earth Summit in 1992. This evidenced the general re-affirmation of the emphasis on environmental education as concerned with social, political, economic and ecological matters. The Earth Summit focused on the role of environmental education as an educational response to the environmental crisis, and one of the key documents to emerge from the conference, Agenda 21 emphasises the need for wide scale environmental education programmes in diverse contexts. The summit served to refocus the notion of environmental education towards that of sustainable development, with many educators advocating this perspective.

Linked to this, was the development of a NGO 'Treaty on environmental education for sustainable societies' that recognises the central role of education in shaping values and social action, viewing environmental education as a socially transformative learning process based on respect for all life, with an emphasis on root causes of issues that threaten the world's future in addition to emphasising the participation of all individuals in making choices about their futures. The *NGO Forum Principles (ibid)* were defined as part of this treaty and show a greater concern for issues of social justice, equity, democracy and social transformation and support a dynamic and open climate of cultural interchange with the need to consider social and historical contexts of environmental issues and their roots. These principles also recognise the socially constructed nature of knowledge as well as the need to promote linguistic, ecological and cultural diversity. The *NGO Forum Principles* became popular in South Africa during democratisation in the 1990's within environmental education processes, and were supported by socially critical approaches that drew on Habermas's emancipatory knowledge interest (Fien 1993; Lotz 1996).

The role of environmental education in support of sustainable development was re-emphasised during the Earth Summit +5, in addition to raising some issues of adequate financing of primary and secondary education, equal and full access to education for women and girls and the participation of vulnerable and marginalized groups, as well as the need to re-orientate education in countries with strong education systems (educators working with UNESCO had noted that education had not responded well to the environmental crisis). In 1997, UNESCO published "*Education for a Sustainable Future:*

⁴ Also referred to as the Nyerere Report after the former president of Tanzania, who chaired the commission.

A Transdisciplinary Vision for Concerted Action" (UNESCO 1997), which showed concern that very little had been achieved in the environmental arena and aimed at furthering international debates on environmental education and mobilising action to highlight the importance of environmental education and public awareness in achieving sustainability. It also re-emphasised the importance of life-long learning and prioritised basic education in the developing world, as well as the need for curriculum reform; in short, it argued for a fundamental re-orientation of education and training systems world-wide. This document provided the framework for discussions at the Thessaloniki Conference on 'Environment and Society: Education and Public Awareness for Sustainability' in 1997, which was aimed at celebrating twenty years of the 'Tbilisi Doctrine' and evaluating education as a basis for the 'fourth pillar' of sustainability in the 21st century.

In South Africa, prior to the 1977 Tbilisi Principles, environmental efforts had been concentrated on what was called 'conservation education', which focused on the conservation and wise use of natural resources for a select Section of society, with interpretations of ecology and ecological processes that were seldom concerned with social, cultural or political environments. It has subsequently been integrated within the larger environmental education agenda, where it continues to play a significant role within the broader context of environmental education, although only within limited and relevant contexts. In spite of apartheid and colonial policy practices or perhaps because of it, environment in southern Africa has never been seen only in terms of the natural environment by environmental education practitioners; instead it has encompassed and concerned itself with social, political, economic, cultural and urban environments. One of the initiatives with which environmental education was confused in the early 1980's was that of 'outdoor education'; although the two concepts did overlap in some ways, they were fundamentally different in that 'outdoor education' or 'veld-schools' were aimed at sanitising the socio-political dimensions of environmental education that were in tension with the then current political perspectives of apartheid. This view has gradually fallen into decline, with the political, economic and social focus of environmental education in evidence in current national policy and practice.

The first international conference on environmental education in South Africa took place in 1982 at the Treveton College in Mooi River, Natal, in response to increasing interest created through international developments in environmental education, and included representatives from four continents. It saw the formulation of the Environmental Education Association of Southern Africa (EEASA), in addition to being the first time that a wide spectrum of southern Africans concerned with environmental education had come together to discuss matters of common interest. In 1984, EEASA started the first

regular publications in environmental education in southern Africa⁵ in addition to co-ordinating numerous conferences, workshops and seminars.

NGOs such as the Wilderness Leadership School, WESSA and others began to implement programmes to put environmental education ideas in to practice (through conservation education), building a solid base from which current environmental education practices emerged. After 1994, environmental education became more explicit in policy interests and was integrated into formal educational settings (Lotz-Sisitka 2002b; NEEP-GET 2004). The National Curriculum Statement for example, recognises the relationship between human rights, inclusivity, a healthy environment and social justice (see above). In addition, the Constitution of South Africa enshrines the right to a healthy environment for all citizens, facilitating the integration of human rights, social justice and ecological and biophysical issues in all sectors of society.

2.5.2 Environmental learning opportunities in the RNCS

The RNCS has five guiding principles that provide direction for lesson planning, and are built on the vision of the Constitution of South Africa. One of the five guiding principles is orientated around social justice, a healthy environment, human rights and inclusivity, and emphasises the importance of fore-grounding social goals in the curriculum. Through this goal, the RNCS aims to reflect the principles and practices of social justice, respect for the environment, human rights and inclusivity, as defined in the Constitution of South Africa (NEEP-GET 2004). This framework emphasises the relationship between a healthy environment, social justice, human rights and inclusivity.

Through the five guiding principles, a wide range of environmental learning opportunities have been incorporated into the different Learning Areas of the RNCS, with a number of the learning outcomes focusing directly on the environment, while other learning areas potentially help to strengthen environmental learning processes in the curriculum (ibid). The RNCS, which is based on a model of outcomes-based education, emphasises participatory, learner-centred, activity-based approaches to education (ibid).

In the table below, I have summarised environmental learning foci in the learning areas (for the foundation phase) to illustrate the integration of environmental learning into the RNCS.

⁵ In 1984, the South African Journal of Environmental Education, and from 1988, the Environmental Education Bulletin

LEARNING AREAS	ENVIRONMENTAL FOCUS <i>(integrating social, economic, ecological and political environments)</i>
TECHNOLOGY	<p>The responsible and ethical application of the technological process:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Investigating, designing, making and evaluating technology • Use of different materials (re-using waste or re-cycling materials) • Environmental impacts as an ethical issue to consider
NATURAL SCIENCES	<p>Investigation skills, natural phenomena and problem solving:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Investigate a wide variety of living things • What plants, animals and people need to live • Interdependence of people, plants and animals • Cycles of change
SOCIAL SCIENCES <i>(history and geography)</i>	<p>Enquiry skills</p> <p><i>History:</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Ask basic questions and find basic answers and find simple answers to questions (relating to past and present) • Learn about history through stories • Learn about cause and effect, similarity and difference, and time (and changes over time) <p><i>Geography</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • People and places, people and resources, people and the environment • Stories about other people, other places and people and the environment • Basic needs and wants, resources, helping people to meet their needs and the concept of resources • Actions to improve the local environment, and the concept of place • Different types of land use, changes in the local environment, pollution and its effects and managing waste.
ECONOMIC AND MANAGEMENT SCIENCES	<p>Establishing elementary economic literacy</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Efficient, effective and sustainable use of different kinds of resources • Goods and resources in the local environment and the economic unit of the home • Responsible use of resources, (saving and wasting) and finding ways to avoid waste • Differentiating between 'needs' and 'wants', and between 'fair' and 'unfair' • Development of <i>critical media literacy</i>
ARTS AND CULTURE	<p>Using the environment as a context for learning, with a focus on own and local environment, with the term environment referring to learners' cultural and physical environment:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Thinking about and responding to artworks focusing on self and own environment • Developing the skills and knowledge to create and present art activities based upon ideas drawn from the immediate environment • Exploring, expressing and communicating ideas and concepts from the immediate environment
LIFE ORIENTATION	<p>Development of self in society:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • A healthy environment (activities that foster a healthy environment) • Clean water and fresh food (links to environmental health) • Celebrating environmental days (development of citizenship skills) • Values: care for other living things
LANGUAGES	<p>Access to the world and to knowledge through:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Processing information

	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Communicating ideas and information • Establishing relationships between self and society • Accessing information • Creative expression and performance presentation • Representing the landscape or environment in which the learner finds him/herself through various literacies, through the use of themes and topics that are relevant to learner lives
MATHEMATICS	<p>Understanding present situations and planning for the future:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Counting, calculating and using numbers in different ways and contexts • Understanding geometric patterns in the environment • Recognising and describing objects and shapes in the environment • Measuring and comparing and making estimates that are relevant to the environmental investigations • Mapping the school and local environment <p>Mathematical knowledge and skills are therefore applied in the context of environmental investigations or problem-solving.</p>

Table 2.1 Descriptions of environmental foci in the learning areas in the foundation phase.

2.5.3 Education for sustainable development

Environmental education is described in the *Agenda 21* document as environmental education processes that involve participants (teachers and learners) in “ ... promoting sustainable development and improving the capacity of people to address environment and development issues” (UNCED 1992: Chapter 36:2). In *Caring for the Earth: a strategy for sustainable living* (1991), sustainability is discussed as including sustainable resource use to ensure both current and future resource availability, equity between peoples and between resource distribution and the development of an ethic for sustainable living (SWCSP 1991:5). O’Riordan defines sustainable development as “an index to environmental and social health, linked to economic opportunity”, (O’Riordan 1998:99, as quoted by Freeman & Mgingqizana 2002). The IUCN (as quoted by Irwin & Lotz-Sisitka 2003:12) defines Education for Sustainability as follows:

Education for sustainable living develops human capacity and creativity to participate in determining the future, encourage technical progress as well as fostering the cultural conditions favouring social and economic change to improve the quality of life and more equitable economic growth while living within the carrying capacity of supporting ecosystems to maintain life indefinitely.

Huckle and Stirling (1996) present the following list of criteria for identifying what education for sustainability involves: they note that such education is contextual, constructive, holistic and human in scale, process orientated, integrative, empowering, critical, ethical, inclusive, lifelong, systematic and connective. With regard to the above,

the many ECD centres, especially community-based centres can be located within a sustainable development agenda.

Although much of environmental education has begun to focus on sustainability agendas, there is a need to question the instrumental rationality around the concept of 'education for sustainability' as an adequate framework for environmental education (Jickling 1999). One of the dangers in this approach to environmental education is the potential to lose focus on environmental perspectives through a focus on social and economic factors; Rosenberg (2004a) cautions that in order for education to be considered environmental education, it needs to maintain a focus on the *inter-relationships* between social justice, equity and environmental health, as well as those between the social, economic and ecological environments, as opposed to education targeted at any one of these areas. Although it is in many cases difficult to address environmental concerns without first considering development concerns and socio-economic issues, the most prominent of which is poverty in many 'third-world' countries, for education to be environmental education, and education for sustainability, the need for a focus on these inter-relationships is paramount. On the other hand, in contexts where there is poverty, inequality, social injustice and domination, it is important to consider and work towards an end to these issues as part of any strategies for environmental sustainability and environmental education in recognition of the inter-related nature of socio-economic and ecological issues (see Rosenberg 2004b in the *Enviropedia* – her paper on poverty and the environment).

In describing sustainability in terms of curriculum theory, I draw on Cornbleth's (1990:35) view that a critical curriculum supports social change that is consistent with human dignity and social justice and Grundy (1987) who describes curriculum as a cultural construction concerned with people's cultural views and experiences, which includes Habermas's explanation of three human interests (see section 2.4.1) and must be seen as arising out of a set of historical circumstances and reflecting a particular social milieu.

2.5.4 Risk in South Africa

An additional perspective can be introduced to this discussion through consideration of ECD as a response to environmental risk⁶. Beck (1992) and Giddens (2000) talk about the types and roots of risk in modern society. Beck talks about the shift from a scarcity society to a risk society, a shift from a society characterised by the under-supply of basic

⁶ Risk a potential 'danger' that may occur in the future. The concept of 'risk' involves a degree of uncertainty and prediction, often based on mathematical possibilities (Beck 1992). For example, there is a risk high levels of pollutants will result in global warming; with global warming, there is the risk of changing weather patterns across the globe, potentially resulting in a loss of biodiversity.

material need, to the oversupply of risks, both perceived and unperceived (*ibid*), and some of whose roots lie in globalisation.

Globalisation has gained popularity and momentum, and extends to the political, technological, cultural and economic, as well as the physical. With the advent of globalisation, varying global power positions have resulted in a diversity of unequal risk positions, with “first-world” risks (for example, toxic waste or consumer products with hazardous side effects) being ‘sold’ to “third-world” countries, and “first-world” options to purchase “risk insurance” that are not a viable option for countries and individuals that face issues of poverty and deprivation of basic needs. Added to this, is the change in the nature of risk, the shift from risk as a local, physical factor, to risk as a cross-border, international, and often unperceived factor: global warming and the destruction of the ozone layer are examples of this (Beck 1992).

2.5.4.1 A “double blow” in South Africa

In addition, Le Grange (in Scott and Gough 2003) points out that “[a] double blow hits the people in the ‘developing world’: the risks associated with material immiseration and those brought about by modernisation and industrialisation. Le Grange notes that in addition to the risks associated with industrial production (for example, poor air quality or polluted water) that Beck identifies in his thesis, ‘developing’ countries continue to face issues of material impoverishment that many countries in Europe experienced in the 19th century, and which are concerned with issues of poverty, hunger, crowding, disease and other risks resulting from the lack of basic needs, for example, abuse and neglect issues, and issues resulting from what Sen (2001) terms poverty as capability deprivation. Giddens (2000) talks about this as the overlapping of external risks and material risks, and further acknowledges that this is the reality of risk in poorer countries (including countries in sub-Saharan Africa); he differentiates external risks as those that come from the outside and arise from the fixities of tradition or nature, and those of manufactured risk that are created by the impact of developing knowledge upon the world, which result in situations in which we have very little experience (things we can do to the environment), such as environmental risks associated with global warming⁷. Beck (*ibid*: 35) further notes that “[t]he history of risk distribution shows that, like wealth, risks adhere to the class pattern, only inversely: wealth accumulates at the top, risks at the bottom ... [t]o this extent, risks seem to strengthen, not abolish the class society”.

In the context of peri-urban and rural areas of South Africa, risks facing individuals include external risks directly associated with poverty, which include insufficient food,

⁷ Global warming is likely to effect South and southern Africa severely within the next 50-100 years as the region becomes both hotter and dryer, affecting particularly agriculture and food scarcity in an already vulnerable context.

sanitation, water quality, shelter, access to education and other material needs. Sen (2001) adds an additional dimension to risks arising from poverty in 'developing' countries in his thesis about poverty as capability deprivation, in which he explores links between economic poverty and other dimensions of poverty, which Knuttson describes as the poverty of knowledge, the poverty of health, the poverty of power over one's own life, the poverty of deficient habits and the poverty of damaged environments (Knuttson 1997). Sen (2001:87) notes that poverty that results from a lack of or limited capacity is intrinsically important, where a lowness of income is only instrumentally important. These capability deprivations often manifest as social issue risks such as racism, abuse, sexism and neglect, and lead to risk at both an individual and a universal level.

In addition to these external risks, individuals and society as a whole in South Africa need to contend with risks as described by Beck, risks that are often unperceived and thus not visible socially, except perhaps to a more informed middle class. Within the landscape of differing South African contexts, there is an ongoing tension between individuals dealing with immediately perceived external risks through the use of products that bring with them a host of unperceived material risks (such as the use of medicines that have not been well tested or have been rejected as unsafe in developed countries). Added to this are dimensions of equality that bring to the fore issues of rapid development as a solve-all solution to the many external risks affecting people in the South, but which bring with them a host of material risks, global pollutants and changes in life style, often resulting in the eroding of and moving away from traditional family, cultural and social structures, as well as increasing debates and tensions around values at both individual and global levels (Giddens 2000). Beck (1992:20) affirms that "under conditions of a 'scarcity society', the modernisation process takes place with the claim of opening the gates to hidden sources of social and material wealth with the keys of techno-scientific development". To complicate the matter further, this same development can be seen as greatly contributing to women staking greater claim to equity in many new contexts, further contributing to the re-structuring of traditional family and social structures (*ibid*), as well as contributing to the empowerment of a previously disadvantaged, and in many cases, currently disadvantaged group and supporting a transition to a society of equality.

2.5.4.2 Responses to risk

In response to risk, many writers including Giddens, Beck, Sen and Cornbleth note that the development of critical thinking capacities in individuals are integral to addressing contextual issues and risks in ways that are contextually and socially transforming. The sheer variety of contexts and risks in South Africa make any one response to risk inappropriate, and has resulted in a broad landscape of responses in different contexts. One of these responses is that of Early Childhood Development (ECD) as an

educational approach to risk reduction and both as a long-term and short-term strategy. Education in South Africa has come to be seen as a tool for transformation to a new democracy based on equality and inclusivity, this is also true for the ECD sector (Porteus 2004).

These areas of development make the early childhood years significant with regard to how profoundly they can contribute to the learning and fostering of democracy and equity in a changing society, and can be seen as a means of developing an array of capabilities in children that have the potential to address risks (both external and material) and issues that potentially result in risk in a long-term strategy. In addition, the ECD years have the potential to develop the critical capacity that Beck (1992), Giddens (2000) and Cornbleth (1990) refer to in response to risk in ways that foster contextual change at a local level, as well as contributing to global change. Both Beck and Giddens refer to the increasing need for individuals to make critical choices as consumers and as social citizens – in order to maintain democracy and individual freedom; this requires a citizenry that has the skills and the capacity to make these choices. In order for the ECD sector to be a significant factor in building future capacity in children and as a force in dealing with current issues affecting local communities, there is a need for comprehensive support on a national level, from government structures.

2.6 CONCLUSION

In this chapter, I have drawn widely on literature to explore and narrate some of the aspects of environmental education and ECD that are relevant to this study. In particular, this chapter highlights the integrated nature of socio-economic issues and social justice with concepts of sustainability and risk.

In addition, the chapter provides a theoretical grounding for the study through the exploration of the broader context of ECD in South Africa, environmental education internationally and learning theory internationally.

In the next chapter, I discuss the research methodology and research design that guided this study.

CHAPTER 3

CONTEXTUALLY BASED RESEARCH THAT IS SOCIALLY SHAPED AND SHAPING

*[T]he purpose of social science is to understand social reality as different people see it and to demonstrate how their views shape the action which they take within that reality.
(Beck 1979, as quoted by Cohen et al. 2001:20)*



3.1. RESEARCH ORIENTATION

In this chapter, I describe the considerations that shaped the design of this study. I also describe the methods used to generate the information used in the study, and discuss how the processes of data generation contribute to the integrity of the study. A combination of critical and interpretive methods was used to generate and analyse the data used in this empirical case study.

This case study falls broadly within an interpretive paradigm, and is “... neither concerned with social theory or evaluative judgement, but rather with the understanding of educational action ...” leading to “... prudence through the systematic and reflective documentation of evidence” (Stenhouse 1985, as quoted by Bassey 1999:28). Connole (1998) notes that from an interpretative perspective, human actions have reasons and take place within a structure of social rules within which they have meaning for both the actor and the observer. She further notes that the task of the researcher is one of understanding what is going on through a process of negotiated meaning within a context and that this meaning is often ambiguous.

The critical aspects of this case study are aimed at examining the socially constructed meanings in the data and at identifying the ambiguities and ambivalences within the social setting. A central tenet of critical deconstructionist approaches is the rejection of ‘meta-narratives’ or generalised theory systems. Instead, critical deconstructivist approaches recognise that we are:

... constructed by a host of often contradictory positions arising from our class, race, gender, age, ethnicity and sexual preference (to name but a few ... we shift from one identity to another in ways which are neither coherent nor consistent. (Connole 1998:21).

In effect, the combination of these two approaches have allowed me to look first at the meanings that participants construct to steer, interpret and explain their lives and then to look at “why those particular meanings have importance in the social or educational context” (McTaggart 2001:3).

Bassey (1999) describes educational case studies as being conducted within localised boundaries of space and time that enquire into aspects of educational activity, mainly within their natural context and within an ethics of respect for the persons involved. The case study will allow me to consider part of a social group’s highly localised culture (Quantz 1992), in this case, the relationship between policy discourse, contextual realities and environmental learning processes in the school (as indicated above). It will not aim to generate a generalisable theory or a ‘meta-narrative’ of the phenomenon in

the study, but potentially allow the drawing of what Bassey (1999:47-55) terms 'fuzzy generalizations'. Bassey notes that context and circumstance give research its meaning, and that it is the existence of many variables that allow people to enter into discourse about it. He describes statements based on research with these numerous variables that result in a degree of built-in uncertainty as "fuzzy generalisations" (*ibid*:52). Bhola (1990:162) echoes this sentiment noting that "people will be able to hear in the descriptions echoes of their own reality and be able to receive not instructions, but useful insights – generalisations rich with particulars". McTaggart (1991:3) notes that "interpretive research creates understanding by connecting with the readers' own experience in various ways".

3.2. DATA GENERATION AND ANALYSIS

In order to understand the contextual and policy influences on teaching and learning processes occurring at the school, I used a layered approach to generate the data used in this study from a number of different perspectives and sources (see 3.1. below). The diversity of these methods allowed for a triangulation of and reflection on information generated in each layer, and provided an opportunity to further inform other layers of the study. The purpose of triangulation in this context is to allow for a richer, more complex picture of the interactions between school policy, context and teaching and learning processes. The layers are all inter-related, with one layer informing the next layer. This approach allowed me to generate data drawn from the environmental education experiences in the school, with the focus on the relationship between contextual factors, school policy and environmental learning processes, allowing me to "recognise the complexity and 'embeddedness' of social truths" (Adelman *et al.* 1980, as quoted by Bassey 1999: 23).

A large part of this study is concerned with the multi-dimensional contexts of the learners, and this layered approach allows me to access a number of different contextual perspectives. As indicated in the diagram above, the study also applied an integrated approach to data generation and analysis, with each layer of data analysis informing the next layer of data generation and interpretation. The diagram also indicated how this approach informed the structure of the study. Data generation for each phase is discussed in more detail in the forthcoming chapters, but is briefly introduced here.

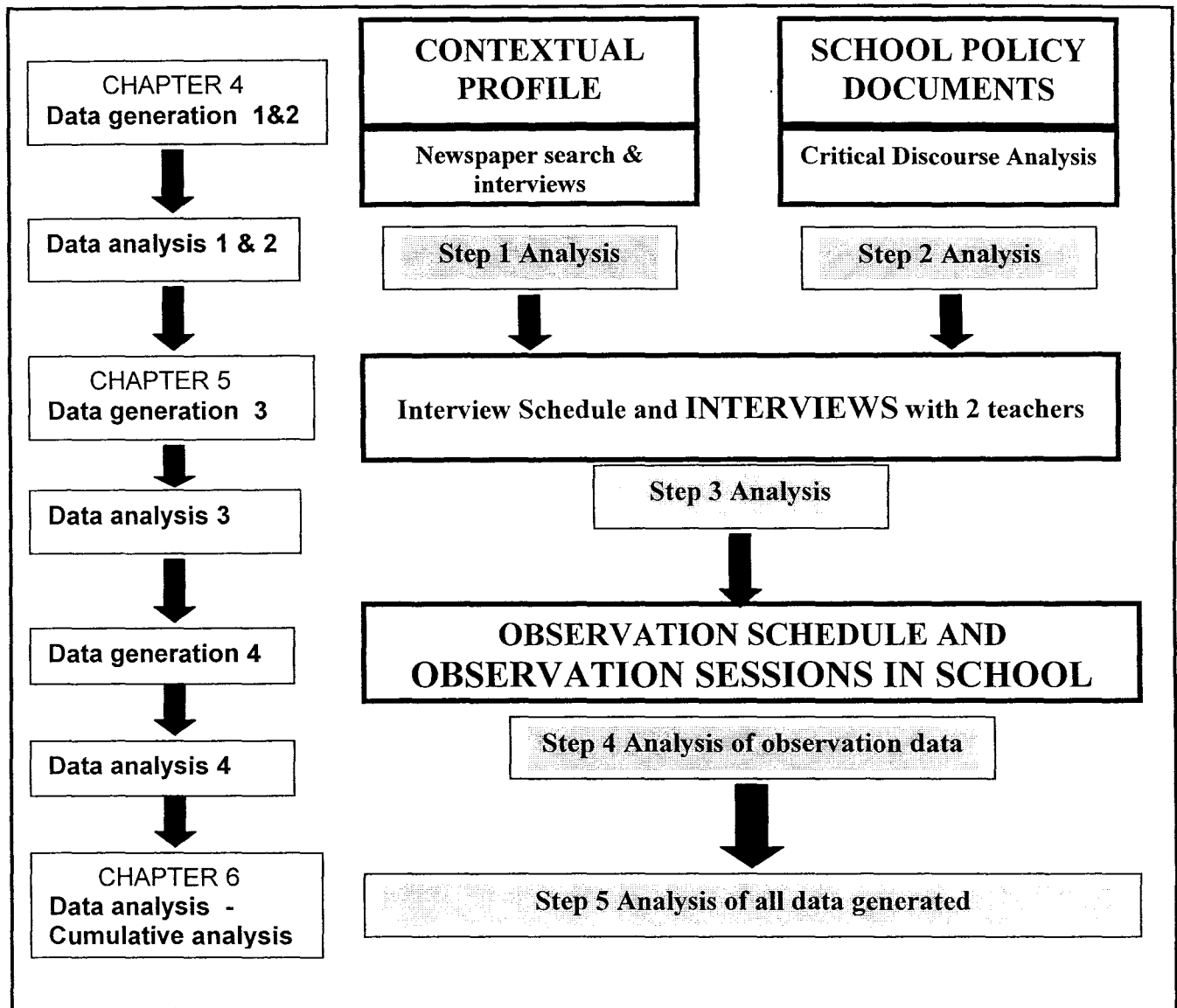


Figure 3.1: Diagram showing the research design relationship between data generation and data analysis.

3.2.1 Contextual profile (data generation and analysis 1)

Prior to the commencement of this research, I had produced a contextual profile on three different types of early childhood development centres in the Grahamstown area (Vallabh 2004a). The development of this profile included a broad overview of early childhood development, a history of the area, and an exploration of the contextual issues affecting the schools and learners of each school. The development of this profile allowed me to gain access to the three schools, and to develop my initial understanding of the various contextual settings in which learners were situated. After completion of the

initial profile, I deliberated with my colleagues and supervisors on the selection of one of the three schools for the study.

After reviewing the three school profiles and conducting three informal interviews, I elected to base the study on the community-based ECD centre. The school was selected because it represented a formalised education and development centre, was affected by the largest number of issues and because of the enthusiasm of the teachers for the study. In addition, it is similar to the majority of ECD sites in South Africa (being a community-based ECD centre) and, although the study was not conducted to create generalisations of this phenomenon, it intended to provide deeper insight into aspects of the phenomena. Thus, I felt that researching this site would be most useful to the development of my understanding of ECD centres.

I further developed the contextual profile, with a focus on the school selected for the purpose of this study. As with the initial profile, I collected newspaper reports for the 2003-2004 period from the local *Grocott's Mail* newspaper (local context). In addition, a number of informal discussions with teachers and the Director of the CSD in Grahamstown were conducted. A number of other document sources were also consulted to provide a broader perspective on ECD in South Africa (broader context). Identifying the contextual issues and factors contributed to framing the interview and observation schedules, and provided further insight for the readings of the school policy text through critical discourse analysis (CDA) (see chapter 4).

The aim of further developing the contextual profile was to provide greater insight into the factors, issues and challenges that learners encounter and are affected by in their multiple environments. It aims to richly describe and align my understanding of the contexts that impact on the lives of children in this study, on the basis that "children and their contexts mutually constitute each other" and in light of the fact that children live in specific environments, and are faced with specific challenges and issues that affect their living and learning experiences (Graue & Walsh, 1995:140-141).

In compiling the profile, I wanted to 'map out' the environmental context of the learners. I considered biophysical, social, economic and political aspects of the environment, and strove to build a picture of the inter-related nature of these aspects and their effect on learners (see Rosenberg 2004a). In doing so, the profile allowed me to examine some of the "overlapping social boundaries of children and teachers", in order to determine "the interaction of home, neighbourhood, and school cultures as they impact learning experiences" (McGee-Brown, 1995:196).

Further details on the methods used to compile the contextual profile are contained in chapter 4 (see Section 4.2.1). As in the analysis processes outlined above, a process of inductive analysis was used to further refine the themes that emerged out of the data (Patton 1990). Key themes emerging from the analysis process (analysis 1) are listed in Table 3.1 below.

Themes	Sub-themes
<i>The multi-dimensional environment</i>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Economic environment • Social environment • Biophysical environment • Political environment
<i>School – community relationships</i>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Teacher – parent – community relationships
<i>Teaching and learning methods and processes</i>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Whole child development • Life-long learning • Adult education
<i>Interactions between school environment and other environments</i> (including home and community environments)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • School environment • Home environment • Broader community environment

Table 3.1: Themes emerging from the compilation of this contextual profile.

3.2.2. Looking at school policy (data generation and analysis 2)

I collected and examined the school policy (the school constitution) in order to examine how it influences teaching practice in the school. By examining this policy through critical discourse analysis (Price 2002; Janks 1997), I was able to identify dimensions of the policy discourse that may influence environmental learning processes in the classroom.

The process of revealing dimensions of the school policy discourse (through critical discourse analysis), was aimed at clarifying and informing the interview schedule and observation framework. I used the model showing Fairclough's dimensions of discourse and discourse analysis as depicted in Fig. 3.1 below (Fairclough 1995:98, as cited by Janks 1997).

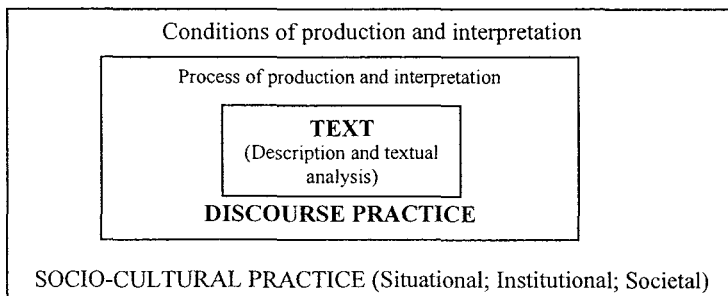


Fig. 32: Fairclough's dimensions of discourse and discourse analysis

In addition, I also used the techniques that Janks (1997) describes as reading with and against the text to analyse the policy documents (Price 2002). In reading with the text, I hoped to read what the text was trying to say, the message it was conveying to the reader. In reading against the text or taking a position of estrangement, I attempted to offer alternative readings of the text, deliberately resisting the "... text's apparent naturalness" (Price 2002:75). Critical discourse analysis (as used by Janks 1997 and Price 2002) involves a description of the text; interpretation of the text as discourse practice (which critically considers the process of text production and interpretation) and explanation of the text through locating the text in socio-cultural practice (this involves a critical analysis of the conditions of text production and interpretation). Further details of how I applied this method are explained in chapter 4 (see Section 4.3.1). Sub-themes in the earlier analysis framework (analysis 2 – see Table 3.1) were refined following this analysis as outlined in Table 3.2 below. New or refined sub-themes are indicated using italics.

Theme	Sub-themes
<i>The multi-dimensional environment</i>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Economic environment • Social environment • Biophysical environment • Political environment
<i>School – community relationships</i>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • <i>Ambivalences in teacher – parent – community relationships</i> • <i>Leadership</i>
<i>Teaching and learning methods and processes</i>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Whole child development • Adult education
<i>Interactions between school environment and other environments</i> (including home and community environments)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • School environment • Home environment • Broader community environment • <i>Restructuring of home-school boundaries</i>
<i>Relationship between context and school policy</i>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • <i>Contextual embeddedness of school policy</i> • <i>Ambivalence in the educational and socio-economic focus of the school policy</i>

Table 3.2 Refinement of themes following the CDA of school policy.

Data generated through the contextual profile and CDA of the school policy document were examined and coded as shown above in Table 3.2, in order to develop a framework that would guide the interview schedule.

3.2.3. Semi-structured interviews (data generation and analysis 3)

I used two semi-structured interviews as a means of discussing the interviewees' "... interpretations of the world in which they live, and to express how they regard situations from their own point of view" (Cohen, Manion & Morrison 2001: 268). More specifically, I tried to engage teachers in a process of sharing their understanding of the school constitution (policy) and context. The interviews provided the opportunity to ensure that the picture I perceived and generated, carefully and accurately represented the interviewees' points of view and understanding. In addition, they also gave me the opportunity to engage with teachers 'face to face', allowing me to clarify ideas and to follow up on any responses immediately. The interviews were based on the assumption that far from being neutral, interviewees' understandings and responses are couched in the cultural and contextual *repertoires* of all participants, which indicate how people make sense of their social world and of each other (Cohen *et al.* 2001:268).

After using the step one and two analysis to formulate interview questions, I analysed the interview data to further inform the observation schedule. Interview data was also coded and used to add depth to the contextual profile and the analysis of the school policy discourse. Further details on how these methods were used are contained in chapter 5 (see Section 5.2.1).

Theme	Sub-themes
<i>The multi-dimensional environment</i>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Economic environment • Social environment • Biophysical environment • Political environment
<i>School – community relationships</i>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Ambivalences in teacher – parent – community relationships • Leadership • <i>The development of safety nets for children and families</i> • <i>Children's rights</i>
<i>Teaching and learning methods and processes</i>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Whole child development • Adult education
<i>Interactions between school environment and other environments</i> (including home and community environments)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • School environment • Home environment • Broader community environment • Restructuring of home-school boundaries
<i>Relationship between context and school policy</i>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Contextual embeddedness of school policy • <i>Ambivalence in the educational and socio-economic focus of the school policy</i>

Table 3.3: Further refinement of themes and sub-themes emerging from the teacher interview analysis.

3.2.4 Lesson observations (data generation and analysis 4)

Video observations were undertaken in order “to gather ‘live’ data from ‘live’ situations” (Cohen *et al.* 2001:305). As indicated above, guidelines for the observations were derived from a critical discourse analysis of the school policy document, an in-depth review of key contextual factors as identified in the early contextual profile, and teacher interviews.

I had originally planned to observe 8 lessons, but it was decided in consultation with my supervisor and colleagues that 6 lessons would provide sufficient data for the purpose of this study. A contact summary sheet (see Appendix 4) as described by Miles & Huberman (1984) was completed after each observation period. The contact summary sheet served as a preliminary review of the session, allowing me to note my immediate impressions of trends and issues emerging during each lesson, and as a tool for informing the following observation sessions.

Several trial visits were organised and trial video material was gathered, and although it was not possible to completely erase the impact of my presence on the group, these processes allowed participants to acclimatise themselves to my presence and to greatly reduce the impact of an outsider on the behaviour of the group. In reflection with the teachers, all three teachers noted that my presence in the classroom did not affect them negatively, although the learners did tend to get distracted by the camera if the lesson failed to hold their interest.

Video footage was used to record and later re-visit and further analyse observation sessions, as well as to transcribe and translate interactions (lessons were conducted in isiXhosa, supplemented by small amounts of English). The use of video as an aid to observation allowed me to take note of interactions I may have missed during the live observation sessions, although this process was limited. In addition, the video footage provided partial documentation of the observation session which was used as a feedback tool and provided a reflective opportunity for both myself and teachers.

Observations were supported by a series of informal interviews aimed at reflecting on the lessons and data generated with the teachers. It was my aim to gather information in observation sessions by “observation of some social event ... and explanations of its meaning by participants ... before, during and after its occurrence” (Becker & Geer 1970:133 as quoted by Patton 1990). Thus, the observation data allowed me to build thick descriptions of the phenomena observed in the study (see chapter 6).

Limitations of this method in this study included poor sound quality and limited capacity. Although the sound quality was on the whole, sufficient for transcription purposes, there are instances of poor audio quality, especially with regard to some of the more soft-spoken learner responses. Although I continually re-positioned myself during the lessons in order to be closer to the speakers, it was not always possible to anticipate the next speaker, and as most lessons were conducted, at least in part, in a large ring, some speakers were inaccessible without disrupting the lesson. The video only captured activities which I thought were relevant and which allowed for sufficient audio quality, allowing for the possibility that I missed significant interactions. Creative activities were not recorded due to the multiple activities taking place at the same time and the large amount of background sound that made hearing comments impractical. This dimension of each lesson was observed, but not recorded on video.

Video observation data of the teaching and learning was analysed through a process of identifying practices for key themes related to policy discourses and contextual factors (see themes outlined above), and through looking at how environmental education is taught in lessons at an ECD level. This analysis process was aimed at identifying the relationship between policy discourse in the school and environmentally oriented teaching and learning processes. Also, I considered the relationship between teaching and learning practices and contextual realities. Video observation data was transcribed, translated, interpreted and coded.

Further details on how these methods were used are contained in chapter 5 (see Section 5.3.1). Refinement of the sub-themes emerging from the video observations are listed in Table 3.4 below and are identified in italics.

Theme	Sub-themes
<i>The multi-dimensional environment</i>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Economic environment • Social environment • Biophysical environment
<i>School – community relationships</i>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The development of safety nets for children and families • Children's rights
<i>Teaching and learning methods and processes</i>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Whole child development • <i>Critical approach to curriculum</i>
<i>Interactions between school environment and other environments</i> (including home and community environments)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • School environment • Home environment • Broader community environment • Restructuring of home-school boundaries

Relationship between context and school policy	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Contextual embeddedness of school policy • Ambivalence in the educational and socio-economic focus of the school policy
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Table 3.4: Themes emerging from the video observations of lessons.

Data from the contextual profile, CDA of school policy, interviews and video observations were coded within a refined framework, as outlined in Table 3.4, was used to guide the final analysis (analysis 5) of data as described below. This analysis framework (as reported in analysis 1-4 above) proved to be useful for guiding ongoing data generation and the development of more in-depth perspectives on the initial themes. It was, however, not adequate for the final interpretation, which needed to focus specifically on the relationships *between* policy, context and teaching and learning. I therefore re-interpreted the data, drawing on the insights generated through analysis 1-4 (reported above) to develop a more adequate framework for the final analysis (analysis 5). Through this process I was able to generate a more in-depth perspective on the research question.

3.2.5 Final analysis of data (level 5)

The final phase of analysis considers how policy discourse and contextual factors influence teaching and learning practice and thus, environmental learning processes. During this process, I drew on findings from previous analysis processes (steps 1 – 4) to create the 'bigger picture' of the factors influencing environmental learning process in the school. Observation data was compared to and triangulated with the interview data, contextual findings and school policy analysis throughout this phase of the data analysis process. Patterns and discrepancies emerging from all data generated were used to highlight the areas that support each other and those that stand alone and are unsupported. The refined framework of themes guiding the final analysis of data are listed in Table 3.5 below, and used to frame reporting and interpretations in Chapter 6.

Themes	Sub-themes
Context and policy	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • School policy and context • National policy, school policy and context • Risk, sustainable development and international policy
Context, policy and school-community relationships	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Community development and education • Role of parents

Context, policy and curriculum	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Explicit curriculum • Implicit curriculum • Null curriculum
Context, policy and teaching and learning processes	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Critical thinking • Dialogue, encounter and reflection

Table 3.5: Themes used to develop a framework for the final analysis.

3.3. AUTHENTICITY, INTEGRITY AND RIGOUR

This study addresses the issues of validity in a multi-faceted way, bearing in mind that each study has a degree of bias and invalidity, through striving to “minimise invalidity and maximise validity” (Cohen *et al.* 2001) through consideration of the following:

- Through careful analysis (as described above), I have used the four different methods of data generation to triangulate (confirm and highlight discrepancies) the research findings to construct more complex and revealing accounts of the case (Patton 1990).
- By continuously maintaining the “context-boundness” (Cohen *et al.* 2001) of the study.
- Performing member checks or respondent validation in a process of “continuing mutual feedback” (Lather 1986; Cohen *et al.* 2001) as a form of face validity. Due to the process of generating data that reflects the context and practice of teachers, it was imperative that I confirmed all translations and interpretations to ensure that it accurately represented the teacher’s practice.
- The use of thick descriptions (Bassegy 1999; Cohen *et al.* 2001) as a manner of reporting the situation through the eyes of the participant.
- Clear and naturalistic presentation of the research processes, information and findings in a manner that is as traceable as possible (Cohen *et al.* 2001), through careful cross-referencing to original sources and transcripts.
- With regards to observation data: the teaching of lessons in isiXhosa necessitated the translation of the videos into English. Two translators were used for each lesson – the first was the teacher who conducted the lesson, the second was an outside translator who was more familiar with translating and had a better grasp of English. Discrepancies in the translations were settled by using the teacher’s translations.
- It is my hope that findings will inform practice and be used as a tool in the further development of environmental educational processes in the school, thus facilitating a process of catalytic validity (Lather 1986).

3.4. ETHICAL ISSUES

Access to the school was gained during a prior assignment in which the school was involved. I negotiated this access through the CSD, who work in close partnership with the school. During the initial meeting, the outline of the research was clearly presented to the project manager at the school. Research activities were negotiated throughout the research process with each teacher involved. In addition, I felt it was important to gain the children's' acceptance as I would be working in their spaces and be involved in their activities. This was achieved by explaining what I would be doing and answering their questions about the research. In addition, I worked on building relationships with them throughout the research process. It was decided that the school would negotiate parental permission.

Due to the specific nature of the observations, and in acknowledgement of the demands of daily teaching practices and time constraints, all observations and formal interviews were negotiated with specific teachers. In addition, I made frequent unscheduled visits to the school, both to deliver and collect documents, and to assist in various school activities. The decision to become involved in school activities beyond the scope of this research was made so that I could find ways to give back to the school in compensation for the co-operation of the school and staff with the research. This proved to be a successful exchange between us, and resulted in a good working relationship (see Appendix 1).

During initial discussions with the school and the CSD, and throughout the research process, we (the teachers and I) had decided to maintain the anonymity of the school. We decided that a further decision would be made once the data had been member checked by teachers. At the conclusion of the study, the teachers and I decided that there was no need to keep the study anonymous as none of the data generated was of a sensitive nature.

As a researcher, it is imperative that confidentiality be upheld for those who are gracious enough to allow access to and scrutiny of their thoughts (Miles and Huberman 1984, Patton 1990, Cohen *et al.* 2001). In addition, it needs to be borne in mind that the words of the interviewees are ultimately their own, and that the right to change or withdraw any information given in both the formal and informal interviews is theirs. All individual names used in this report are pseudonyms.

The use of video observations in the classrooms was carefully negotiated with teachers. I gave teachers the option to substitute lessons that they felt did not go well with other

lessons. This strategy reduced the stress on teachers as there was always the option of a 'second chance'. This option was never exercised by teachers.

3.5 POTENTIAL LIMITATIONS

This study is contextual to the school in the study, and does not take into account factors that may affect other schools in South Africa, such as centres where teachers have no formal training, home-based centres or schools that have no access to resources. Nor does it consider ECD centres outside of South Africa, who potentially have markedly different contextual influences. The time frame of the research project limited the amount of data generated, and may not have left time for deeper probing into areas highlighted in the course of the observation period.

In addition, the environmental teaching and learning process in this study are only examined from a contextual and policy perspective. It does not take into account other factors that affect and influence teaching and learning processes.

3.6 CONCLUSION

In this chapter, I described the research orientation of the study. I went on to explain the data generation and analysis methods used, including the compilation of a contextual profile, critical discourse analysis of school policy, teacher interviews and lesson observations. I then described the ways in which this study addresses issues of validity, authenticity, integrity and rigour as well as the ethical issues considered in the study.

In chapter 4, I present data generated through the compilation of a contextual profile and through the critical discourse analysis of a school policy document.

CHAPTER 4

CONTEXT AND SCHOOL POLICY

Here, we've got different children, they [are] coming from different homes ... where do they come from? It's very important ...
(Zama, pers. comm. 2004)



4.1 INTRODUCTION

In this chapter, I present a summary of the data generated from the contextual profile of the school in addition to the discourse analysis of the school constitution. Both of these data sources provided the opportunity to ground the research within the context of the school. The first provided an opportunity to broadly locate the Raglan Road Community Centre within the landscape of ECD and the community. The second allowed me to critically probe this context and further examine some of the policy responses surrounding the context of the school, and the relationship between school and community.

4.2 CONTEXTUAL PROFILE OF SCHOOL

Children's contexts have changed dramatically in recent years as social, cultural and economic factors have modified the resources and experiences in their lives. Different relationships are available to children now as compared to previous generations ... and different knowledge is available to them, from computer savvy to thinking about AIDS ... children cannot remain untouched by their contexts; children and their contexts mutually constitute each other.

(Graue and Walsh 1995:141)

This section focuses on the contextual issues affecting people, and specifically children in the community surrounding the Raglan Road Community Centre. It is a profile developed in part from a previous profile of three schools in the Grahamstown area (Vallabh 2004a), with a focus on the school in this study. This profile will serve to provide me with insight into the contextual factors forming part of the social climate of young children in the area.

Graue and Walsh (1995) note that the context includes areas of cultural belief and cultural norms, resource availability, and environmental issues in the immediate and larger environment, all of which inform practice in the ECD field. They further note that "[t]he goal of interpretive research is not the development of grand acultural theory but richly detailed cultural descriptions that realign our present understandings of the realities of contemporary children's lives" (*ibid* 1995:135), and that "individual action is generated out of social interactions and the meanings they create ... [i]t is enabled and constrained by the tools and resources (including other individuals) that comprise the context".

Flyvbjerg (2002) argues that context dependence "means an open-ended, contingent relation between contexts and actions and interpretations" and that social theory should aim not to be context-independent in an attempt to create broad and generalisable

theories because people's decisions on what count as relevant actions are context dependent in nature.

During the initial contextual profile study of three schools in the Grahamstown area, teachers highlighted the following contextual factors as environmental issues and risks that potentially affect learning processes in their schools: Poverty, nutrition, health issues such as HIV/AIDS, neglect and abuse, broken homes and unstable family units (Vallabh 2004a). These issues can be located within a broad view of the interrelated environment (as articulated by O'Donoghue, 1993 – see Section 2.4.2), and are central to the lives of learners. This profile aims to locate the study within the social, economic and ecological issues within which, and to which the Raglan Road Childcare Centre responds, while trying to maintain the integrity of the study as research about environmental education teaching and learning processes (Rosenberg 2004), as seen in chapter 5.3.

4.2.1 Methods of data generation and analysis

In compiling this profile, I used a multi-layered approach to access data from a number of sources in an attempt to build thick descriptions of the context in which learners are situated. The initial profile (Vallabh 2004a) was compiled through a combination of the following: an interview with the Director of the Centre for Social Development, Grahamstown, (through whom access to the schools was negotiated); semi-structured interviews with head teachers from three schools; a literature review and internet search for current issues in ECD; and a content analysis of the local newspaper, the *Grocott's Mail*, aimed at supporting and deepening data generated through interviews. In the initial profile documenting three different schools, photographs were used to illustrate the different school environments. The understandings and insights from the interviews formed the basis of the profile. I used issues identified by teachers as the starting point for the literature review and framed the picture of ECD around their views for the most part (see Vallabh 2004a).

The subsequent revision of the profile was managed through updating the newspaper search, further interviews with teachers and CSD staff (both formal and informal) and a further review of literature in the field. It is interesting to note that although both literature reviews provided ample information on ECD in so-called western countries, there was very little published information on ECD in South Africa.

4.2.2 The school environment

The inequity practices that are the legacy of the apartheid era manifest themselves in both the settlement patterns and the educational structures of Grahamstown, influencing quality, standards and resources available in different schools (Vallabh 2004a).

The Raglan Road Pre-School began as an initiative of the CSD in 1990. The centre has grown to provide services for the community, although the core of the centre is still the pre-school and full-day care facility.

The centre seems to be the 'middle road' between the more affluent and the poorer schools in Grahamstown. The school is well furnished, with donations of equipment and resources from several sources, a large play area and a variety of activities for children to partake in. Resources, however, are limited and the centre is carefully managed to ensure that it can remain functional. The school also depends on parent fee contributions, which are based on a sliding scale.

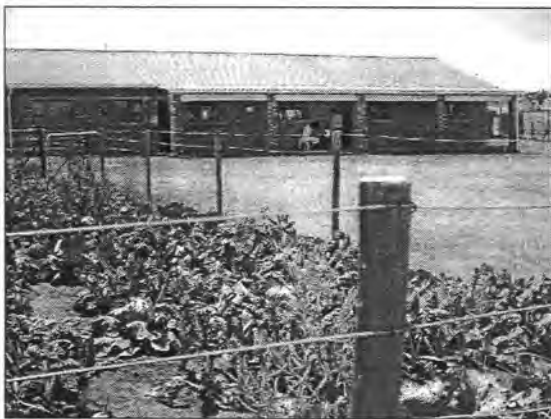


Fig 4.1 Pictures of the Raglan Road Community Centre and Child Care Centre.

4.2.3 School demographic profile

Number of pre-school employees	1 project manager, 4 qualified ECD practitioners, and 3 support staff
Number of learners	Between 110 and 115 per annum
Age range of learners	3 to 6 years old
Parent fee contributions per month	sliding scale (approx. R70 per month)
Meals provided	Breakfast, lunch, snacks
Areas children come from	Grahamstown East
Racial mix of learners	Mainly black learners
Number of projects run at the centre	10 (9 of which are self-sustaining)

Table 4.1: Demographic profile of Raglan Road Community Centre (Thambo 2004 pers. comm.)

4.2.4 Established projects

The school runs a number of projects, most of which are self-sustaining. They include:

The Pre-school Centre: This centre caters for 115 learners, and includes the provision of two nutritious meals a day and the option of full-day care. This project is funded by the Centre for Social Development.



Fig. 4.2 The pre-school centre provides nutritious meals and a safe environment.

Service centre project: These services include catering for senior citizens (2 cooked meals), craft making, prayer groups and other activities for senior citizens. In addition, a newly established vegetable garden has been designated for each senior citizen providing fresh vegetables for them to take home to their families.



Fig. 4.3 The service centre runs activities for senior citizens (in conjunction with community workshops)

Herb Project: Workshops aimed at sharing herbal knowledge and recipes are facilitated by the CSD. Herbal remedies are used in the pre-school and the service centre, and a herb garden has been established at the centre.

Food Garden Project: This project supplies fresh produce that supplements the meals provided for children in the pre-school.

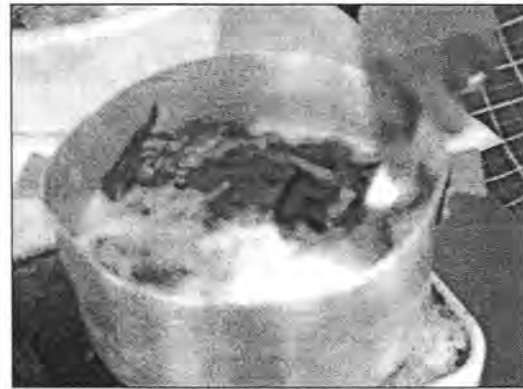


Fig. 4.4 Nutrition and herb gardens supply the needs of the community centre (both for traditional herbal remedies and for the nutritional needs)

Income Saving and Income Generating Project: This project involves sewing and fabric painting by men and women from the surrounding community.

Computer Centre: This new initiative is aimed at catering for youth and school children. The project is currently aimed at developing computer literacy, but anticipates further initiatives such as being a resource for learners from the surrounding schools to assist in the completion of school projects, etc.



Fig. 4.5 The computer centre is used for teaching community members and school children and is linked to the Rhodes University Network

Training Room: this is an income generating strategy that fulfils the communities' needs for a facility where training can be given.

Catering Project: Two groups of previously unemployed mothers cater for groups hiring out the training facility.

ABET: Adult literacy is offered at level 1 and 2, with the tutor subsidised by the Department of Education.

(CSD Annual Review, 2002-3; Thambo 2004 pers. comm.)

A number of these projects are linked to and support each other, for example, the herb and food gardens constitute part of both the service centre project and the pre-school, although each project is also accessed by community members outside of these two projects.

4.2.5 Teacher understanding of environment at an early childhood education level

During the initial set of interviews for the contextual profile, my first interview question was: "what does the term environment mean for you? When we talk about environment, what do you think of?" I used two re-wordings of the same concept to increase the clarity of what I was asking, and to shift the focus from soliciting the 'right' answer -- to encouraging a personal view and understanding, and I found that this was quite successful. I expected the teachers to struggle with the broad term and have very limited views of the concept of environment.

Instead, I received the following responses:

Environment is ...

"just about everything, culture, socializing, homes, inside and out."
(Schäfer 2004 pers. comm.)

"a thread that runs through everything". (Hornby 2004 pers. comm.)

"[a] place where we belong, stay, atmosphere, people". (Thambo 2004 pers. comm.)

"where they (learners) come from, identity, economics". (Marias 2004 pers. comm.)

I found, through breaking down of the concept of environment with teachers, that they had an understanding of the broad term *environment* to include everything around the child, everything around us and everything that touches our lives.

They saw their focus as ECD teachers as providing an environment for children that was safe, emotionally rich as far as loving, caring and emotional support went, and full of opportunities for learning, exploring and sharing to encourage healthy development of the child - a place that "lack[ed] outside issues, a healthy environment" (Marias 2004 pers. comm.).

Teachers also referred to a need to assess and take into account the home environment and the larger community environment and related issues. They believed all these places, including the school, provided different and varied learning environments for the children, and that issues in one environment were often closely related to issues in one of the child's other learning environments (Vallabh 2004a).

The project manager at Raglan Road Community Centre stressed this need for a multi-environmental consciousness when helping children deal with their daily challenges. She also felt that different environments could greatly support each other, and that this was in fact necessary for the healthy functioning of both school and family units. At the Raglan Road Community Centre, part of the school-parent relationship is the forming of these ties through counselling and referral, parent workshops and parent and child support. The centre also provides services for adults and the elderly, and supports community development and capacity building (as outlined in 4.2.3. above).

As mentioned above, the greatest issues arising from these teacher interviews included nutrition, health issues, neglect and abuse, broken homes and unstable family units. Underlying many of these issues was the issue of poverty, which teachers discussed in relation to these other issues, and which was greatly evident in both the newspaper

search on the area and in the literature review. These issues were explored in more depth in the process of contextualising this study.

4.2.6 Nutrition (also see Section 2.2 – primary health care and nutrition)

A central and pivotal role for ECD Centres seems to be the nutritional monitoring and stabilisation of young children. Not surprisingly, malnutrition is mostly associated with poorer communities and families. In an attempt to combat the effects of poor nutrition, many schools, and specifically schools that service poor and marginalised communities, have established food gardens that enable them to supplement children's' nutritional intake during school hours (see 4.2.3 above).

As mentioned earlier, the Raglan Road Pre-school has a food garden aimed at providing fresh vegetables to the school on a sustainable basis to supplement the school diet. Children are fed breakfast and lunch as well as two snacks during mid-morning and mid-afternoon on a daily basis. Teachers show conscious care and planning with regards to the nutritional details of meals and the importance of balanced diets that cater for the needs of the children's growth period.

Also, all the classrooms in the school show evidence of these nutritional concepts through the presence of simplified nutritional charts for the learners to see, food theme tables and in the use of the food gardens as a learning environment. Children help in tending to the gardens and are given lessons about the life of gardens and the plants therein.



Fig. 4.6. Children turning the soil and watering the plants in the school's vegetable garden.

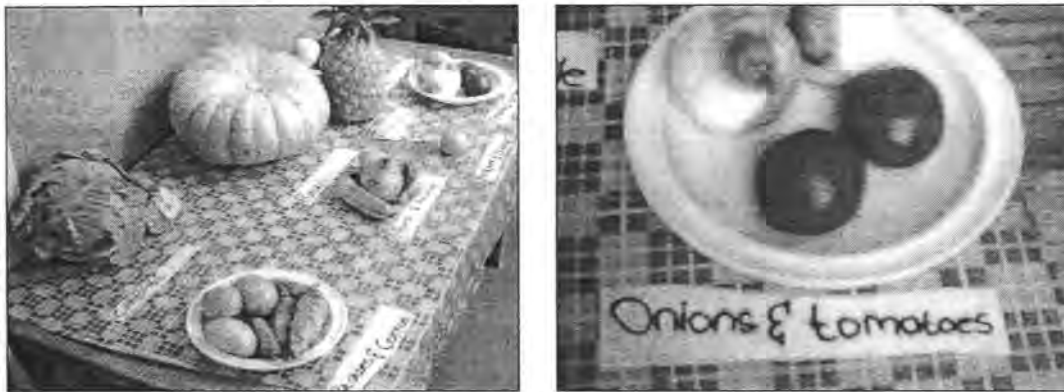


Fig. 4.7. A focus on nutrition in the ECD classrooms.

During the initial profile, both schools servicing impoverished communities reported significant weight-loss in children after vacation periods, marking how successfully the schools seem to be able to assist in the nutritional supplementation of children attending the schools (Thambo 2004 & Marias 2004 pers. comm.).

Currently, there is a government nutrition programme that provides nutrition for grade R through to 4th grade learners. This seems to consist of a powdered milkshake and a few nutrition biscuits daily. The *Grocott's Mail* had articles expressing community discontent with this system (Mjekula 2004), with teachers and community members saying that it was "notoriously unreliable", and claiming that they "have no faith in the feeding scheme" (Hartigh 2003). Another article noted that the Eastern Cape Department for Social Development had only spent R2 million of the R7 million budget allocated to feeding the hungry in the province in 2002/2003, (ka Manyisana 2003). In addition, the scheme only provides for the specified ages, leaving others in the school with only what can be provided through other means, and causing social tensions in the school. Many ECD centres in the area have withdrawn from the programme due to the social conflicts caused by the provision of food to a selection of learners (Hornby 2004 pers. comm.).

4.2.7 HIV/AIDS and other health issues

As mentioned in chapter 2, health issues are one of the primary focus areas in many ECD centres, in addition to being a focus in the Human Rights Movement. In South Africa, aside from nutrition, one of the most serious threats to health is that of HIV and AIDS.

Although all three teachers from the different schools in the initial profile mentioned the care and loving treatment of HIV-or AIDS-infected children at school and the precautions

necessary in care provision, the teachers I interviewed had only limited past experience with such cases (barring the possibility of undisclosed cases) (Vallabh 2004a). All three schools brought the aspect of care for AIDS-affected children to the fore, when discussing the topic. They all insisted that the primary need is the creation of an environment in which the child feels secure, accepted and loved, and where they are allowed to be 'normal' children in every possible way (Vallabh 2004a).

Although there is recognition of the impact of HIV/AIDS on the lives of children, there are many other factors that make this a large and far-reaching issue. The following is an extract from a Centre for Social Development Report, regarding AIDS and community attitudes.

HIV/Aids issues: Although communities are losing loved ones daily and numbers of funerals have increased dramatically, the communities will not stand together and talk about Aids. We did some research on nutrition and after visiting 32 pre-schools with questionnaires and interviews, we were told tht [sic] many people were dying in the communities but none had apparently died of Aids. Very few people knew of someone who was suffering from Aids. (Centre for Social Development 2003c:3)

This feeling of dis-ownership of AIDS as a social factor impacting on the immediate lives of Grahamstown communities was echoed in many reports and articles, with teachers seeking to be 'plump' to avoid suspicion of having Aids, and community members being afraid of having HIV tests (Hornby 2004 pers. comm.; Thambo 2004 pers. comm.).

Yet there are also any number of articles linking AIDS to deep and far-reaching social issues such as an increase in orphan numbers, poverty and malnutrition as breadwinners fall ill and have to be taken care of, of children leaving school to become bread-winners to feed ill parents or take care for them, and fears for industry and economy fears because of the number people in the workforce falling ill, dying or attending increasing numbers of funerals (Kihn 2004; Cullinan 2000; Lawson 1997; Jhumra 1998; Sulcas 2000; Moore 2001). In addition, UNESCO (2002:23) notes that there is a need to respond to the "new contexts that are resulting from the pandemic" and to the threat it poses to sustainable development.

The two schools servicing the poorer communities of Grahamstown both have medicinal plants in their food gardens, which are regularly used to treat colds and other such ailments that effect children. The Raglan Road Pre-School also uses this garden as a demonstration garden to educate the surrounding community in traditional health care gardening, with the specific target of combating some of the devastating effects of HIV and AIDS, and with herbs for use against colds and everyday ailments included.

The Raglan Road Community Centre and Mother Hen Pre-School both linked health problems in children to nutrition, and felt that assisting with the nutritional intake of the learners supported their good health (Vallabh 2004a).

4.2.8 Broken homes and unstable family units

One of the main contributors to the breaking up and forced re-arrangement of family units is HIV/AIDS (CSD 2003; Cullinan 2000; Lawson 1997). This often results in the re-definition of the family unit as children are sent to stay with aunts or grandparents upon the death of their parents.

Another cause of the restructuring of the family unit is migratory labour. With the low employment rate in Grahamstown, parents are forced to leave children with aunts or relatives in order to find employment in Port Elizabeth or East London (the two cities closest to Grahamstown) (Schäfer 2004 pers. comm.).

A third cause of the restructuring of family units is through divorce, separation and single-parenting, (noted specifically in the Raglan Road Community Centre, where it is not uncommon for single mothers to raise and support children).

Two of the teachers noted that this restructuring, while providing for the immediate physical needs of the child such as food and shelter, does not necessarily provide for the emotional needs of the child. Both teachers noted that children were often emotionally neglected in 'foster' homes, with little attention given to homework (partly due to adult illiteracy levels), school support and deeper emotional needs of nurturing and care. They observed that children had problems finding an adult to read to them, tell them stories or explain school work to them.

In addition, these homes (and many others in the community) have further issues with regard to neglect and abuse of both women and children.

4.2.9 Neglect and abuse of the child

Teachers interviewed noted that there were a variety of abuses that children were exposed to and had to cope with daily. Some of the specific examples brought up by the teachers were as follows:

- physical abuse in the form of beatings, sometimes brought on by drunkenness,
- sexual abuse, often resulting from unequal power distribution in the home and the community, with mothers themselves being beaten and abused,

- emotional abuse in the form of neglect and lack of emotional support (see above section), or inability of parents to respond to children due to drunkenness, and other causes,
- neglect in terms of feeding due to poverty, unemployment or failure to manage funds resulting from excessive spending on alcohol and adult leisure items, and,
- neglect due to parents being in ill health with AIDS or other diseases, rendering them unable to physically take care of and provide for children in their care.

(Marais 2004 pers. comm., Schäfer 2004 pers. comm., Thambo 2004 pers. comm., see Vallabh 2004a).

4.2.10 Poverty

Although not directly identified as an issue affecting the lives of learners in the interviews, many of the above issues were discussed in relation to poverty in addition to being identified in the newspaper search and literature review.

Children are disproportionately represented among the poor; in South Africa it is estimated that between 58% and 75% of children live below the poverty line, and further more, this poverty is concentrated in rural and peri-urban areas and further more, in black⁸ households (StatsSA 1999; Porteus 2004). In Grahamstown, it is estimated that up to 70% of the population is unemployed or living below the poverty line.

The Children's Institute *et al.* (2003:3) describe poverty as:

... more than merely income insufficiency ... [i]t is the inability of individuals, households or communities to command sufficient resources to satisfy a socially acceptable minimum standard of living' ... it includes a lack of opportunity, lack of access to assets and credit, as well as social exclusion ... it is complex and multi-faceted, fluctuating in depth and duration.

Material poverty has far-reaching effects and can be seen as linked to capability deprivation in many spheres of life (Sen 2001, see Section 2.5.3).

There are two forms of State intervention currently in place for addressing these issues – the provision of social infrastructure, and the provision of social security grants. Both of these strategies face a number of challenges, including corrupt government personnel and the misappropriation of funds, mis-use of funds for substance abuse instead of supplying basic needs, time and supply constraints with regard to infrastructure,

⁸ This study shifts between the use of 'black' and 'non-white' to denote racial divisions depending on the source of information available. The term 'non-white' is inclusive of both Indian and coloured South Africans, whereas the term 'black' is more specific to the African section of the South African population.

insufficient amounts to cover basic needs and limited access to grants (Vallabh 2004a; StatsSA 2003; Porteus 2004).

4.2.11 Other issues identified during the study

In addition to these broad environmental issues highlighted by teachers, a number of other issues emerged during the newspaper search, including issues around water provision, sanitation, poor provision of basic services, poverty and unemployment (see Chapter 2), high crime rates in the area and issues around basic housing provision (also see Hamaamba 2004).

4.2.12 Concluding comment

In the initial profile (Vallabh 2004a), none of the teachers were comfortable with discussing the extent of these issues in the school, although the teacher from Raglan Road Community Centre mentioned most of these issues. The centre seemed to have a wider support structure to try to counter these issues through working pro-actively with parents and communities to address these issues.

In an attempt to relate these issues to school practice and school-community relationships, I chose to critically examine the school constitution. This was aimed at interrogating some of the relationships between context and school policy.

4.3 CRITICAL DISCOURSE ANALYSIS OF SCHOOL POLICY DOCUMENT

We can only make sense of the salience of discourse in contemporary social processes and power relations by recognising that discourse constitutes society and culture, as well as being constituted by them ... [t]his entails that every instance of language makes its own contribution to reproducing and/or transforming society and culture.

(Fairclough & Wodak 1997:273)

In this section, I attempt to look critically at the school constitution of the Raglan Road Child Care Centre in order to help me understand how school policy discourse influences teaching practice and how it is related to learner context. I have tried to unpack the meanings behind what appears to be the relatively simple though formal text to look for the main ideas and contradictions inherent in the text. The aim of this analysis is to look at how school policy works together with learner context to influence the environmental teaching and learning processes at an early childhood level.

After a brief description of the methodology followed while analyzing the text, I include the original policy document analysed. Thereafter, I describe the text structurally and

grammatically. I go on to interpret the text by reading with and against the text and by reading the text through the socio-cultural context of the centre.

4.3.1 Methodology (see Section 3.2.2)

I use critical discourse analysis here not to focus on the language or use of language in the text, but as a tool to investigate the “partially linguistic character of social and cultural processes and structures” (Fairclough & Wodak 1997:271). In using critical discourse analysis to examine this document, I analyse actual instances of social interaction (and ideology⁹) in a linguistic form. Looking at discourse as *socially constructive* will enable me to create a ‘futures’ image of what the school hopes to achieve. As Fairclough and Wodak (1997:258) note, “discursive practices may have major ideological effects: that is, they can help produce and reproduce [equal and] unequal power relations ...”. Viewing discourse as being socially shaped will allow me to build a contextual picture that includes “the situations, ... the social identities of and relationships between people and groups” (Fairclough & Wodak 1997:258) in the school and in part, the community around the school.

In addition, the process of revealing dimensions of the school policy discourse (through critical discourse analysis), is aimed at clarifying and informing my interview schedule and observation framework. As briefly indicated in chapter 3, I will be using the model showing Fairclough’s dimensions of discourse and discourse analysis (Fairclough 1995:98 as cited by Janks 1997). In addition, I will use the techniques that Janks (1997) describes as reading *with* and *against* the text to analyse the policy document (Price 2002). In reading with the text (or engaging with the text), I hope to read what the text is trying to say, the message it is conveying to the reader. In reading against the text or taking a position of estrangement, I will offer alternative readings to the text, deliberately resisting the “... text’s apparent naturalness” (Price 2002:75 – see Section 3.2.2). Janks notes that:

Engagement without estrangement is a form of submission to the power of the text ... Estrangement without engagement is a refusal to enter the confines of one’s own subjectivity, a refusal to allow otherness to enter. Without the entry of the other, can we be said to read the text at all?
(Janks 1997: 331)

Critical discourse analysis (as used by Janks 1997 and Price 2002) involves a description of the text; interpretation of the text as discourse practice (which critically considers the process of text production and interpretation), and explanation of the text

⁹ Fairclough (2003) broadly describes ideology as representations of aspects of the social world that can be shown to contribute to establishing, maintaining and changing social relations of power, domination and exploitation.

through locating the text in socio-cultural practice (this involves a critical analysis of the conditions of text production and interpretation).

To better understand the socio-cultural practice of the centre, I have compiled a contextual profile of the school and area (see previous section). This contextual profile will be used to assist with the socio-cultural interpretation of the text. In addition, because processes of production and interpretation “take place in people’s heads and it is therefore not possible to observe them as one might observe processes in the physical world” (Fairclough 1989:167), two interviews were conducted with teachers at the centre in order to help gain insight into these processes (see Chapter 5). The interviews are based on the assumption that “far from being neutral, [interviewees’ understandings and responses] are couched in the cultural [and contextual] repertoires of all participants, indicating how people make sense of their social world and of each other” (Cohen, Manion & Morrison 2001:268).

4.3.2 The first layer of text

This section contains an original policy document in the first layer of description, and a broad focus on grammar, vocabulary and textual structures in the second layer of description.

4.3.2.1 *First layer of description: Presenting the data*

(see next page for a copy of the original text)

RAGLAN ROAD CHILD CARE CENTRE
CONSTITUTION

1. OBJECTIVES:

- a) To build the leaders of tomorrow.
- b) To reduce the number of street kids and provide security against child abuse.
- c) To integrate/uplift the standard of education and development.
- d) To work hand in hand with teachers, parents and community.

2. PROPERTY AND INCOME:

- Write down and keep records of everything the school owns.
- Staff or parents/community do not have rights over things that school owns.

3. MEMBERSHIP AND GENERAL MEETINGS

- Parents should attend general meetings.
- Staff and committee members should attend meetings.
- Meetings should be held once a month.

4. FINANCES

- (i) Treasurer should keep all financial records
- (ii) Financial reports should be done monthly.

5. RULES

- * Parents should not blame the teachers in the event of accident.
- * Sick children should not be sent to school.
- * School time should be important ie (time school starts and fetching of children).
- * Parents who did not pay schools fees for two months should be reminded of children should be expelled from school.
- * People who bring or fetch children from school should come inside the school.
- * Children should be neat.
- * Parents should attend meetings and participate in everything done at the school.
- * Children's clothes should be marked.

- * If children had a fight both parents should be called.
- * Parents and teachers should respect each other.
- * No children under three years would be admitted.
- * Parents should not keep school equipments at home (toys and clothes)

NB: *If a parent have a problem with the teacher, s/he must discuss the problem with the teacher before taking further steps eg contact Supervisor, Committee members or CSD staff.*

6. AMENDMENTS

Constitution should be changed yearly (if necessary)

7. COMMITTEE MEMBERS : are as follows

- | | |
|---------------------------|---------------------------------|
| 1. Chairperson | Mrs N Stofile |
| 2. Deputy chairperson | Ms L Nxopo |
| 3. Secretary | Ms N Nyikila |
| 4. Deputy secretary | Ms Donyeli |
| 5. Treasurer | Mrs Matika |
| 6. Organiser | Ms Dunjwa |
| 7. Supervisor | Mrs B Tambo-Wakashe |
| 8. Two additional members | Mrs N Nkolongo-Siwa/ Ms T Skade |

8. Adoption of the Constitution was done on the 19 September 2001

9. CERTIFICATION

The text as a social practice:

A copy of this constitution is distributed to all teachers, SGB members and parents at the first meeting of the year. The constitution is read to illiterate parents (this policy is also work-shopped with literate and illiterate parents), and all parents, teachers and SGB members are required to sign their agreement with the school constitution. The document is available in English and isiXhosa to all community members. The text was produced through a process of verbal agreement and is disseminated in written format.

Of note with regard to the text as a social practice is Street's (1995) differentiation between literacy as a technical ability or an autonomous model and literacy as a set of practices that are embedded in socio-cultural contexts or an ideological model. Street challenges the idea that literacy is a neutral ability involving the decoding and encoding of script by proposing instead that literacy and activities relating to the written language are deeply embedded in the socio-cultural contexts in which they occur. The acquisition of these ideological literacies can be seen to be dependent on the acquisition of the values that underpin them (in addition to the technical skills of coding and decoding). This leads individuals to position themselves in very different ways in relation to each text, and results in people placing differing values on the text. In the case of the school constitution, because the text was developed by a group of people (amongst whom are educated teachers and community members), the values represented within the text may only represent a portion of the community, namely those

who were involved in the formulation of the text. In addition, not all members may assign the same degree of value to the text – the school, for example, may value the text more greatly than the parents, because it assigns them a position of power.

4.3.2.2 The second layer of description: Information focus, grammar, vocabulary and textual structures

In this layer of textual analysis, I look at the pattern of information, the focus of information, grammar, vocabulary and textual structures of the text.

Pattern of information:

The document consisting of a total of twenty-five points is divided into nine sub-headings or subjects. Four of the points are school objectives, with the remaining twenty-one points detailing instructions, guidelines and rules. One section is dedicated to listing committee members' names and positions and two more to an adoption date and certification date. One point is highlighted under the rules section in a different font, with a space and an "NB" at its start.

Agency:

There are regular changes from explicit to implicit agency throughout the text, with a tonal shift between these points. The objectives and six of the thirteen school rules have an implicit agency, while the other seven rules refer to parents with one rule referring to both parents and teachers as agents. The treasurer is noted as an agent in one of the two points in the finances section.

As this document is a school document, it is assumed that all the points without agency refer to teacher and school responsibility, therefore making the agency implicit in the context of the document. This use of implicit agency avoids assigning responsibility to any one teacher. These points are written in the form of goals and management details, and shift between a goal discourse and a management discourse, for example, “to build the leaders of tomorrow”, “provide security ...”, and “to integrate/uplift” as goals and “financial report should be done monthly” and “keep records” as management details. These areas of implicit agency, especially the goals, assume a common bond of solidarity and purpose between parents, teachers and community members. This is reinforced to some extent by the absence of pronouns such as “we” and “they” or “them”.

The points with explicit agency, however, (referring to parents as agents) are instructional, directive and authoritative, (for example, “parents should participate ...”, “parents should not keep school equipment ...” and “parents should not blame ...”). These appear to be attempts to manage parental behaviour and participation in school issues.

Mood, modality and ambivalence (or speaker and writer authority):

The modality of the text refers to the authority of the speaker, the relationship between the participants, and degrees of obligation between participants.

Throughout the text, there is a central ambivalence¹⁰ in the power relationships between and roles assigned to the school, the parents and the community, that can be evidenced by the use of unification¹¹ and fragmentation¹² textual structures as described below. The use of partnership discourses, including the terms “participate”, “respect” and “work hand in hand with” indicate some form of democratic agreement and partnership between interested parties. However, the instructive and authoritative nature of the discourse in

¹⁰ “Ambivalence” in the context of this study refers to paradoxes and apparent contradictions in ideology evident as competing discourses and ideologies. This ambivalence reflects shifting social relations and encodes the different and often conflicting social relations.

¹¹ Unification textual structures are used to represent forms of unity which embrace individuals in collective identity, irrespective of difficulties and divisions (Janks 2004 – workshop notes).

¹² Fragmentation textual structures create gaps between parties, emphasising differences (Janks 2004 – workshop notes).

other parts of the text seems to show a more 'school as the controlling agent' relationship. This creates the appearance of a mixture of two discursive formations in the text: between that of the new 'democratic South Africa', and the older (and perhaps cultural) role of schools being in a position of authority (perhaps due to the traditional role held by schools and teachers as "knowledge transmitters" – see for example, Kallaway 1986), with parents having minimal power to control events. Therefore, it appears that in order to work "hand in hand" with the school, parents are obliged to comply with school rules, attend meetings and "participate in everything done at school".

Even though this document is a school constitution, there is very little mention of learners except in reference to instructions given to parents regarding their care of children and in the school objectives. There is only one comment referring to education or child development.

The text takes a position of gender equality, implying equity between male and female learners and parents through the use of "s/he" as opposed to the generic use of "he", and through the use of nouns in place of pronouns (for example, the use of "parent", "children" and "teachers"). One of the effects of this strategy is to make female learners (and women) "visible in language, and thus also socially ... (d)ifferent discourse with and about women can slowly lead to changes in consciousness" (Fairclough & Wodak 1997:280).

The mood of the text is predominantly imperative. The modal verbs "should" and "should not" occur 15 times and in every section of the text except in the first and second sections. Section two is also instructive in nature, as are the two statements that do not use the modal verbs above.

Euphemistic expressions:

Most points without agency could be classified as euphemistic, as they conceal or obscure relations of domination through a naming slippage. This results in a hiding of negative implications.

Discourse types used and formal/informal language:

The text is presented in a formal format, and attempts to use formal English in its presentation. There are, however, some informal phrases and grammatical errors within the text. (This may in part be attributed to the authors being English second language speakers). The formal language draws on a mixture of educational and policy discourse (for example, "Adoption of constitution", "to integrate/uplift the standard of education and development" and "provide security", and a more directive instructional discourse. The slang phrase "street kids" is used to describe children without supervision who are found

playing and living in the streets. The term is part of an objective, and seems out of place because of the formal nature of the text. Another indication of informal language is the use of note-like textual structures (shortened sentences, bullets, shorthand words and signs such as " / " instead of "and", "s/he" instead of "he or she". Points with explicit agency have informal tones, while those with implicit agency tend to be more formal.

Relational value of words:

The writers have tried to make use of policy, development and democratic discourse to formalise the document. The constitution assumes familiarity with background discussions and common meaning-making. For example, "to build the leaders of tomorrow" assumes that all readers and stakeholders are in agreement over the meaning of leadership, and the type of leaders being developed; terms such as "street kids", "integrate", "uplift", "provide security against" and "taking further steps" all assume a common meaning amongst all readers.

Summary

There are two competing discourses dominant in the text: a democratic discourse (partnership discourse) and an authoritative discourse (individuals dictating ideas, rules and patterns of behaviour). In addition, there are a number of other discourse types in the text including a leadership/futures discourse, partnership and mutual responsibility discourse, organisational/management discourse, education and development discourse and socio-economic/safety discourse.

4.3.3 The second layer of text

In this section, I attempt to critically consider the production and interpretation of the text, both by reading with and against the text. This will provide an opportunity to examine meanings embedded in the text, and unpack some of the inherent ambivalence within the text.

4.3.3.1 First layer of interpretation: Reading with the text

In this section, I attempt to give as faithful an interpretation as I can offer of what I think the participants have tried to write about (or say) by identifying focus areas in the text. This interpretation is identified as reading "with" the text or a situational reading of the text, as opposed to reading "against" the text.

The text appears to be predominantly a management tool, detailing instructions and responsibilities to various agents. Furthermore, it highlights the organisational objectives of the school, as well as providing relationship guidelines for the textual agents.

Section 1 - objectives: The 'objectives' section deals with educational, developmental and socio-economic aims or visions; this section uses a number of discourse types, including leadership and futures discourse, security and socio-economic discourse, education and development discourse, and a discourse of participation and mutual respect. Through this section, the constitution provides a futures vision for agents to work towards.

Section 2 – property: The 'property and income' section has two points that use a protectionist discourse to control and manage ownership of school property. It is unclear what the term 'income' refers to in this section. This section clarifies the school's ownership of property.

Section 3 – membership and general meetings: The 'membership and general meetings' section once again uses a discourse of mutual respect to detail participation. In addition, the section includes an organisational discourse to facilitate and manage this process of participation. This section details who should attend school meetings and how often meetings should be held.

Section 4 – finances: The 'finances' section combines the use of economic discourse with a control and management discourse to detail financial management of school funds. Here, the constitution designates financial issues as the responsibility of the treasurer who manages the reporting of those finances.

Section 5 – rules: The 'rules' section of the policy is the longest section of the document. This section refers mainly to parents, and uses a number of discourses to manage the parent-school relationship, including a protectionist and control discourse to protect the school, school equipment and teachers from parents; a safety discourse referring to learners' safety; and a mix of participatory and authoritative discourses referring to school-parent relationships. Furthermore, there is a point separated from the other rules in this section that goes into detail about the path to be used in dealing with issues. This statement includes a discourse of participation and mutual respect, and leads on to a discourse of authority, illustrating the ambivalent nature of the text. This section aims at managing parental participation and responsibility, both with regard the school and to the learners.

Section 6 - amendments: The amendments section introduces a reflexivity discourse allowing for future change.

Sections 7, 8 and 9: These sections fulfil the policy requirements of a formal constitutional document and detail names and positions of committee members, as well

as the adoption and certification dates. Point 8 of Section 7 is the only space that acknowledges and allows for participation of members outside this structure.

4.3.3.2 *Second layer of interpretation: Reading against the text*

In this section, I attempt to read “against” the text by taking an oppositional stance to the text and questioning the text or assumed meaning in the text. In doing this, I will explore the ambivalence between some of the discourses within the text.

The text is a management tool. It seeks to manage a number of aspects of school functioning, including the parent-school relationship. Herein lies the one of the central ambivalences within the text: the ambivalence that resides between an authoritative directive and control approach to parents, and a partnership of shared responsibility approach to managing the relationship, as noted above in Section 4.2. The text shifts between these two approaches throughout, moving from “partnership” and “hand in hand” to “should” and “should not”. Also, use is made of conflict discourses in the ‘rules’ section of the text, most of which are used to direct parent behaviour (e.g. “blame”, “problem”, “expelled”, “fight”).

Another ambivalence inherent in the text is the ambivalence that resides between the educational and the socio-economic foci of the document. Although this document is a school constitution, education is only mentioned in the third point of the document, and then it is coupled with development. Conversely, there are eight points making reference to socio-economic issues. This is further evident in the fact that learners are absent in the text except in reference to socio-economic goals and rules that attempt to manage social risks that affect learners. This points towards an ambivalence in the focus of the school programme, and indicates that education in this community is greatly affected by socio-economic issues and that these issues are a priority and an integral part of the programme at the centre.

A third ambivalence within the text is the ambivalence that resides between the economic and protectionist discourses of school property and income, and those of safety and security for learners. The document acknowledges safety issues in a number of areas, including the objectives and the rules sections. One rule notes that teachers are not responsible for injury to learners, bringing in an ambivalence in the relationship. There is also the use of de-sensitizing imagery in some areas of text, for example “street kids” and “child abuse”, potentially de-sensitizing or nominalising the extremely negative nature and impact of children being raped, beaten and forced to live on the streets where they are exposed to greater risk of neglect, violence, abuse and lack of security.

By placing the chosen objectives into the text, the text assumes that agents are capable of building, uplifting, integrating, providing security and reducing the negative factors of learner development and/or contextual issues affecting learners. This is supported by the implicit agency in the objectives, and by the focus on these social and safety issues throughout the text. In addition, the text places parents, teachers and community as the agents of this change by the use of partnership discourses in the text.

4.3.4 The third layer of text: Socio-cultural reality

Discourse is not produced without context and cannot be understood without taking the context into consideration ... utterances are only meaningful if we consider their use in a specific situation ...

(Fairclough & Wodak 1997:276).

This text is embedded within the socio-cultural reality of the school: a clear indication of this is in the four school objectives:

- a) To build the leaders of tomorrow.
- b) To reduce the number of street kids and provide security against child abuse.
- c) To integrate/uplift the standard of education and development.
- d) To work hand in hand with teachers, parents and community.

These objectives signify a restructuring of the boundaries between the public and private lives of learners, with the school becoming more involved the private lives of learners, and parents being encouraged to further participate in the functioning of the school. As mentioned above, there is a central ambivalence in the integration of parents into the life of the school, evident in the movement between partnership/mutual responsibility discourses and authoritative/directive discourses in the text. This ideal of partnership and mutual responsibility is in many ways supported by the document and is corroborated in the contextual profile of the school and through a number of interviews and discussions with teachers at the school (see Sections 4.2 and 5.2).

Fairclough and Wodak (1997:271) note that "social and political changes in contemporary society generally include a substantive element of cultural and ideological change". The ambivalence in the text is indicative of a transition from one ideology of parent-school relationships to another, following the political and ideological changes in South Africa from pre-to post-Apartheid, and from the previous schooling system to outcomes-based education (see chapter 2). It also shows a merging of a number of different environments in which learners live, including school, home and community environments and takes account of the socio-economic realities that surround and affect

children's' lives (see Section 4.2). The objectives highlight the fact that at this centre, the socio-economic aspects of children's development are integral to learning and education as reflected in the school's 10 projects (see Section 4.2.4). A focus on *whole child* development is indicated in the text through noting education and development, as well as safety and security issues in the school's objectives and is supported through findings in the contextual profile (see Section 4.2). In addition, the term "development" implies a conscious effort to work to enhance the social development of learner and parent lives. This is evidenced by the number of social upliftment programmes the school offers for parents and community members in the area, including herbal and nutrition programmes, family maths and literacy, computer literacy and a knitting, sewing and beading workshop for the elderly (see Section 4.2.4).

These objectives also signify the type of socio-economic context in which the learners live. For example, it suggests that there are a significant number of child abuse issues in the community, that both these issues and issues of poverty in the area contribute to a significant number of street children in the area, and that there is a need to build leadership qualities in learners at a young age to try to counter these issues. The poverty and abuse (security) issues are also alluded to in the school rules ("did not pay school fees"; "come inside the school"; "children should be neat"). With this information, and taking into consideration the socio-historical background of Grahamstown (Vallabh 2004a), we can conclude that the school is affected by issues that characterise the Grahamstown East area where the school is located within a low income, high unemployment area (see Sections 1.3 & 4.2 above). These interpretations are supported by evidence compiled for a contextual profile of the area and in teacher interviews conducted at the school (Vallabh 2004a, also see Section 5.2).

4.3.5 Conclusion

In this section, I have explored the restructuring of the boundaries between the private and public lives of learners. This analysis also brought to the fore an ambivalence in the school-parent relationship, as the relationship moves between positioning the school as an authority to a discourse and ideology of partnership between school, parents and community members. In addition to the above, this analysis shows a clear link between the context of learner lives and the school policy.

This analysis guided teacher interviews and observations by providing an ideological analysis of school policy, allowing me to look for links between policy and practice at the school, in relation to the ambivalences arising in this analysis. Teacher interviews were shaped by the relationship *between* context (Section 4.2) and school policy (Section 4.3).

Through the contextual profile and CDA of school policy, I was able to establish the relationship between policy and context. In the next two chapters, I will explore context and policy in relation to teaching and learning processes. I begin by describing the teaching and learning processes in Chapter 5, and I follow this with a more in-depth analysis of the *relationship between* context, policy and teaching and learning processes in Chapter 6.

CHAPTER 5

TEACHING AND LEARNING PROCESSES

Yes, we know that in pre-school they are not reading, but we develop the children, and we want them to understand what are we going to do in the classroom, what we are going to teach.
(Bulelwa pers. comm. 2004)



5.1 INTRODUCTION

In this chapter, I will first outline data generated from two teacher interviews, discussing these in relation to issues emerging from contextual and policy data (see Chapter 4), as well as introducing new themes emerging from the interviews as indicated in Figure 3.1 (see Section 3.2). I then go on to carefully present data generated through the observation of five lessons by providing a broad overview of each lesson and a narration of teacher intentions, drawing on the themes as identified in Table 3.3 (see Section 3.2.3).

5.2 INTERVIEWS WITH TEACHERS¹³

5.2.1 Methodology (see Section 3.2.3)

The decision to conduct two individual interviews (see Appendix 2 and Appendix 3) with teachers was aimed at the following: a) to enable me to verify details of data generated through the contextual profile and analysis of the school policy document; b) to inform the observation schedule for the observation of lessons; c) to identify the links between policy and teaching and learning processes through reflection on the teacher's understandings of school context and policy, and teacher intentions of translating context and policy into teaching practice. This process was used to establish teacher intention informing practice across learning areas and programme organisers.¹⁴

The interview schedule was drawn up after the analysis of the school policy documents, and questions were developed around specific areas of this document (see Chapter 4.3). The interview schedule was based on a semi-structured format that allowed me to follow up interesting points made by interviewees, in addition to allowing me to re-phrase and re-work questions if teachers had difficulties understanding them. Both interviews were tape-recorded, allowing me to be an attentive listener, with my attention fully focused on the interviewee, as well as providing rich and accurate data that could later be transcribed for analysis. Cohen *et al.* (2001) note that although semi-structured interviews have greater flexibility than structured interviews, they require careful planning by the interviewer and that questions should provide a framework of reference for respondent's answers. The advantages of semi-structured interviews are that they are flexible, allow the interviewer to further probe and modify questions while encouraging the respondent's co-operation and rapport (*ibid*).

¹³ In this study, I have used verbatim transcriptions of teacher words that have not been corrected.

¹⁴ Programme organizers are used to divide learning into a number of different themes through which learners explore different issues and learning areas. Examples of programme organizers are "people who help us", "the hospital" and "under the sea". These programme organizers provide access points into different areas of and issues in the environment.

5.2.2 The multi-dimensional environment of learners

Several of the interview questions were aimed at exploring the interrelated environments that influence teaching and learning processes in the school programme (see Appendix 3). These discussions provided insight into the various contextual issues affecting both school policy and the various centre programmes, and help to identify the links between context and school policy.

The two teachers discussed aspects of a number of different environments¹⁵, which included the economic environment (including poverty and crime), the social environment (including children's rights and family issues), the political environment (including school – community relationships (see Section 5.2.3), and the biophysical environment (although this was discussed only in relation to the social environment). In this section, I will discuss the socio-economic issues that the teachers identified and discussed as these two dimensions were the focus of the teachers' discussions.

The issues that both teachers seemed to refer to most often were those concerning child abuse and neglect.

[O]thers ... they are abused from home with their fathers, or maybe the parents, only the mum doesn't see that sometimes ... but when ... they are here, we saw that this child is abused ... through these creative activities ... you saw this child is not developing ... and you try again to do the follow-up, go back home and do a home visit to find out what's going on back there (Zama pers. comm. 2004).

[A]s you know, there is a lot of child abuse all over, so as ... the teachers ... especially the teachers of the young children, we must support these children, we want them to come to pre-school so that they can be secured ... (Bulelwa pers. comm. 2004).

[W]e do have e-community facilitators who are making workshops for the community, not only for parents of the pre-school, ... they are talking ... they use these topics of child abuse, HIV and AIDS, domestic violence ... (Bulelwa pers. comm. 2004).

These issues were all discussed in relation to ways in which the school and community could support abused and neglected children, including careful monitoring on the part of teachers, home visits by teachers and social workers and community workshops to build awareness and skills within the community to assist in monitoring and dealing with these issues. Zama explained "especially when we do home visits ... we get to see the

¹⁵ 'Different environments' in this context is used to try to locate issues within a broader landscape of environment, and is used to link similar kinds of environmental issues together.

background of the child ... it's very important because many children, they have problems there" (Zama pers. comm. 2004). During the initial contextual profiling of the school, matters of child abuse and neglect were identified in all three schools participating in the profile, with research and various reports verifying the extent to which the issue affects the lives of learners (see Section 4.2.9). As noted in Section 4.3, these issues and prevention measures are embedded in the school constitution, in both the school objectives and the school rules. In addition, child abuse and neglect covers an array of issues, including physical and sexual abuse, and physical (bathing, feeding, etc) and emotional neglect.

Another set of issues that these two teachers highlighted were those concerning economic issues, including poverty and crime. As reflected in Section 4.2, teachers saw the centre as part of a long-term strategy to alleviate poverty and crime. This is reflected in two school objectives that aim to "reduce the number of street kids" and "to integrate/uplift the standard of education and development". Teachers reflected on these issues during the discussion of these objectives, noting that:

[W]e don't want to see our learners to be ... out-drops [dropouts] ... we want them to see their futures ... (Bulelwa pers. comm. 2004) ... [T]he main thing we do is to develop the learners as a whole, ... so that they can be ready to go to school to attend another grade (Zama pers. comm. 2004).

Bulelwa (pers. comm. 2004) connected crime with street children who had dropped out of school and were therefore not engaged in meaningful activity and skills development, which would assist them in their futures, at a school. She noted that if learners come to school, "... they can learn about the behaviour ... what kind of behaviour they should have with community, teachers, even their friends" (Bulelwa pers. comm. 2004), which would in turn stop them from 'misbehaving' by stealing, vandalising and begging. Research done on ECD as a strategy to reduce delinquent behaviour supports these beliefs (see for example, Section 2.2 and research done on the *Headstart* programmes in the United States, for example, Schweinhart 2000 and Golbeck 2000).

Teachers also noted that some parents were unemployed or did not manage their funds well, leading to non-payment of school fees (in addition to the neglect issues mentioned above). This, they noted, caused learners to feel ostracised and embarrassed.

As with the issues of abuse and neglect, teachers reflected on a number of strategies already in place for dealing with issues of poverty, and supporting children who were affected by these issues. These included a sliding scale for school fees, a number of skills development initiatives for parents and community members, including craft skills

development, numeracy, literacy and computer skills development, as well as food and herb gardens to deal with some of the issues resulting from poverty, such as poor health (see Section 4.2.4). In addition to these strategies, they reflected that children gained skills and support that would help them to stay in school, which in turn would give them a better chance of employment as adults. For example, Zama (pers. comm. 2004) noted “they go to school ... well developed”, and Bulelwa (pers. comm. 2004) noted *that* “if the learners neh, are not educated, maybe they are going to suffer in future, because if the children are not well educated, they becoming the street kids”. These ideas were supported in questions about leadership (as reflected in the school constitution) where teachers’ ideas around building leadership reflected skills development aimed at successful career paths (see Section 5.2.4.).

5.2.3 School-community relationships

During the CDA of the school constitution, an ambivalence in the school-community relationship was identified (see Section 4.2.4.2). This ambivalence was further explored during the two interviews. As an access point, the teachers and I discussed one of the school objectives: *Objective d: To work hand in hand with teachers, parents and community.*

The two teachers had slightly different perceptions of what this objective meant. Zama (pers. comm. 2004) noted that ‘working hand in hand with parents and community’ involved bringing parents and community members into the programme organisers so that they could share “stories” and their knowledge with the learners; “we use the community to teach”, both in the pre-school and in the community skills development programmes. She also noted that some of the benefits of this relationship were help with excursions, collection of materials for creative activities and, in the case of community members living around the school, as people who “watch our school when we are not there, they watch those who are breaking the school”. In addition, parents were relied on to fix outside equipment.

Bulelwa (pers. comm. 2004), who was more concerned with managerial tasks and overseeing the centre, noted that working ‘hand in hand with parents and community’ members was aimed at shared decision-making processes; she noted that “they must be the part of the decision ... the decision must not come from the SGB (School Governing Body) or the ... staff”. In addition, she noted that this relationship should be fostered so that parents and community members are able to “support their children”, and so that the centre and the community communicated about community needs in order to respond in ways that the community required. In addition to the above, she also noted that parents have a part to play in helping with school activities, volunteering for excursions, catering, and sharing stories, knowledge and skills with learners and other community members.

Contrary to these ideas, when we discussed parental participation in school meetings, Bulelwa (pers. comm. 2004) noted that the aim of the meetings was to “inform parents about the school ... about what we do in the future, what else we can do in the multi-purpose centre”.

Both teachers noted that some of the tensions that exist in the relationship included a lack of participation or interest in learners and the school on the part of the parents, and a lack of understanding about the importance of ECD in the development of the learners. Bulelwa (pers. comm. 2004) noted that:

... there are some parents they don't want to ... follow the ... rules of the school, they don't even care about their children, the only thing they know is that my children is at Raglan Road Multi-purpose Centre and the things that I expect are that my children, they must write their name, they must eat food, nothing else.

The idea that many children are sent to the centre on the basis of the meal and a few basic ‘measures’ of education (such as the ability to write one’s name as opposed to preparation for writing through muscle development) was discussed on several occasions with both teachers. Both teachers seemed to feel very strongly about this matter, stressing again and again the importance of parents’ understanding, valuing and support of ECD, beyond the provision of a meal and a place where one learns to write one’s name.

In further probing this ambivalence in the relationship (see Section 4.2.4), we discussed the process of drawing-up the school constitution. Both teachers noted that the constitution was drawn up during a participatory process of meaning-making between parents, teachers and community members, a process that deliberately emphasised a democratic approach to decision-making and responsibility. Teacher-roles shifted from knowledgeable to completely absent, throughout the process. Although parents and community members were encouraged to participate in this process, many of the parents did not attend the meetings aimed at developing the constitution (nor do they attend meetings in order to take part in decisions regarding school matters). Bulelwa (pers. comm. 2004) described the process of drawing up the constitution as follows: “... it was the staff before, neh, ... [t]hen after, the SGB, ... the SGB and the staff speak to the parents, then we all agree on the constitution”. As indicated, although the school attempted to use a democratic process of consultation and deliberation in drawing up the constitution, the SGB were brought in as a secondary step and the broader parent-body was only consulted in the third round of deliberations.

As noted in Section 4.2.5, the shifting of the boundaries between school and home environments was once again demonstrated in the interviews. Zama (pers. comm. 2004) in particular made several references to the importance of home visits to the development of children in the school. Bulelwa (pers. comm. 2004) made links between teachers, parents and community members, describing them as the three legs of a three-legged pot, and noted that working with parents and communities allowed teachers to understand the other environments in which learners live, “because children they come from different backgrounds”.

In many of the informal discussions with teachers about their relationship with parents and the role of parents in the school, the teachers portrayed beliefs that democratic participation on the part of the parents was integral to the healthy functioning of the school. These views were often contrasted with the view that many parents were irresponsible and unconcerned for the welfare of their children, in part demonstrated by their lack of participation in decision-making processes. Often, this tension in the relationship arose when teachers perceived a threat to the rights of the children at the school or where parents failed to recognise the role of the school in the development of these children.

Both teachers felt that the school was trying to improve and strengthen the relationship between the parents and the school. Bulelwa (pers. comm. 2004) reflected on a teacher-parent school visit that occurs in the first term:

... we call them to visit the classes to share the ... progress of their children by talking and making tea or coffee so they must know it is not a meeting – we are trying to share ideas, to discuss what we are doing with their children ... [and] the workshops build the relationship between parents and teachers and learners.

The attempt to shift away from the school as an authority to a relationship of shared responsibility and meaning-making can be seen in examples such as this one.

In considering the ambivalence in the relationship between the school and the community, especially the parents, the convergence of two ideologies is apparent in both the CDA of the school policy and the teacher interviews. The shift between the school being an authority with regard to early childhood development and that of working with parents and community members to develop the early childhood centre seems to be an attempt to involve parents in the development of their children through the school. This parental involvement is aimed at assisting the school with logistics as well as reducing the negative socio-economic factors that threaten this development. Strategies of

community development have been introduced to build community competence, aimed at providing a more stable environment for children in the long-term.

5.2.4 Teaching and learning processes in response to the above

5.2.4.1 *Neglect and child abuse*

Teachers noted the following as teaching and learning responses to these issues:

- Community workshops aimed at educating, raising awareness and supporting issues of abuse and neglect;
- Community numeracy and literacy classes that develop competence in parents enabling parents to support children's school work; and
- Dealing with these issues across programme organisers in ways that educate learners about these issues, and empower them to take action.

As can be seen above, teaching and learning responses to these issues are found in the implicit and explicit curriculum (see Section 2.4.2). Bulelwa (pers. comm. 2004) noted that "we also teach them about this [these issues], if we are doing 'my body' and 'a healthy body', like 'nutrition', so the children, they know all these things". In addition, the school also deals with these issues in a number of implicit ways, by providing training for community members in the form of workshops and skills development programmes, such as workshops on HIV/AIDS, abuse, violence and neglect (see Sections 2.4.2 and 4.2.4).

5.2.4.2 *Economic issues*

As with the issues of abuse and neglect, economic issues are dealt with through a number of different strategies. Almost all of these strategies are long-term strategies (see Section 2.2), and include what the teachers call the 'development of the leaders of tomorrow' and skills development in parents aimed at both long-term and short term stabilisation of economic issues.

In addition to 'building the leaders of tomorrow', a number of the community programmes run at the centre provide support in dealing with this issue. The herb and food garden programmes train community members to provide a sustainable source of food and health care, and the craft, computer, literacy and numeracy programmes provide community members with the skills to access better employment opportunities.

5.2.4.3 *'Building the leaders of tomorrow'*

As noted in Section 5.2.2, ECD is seen as a long-term strategy for poverty alleviation, with teachers feeling that equipping learners to stay in school would secure a better future for them. Teachers seemed to regard 'leaders' as people who have successful careers, people who are role models, for example, Bulelwa (pers. comm. 2004) noted

that “we want to ... to build leaders like Mike Shadiwe, eh, Mercy Bongela ... all the leaders that are role models in our ... country”.

In addition, both teachers noted that different skills were developed in each learner “they’ve got their own skills”, (Bulelwa pers. comm. 2004), and that opportunity was made for learners to “express themselves” through talking, discussion and expressing their feelings.

In linking this to teaching and learning processes, teachers noted that skills were developed through “creative activities”, “outdoor activities, where they play there outside ... and indoor activities, where they use educational toys [for] problem solving” (Zama pers. comm. 2004). Teachers seemed to conceive leadership as professional achievement and educational success, for example, Bulelwa (pers. comm. 2004) listed the following as types of leaders learners could become through different skills development:

... some, they are going to be designers ... some they are going to be artists ... some they are going to be a singer ... and we going to dramatize – they are going to be actors ... also there are some learners they are not active ‘doing’, they are active in their minds ... maybe they are going to be a lawyer or teacher.

5.2.5 Concluding comment

In this section, I presented data generated through two teacher interviews. Teacher reflections on the multi-dimensional environment of learners, teacher–parent relationships and teaching and learning processes were presented, as a link between contextual and policy data (as presented in Chapter 4), and teaching and learning processes as presented in Section 5.3 below in the form of lesson observations.

5.3 OBSERVATIONS

In this section, I present data generated through observations of lessons at the school.

5.3.1 Methodology (see Section 3.2.4)

As indicated in Chapter 3, data in this study is generated in two ways, firstly, by looking at teacher interpretations of context and policy, which I have tried to support by looking at related research, newspaper reports and available contextual studies and histories, and secondly, by looking at classroom practice with the focus on teacher intentions and understanding as they translate into teaching and learning processes through a series of five classroom observations. In addition, the observations allowed me to supplement my

understanding of the context of the programme, as well as discover things not mentioned in the interviews.

Following Hopkins' (1983) suggestions, in planning these observations, I considered these key features: joint planning between teachers and researcher; defining a research focus for the observations; establishing observation criteria and schedules and holding feedback discussions between myself and the teachers involved in the observations. This included a three-phase observation cycle involving a planning meeting, classroom observation and feedback discussion, as suggested by Hopkins (1983). As noted in Section 3.2.4, observation sessions were negotiated with individual teachers. An observation schedule and contact summary (see Appendix 4) were used to guide and maintain the focus of the observations on how environmental teaching and learning processes are influenced by context and policy in this ECD setting. In addition, these observations allowed me the opportunity to look at the ways in which environmental education processes take place within the lessons.

All five observations were recorded on video, allowing me the opportunity to re-visit lessons during the analysis phase of this study. Erickson and Wilson (1982:6, cited in Walker 1985:145) note that audiovisual media records "... finely shaded detail of everyday life in a setting". In the case of this study, re-visiting the data enabled me to explore new aspects of lessons as they presented themselves, both as individual lessons, and in relation to other lessons in greater detail than if I had relied only on my own observation abilities during the live observation session. The video data provided a measure of freedom during the observation sessions in that I was not under pressure to try to record everything that occurred during the lesson. The observation schedule was adjusted during the ongoing analysis of observation data in order to maintain focus.

5.3.2 Day structure and selection of observation sessions

The school has a pre-set structure for each day, which is planned according to the Revised National Curriculum Statement (RNCS) guidelines as follows: learners arrive at school between 7:30 am and 9:00 am; a breakfast meal of porridge is provided at approximately 8:00am; the morning ring runs from 9:00am until 11:00am; learners are given a 'snack' of milk and sent outside for the outdoor playtime; learners are given lunch at approximately 12:00am. The afternoon ring, focussing on numeracy and literacy runs after lunch.

The morning ring is focused on life skills and is based on programme organisers; teachers focus on themes that often include contextual issues during this period. The morning ring provides the opportunity for learners to discuss and express themselves and interact with new ideas in a number of different ways, including through group

discussions, role play skits, demonstrations of aspects of the programme organiser, singing and a number of 'creative activities', which include painting, drawing, cutting and pasting, using play-dough and making things from recycled waste. The afternoon ring is focused on numeracy and literacy skills, and includes story-telling, writing and counting activities and the use of educational toys that develop problem solving skills. Zama (pers. comm. 2004) noted that the morning ring also includes story-telling and that a number of the everyday activities in the morning ring included numeracy and literacy development skills.

During the planning meetings with the teachers, we selected the morning rings for the observations, as we felt that they would provide a rich opportunity to explore the interaction of context, policy and environmental teaching and learning processes. Teachers chose the lessons they wanted me to observe, with the understanding that should they feel the lesson had not gone well, we could re-negotiate the observation for an alternative lesson. No alternative lessons were observed (see Section 3.4).

5.3.3 An overview of the lessons

In this section, I provide an overview by carefully describing each of the lessons observed. Lessons one, two and three were all under the programme organiser of HIV and AIDS, and were planned and implemented by Zama. This programme organiser was used for an entire week, of which three consecutive days were observed for this study. Lessons four and five were both planned and implemented by 'Bulelwa, within two different programme organisers, namely 'Water' and 'The hospital'.

5.3.3.1 Lesson 1: 'HIV and AIDS' with Zama

This lesson was implemented with two classes of learners at once due to a leak in one of the other classrooms, and the lesson began later than usual. In spite of these delays and complications, Zama felt that she would prefer to continue the lesson as such disruptions were part of the school context and learners had to be taught around them. Learners ranged between five and six years old (I had previously only spent time with the six year old learners from the grade R class).

The lesson began with an introduction to the theme of HIV and AIDS with a poster that Zama had made (see Fig. 5.2 below). The poster depicted pictures of sick people, nutritious food, medical staff, exercise and an AIDS ribbon, all of which Zama used as focal points in the lessons on this issue. Zama used the poster to initiate a discussion on the theme. She asked the learners "what is AIDS?", and allowed a number of learners to share their ideas. Some of the responses included "the person who is sick", "when a person has pimples" and "when you develop a rash". This led to a discussion of the types of rashes one could get, and concluded that not all rashes mean you have AIDS.

Zama also asked the learners what the difference between HIV and AIDS was. The learners struggled to differentiate between the two, and Zama needed to clarify that having HIV meant that you had the virus and AIDS was when you got sick from the virus. Zama then asked the learners how one got HIV or AIDS, and the learners' responses clearly indicated that they were very familiar with this issue. One of the girls especially brought this fact to the fore. She noted that "when you rape a child who is HIV positive, she will infect you". This response indicated that young children are directly affected by these issues. Other responses included "through blood ... cuts on your hand", sharing a "toothbrush ... a wash rag" and when a man from next door "grabs you and rapes you".

After this introduction, Zama told a story about a young girl who had contracted HIV/AIDS, using picture flash cards that she had made from magazine cut-outs. The images on the cards all reflected white people, and western cultural images of food, healers and settings (see Fig. 5.1 below). The story was interactive, with the teacher engaging learners in the theme throughout the story with guided questions about the decisions that characters would need to make and how they (through the characters) should act. An example of some of the guided questions and answers included:

... how do you think she felt (Zama) ... sad ... crying ... she was sick ... (learners);
how would you feel if people are not nice to you (Zama)... I would be sad ... I would want to not go here ... I would tell my mother... (learners);
what types of food did her mother have to make for her (Zama) ... Green vegetables ... healthy food ... soup ... spinach ... carrots, so she could see ... like in the picture (learners);
what healthy food do your mother make for you at home (Zama) ... spinach ... pap porridge ... stew ... vegetables ...cabbage ... mielies [maize] ... (learners);
who has been to the doctor before (Zama)... I went when I had a rash ... when I had a flu ... when I was sick (learners);
what is the job of a doctor (Zama) ... to give injections ... people die at hospital ... to help people ... to give medicine – it tastes bad ... (learners)
what do children with HIV/AIDS look like (Zama) ... like everybody ... like us ... sad ... sick ...crying (learners);
how did her mother care for her (Zama) ... she gave her healthy food ... she had medicine ... she went to the doctor ... she love her ... she hug her ... (learners).

The lesson ended and learners were provided with their snack and sent out for their outdoor play activities.



Fig 5.1 Story flash cards depicting Western images

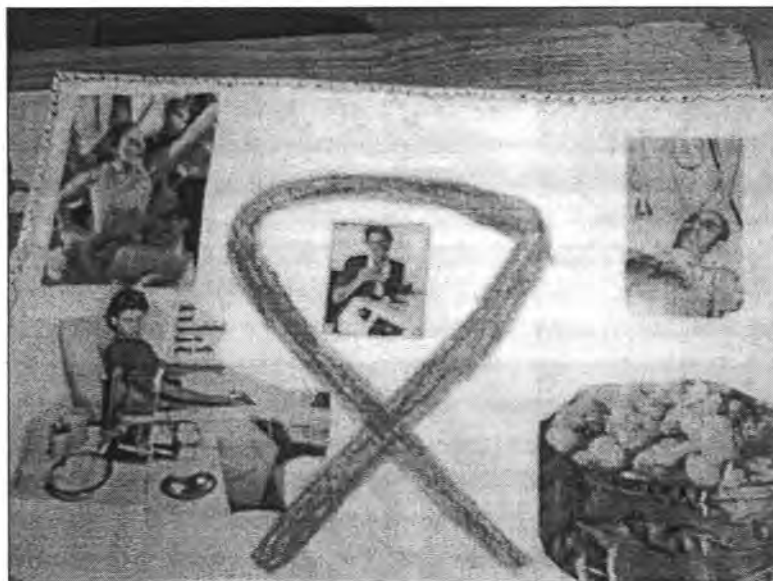


Fig 5.2 Poster prepared by Zama for the HIV and AIDS programme organiser.

5.3.3.2 Lesson 2: 'HIV and AIDS' (part 2) with Zama

Lesson two was implemented in the grade-R class. After the traditional morning activities that included a morning prayer, a discussion of the day's weather and identifying the day of the week, Zama prepared a "show and tell" demonstration for the learners. The morning prayers (and songs) are learnt by rote, and learners either recite them or repeat them after the teachers. Similarly, days of the week are learnt by rote and children seemed to 'guess' the correct answer through a process of elimination.

Learners sat in a group around Zama, and a group discussion was carried out throughout the demonstration. The demonstration focused on cleaning and treating a wound with materials that learners would have access to, and discussions included

precautions when dealing with open wounds and blood (building on the previous day's discussion on the spread of HIV and AIDS through touching blood). One of the learners was used as a demonstration model for the exercise. In addition to the focus on 'universal precautions'¹⁶ in relation to HIV transmission, Zama used the opportunity to teach the learners some vocabulary associated with and contents of a first aid kit. For example, Zama named the first-aid kit (pointing out the red cross on it), bandages, *Savlon* and *Dettol*¹⁷, and a pack of burn gel was sent around so that learners could experience the cooling effect of the gel.

Zama explained the use of many of the items in the box, for example, she explained that "we have bandages ... we wear it on the head, we use bandage when you have a cut and we use this [burn gel] when you are burned, you put on top and it is cold ... give it to the others to feel it ... how does it feel?". Zama also expanded on the use of some of the items in her demonstration, for example, the discussion on the uses of *Jik*¹⁸, which the learners noted was used "when we wash the floor ... when you wash dishes ... on taps and drains – you pour *Jik* for germs".

After naming and describing the contexts of the first-aid kit and the *Jik*, Zama used the *Jik* and the bandage to demonstrate how one would clean a wound. Throughout the demonstration, she asked learners questions to clarify discussion points, for example, Zama asked what the difference was between *Jeyes fluid* (a cleaning product) and *Savlon*, to which one of the learners replied "we use *Jeyes fluid* on taps, sinks and drains ... we use *Dettol* and *Savlon* on washing wounds and cuts". Other questions included "what is this? ... what do we mix it with?".



Fig 5.3 Learning about universal precautions

¹⁶ The term 'universal precautions' is used in this context to describe precautions one should take when dealing with blood, regardless of circumstance.

¹⁷ *Savlon* and *Dettol* are the brand names of local antiseptic agents.

¹⁸ *Jik* is a household cleaning agent that can be used in areas with poor water quality to sterilize water.

Learners were then sent to a number of different creative activity tables that had been set up prior to the lesson. Learners chose their own activities and could move between tables, completing as many of the activities as they chose. Zama instructed the learners on the themes of the different tables. The theme for the painting table was “doctors, nurses and the AIDS ribbon” (see Fig 5.3 below); the theme for the cutting-out and pasting tables was “healthy food”, and the play dough table had a general theme of “HIV and AIDS”. This set of creative activities was based on both lesson one and two. After these activities, Zama initiated a feed-back session, through which learners shared their creations with the group. One child shared a story of how her grandmother had gone to the hospital that weekend to see the doctor, and that her picture was of her grandmother speaking to the doctor, another child drew a picture of his visit to the hospital when he had gotten a rash, yet another child had painted a picture of a nurse and a doctor with a small child, and all the learners who had worked at the painting and drawing tables had depicted an AIDS ribbon. Many of the children at the drawing table had tried to depict personal encounters they had had with doctors and nurses when they had been ill. A few of the learners depicted various scenes from the story told on the previous day. Children at the cutting table had cut out a variety of foods, and explained to the group about why they thought the food in their pictures was healthy, many of them talking about the nutritious value of green vegetables. Zama used guided questioning to facilitate this process with learners who were shy or unresponsive.



Fig 5.4 Learners painting the HIV/AIDS ribbon, doctors and nurses

Once the creative activities were completed, Zama initiated a feedback session on what the learners had depicted during the activities. Learners were then given the morning snack and sent outside for their outdoor activities.

5.3.3.3 Lesson 3: 'HIV and AIDS' (part 3) with Zama

One again, lesson three was implemented in the Grade-R class. After the traditional morning activities as described above, Zama introduced a guest speaker, 'Yoliswa' who worked as a volunteer in one of the community clinics. Yoliswa was invited to talk to

learners about HIV and AIDS, with a focus on clinics and health care. Yoliswa spoke to the group as a whole, with only a small amount of discussion with the learners.

Yoliswa began the talk by asking the learners if they had heard about HIV and AIDS and where they had heard about it. Although Yoliswa asked the learners a number of questions, she answered most of them herself. The focus of the talk was on identification and treatment of the disease (including a medical focus). Yoliswa told the learners about the importance of a healthy diet and of treating people who have HIV or AIDS 'nicely' (both of which were discussed in previous lessons). She also discussed universal precautions (correlating with lesson two). Towards the end of the discussion, learners asked about a number of symptoms, such as rashes, and whether these meant that one had HIV or AIDS. This question developed into a discussion about scabies, and where one could get it, with a focus on cleanliness, hygiene and dirty water. There was also some discussion about hospitals and the importance of going to see a doctor or nurse.

Once Yoliswa had concluded her talk, Zama asked the learners to choose their creative activities, which had been arranged before the lesson began and included a painting table, a drawing table and cutting and pasting tables, as well as a play-dough table. Themes for the creative activities were similar to the previous day, with the general theme of 'HIV and AIDS'. Learners were free to choose the activities they wished to complete. Learners working with the play-dough seemed to struggle with conceptualising the dough into things related with the theme of HIV/AIDS, but learners at the other tables worked on a variety of images, some of which were the same as the previous day. Learners using the cutting and pasting tables cut out pictures of healthy food (including some delicious looking desserts), as well as sick people in bed, children, doctors and nurses. Learners at the painting and drawing tables drew and painted images of families, healthy food, medical staff and clinics and hospitals, as well as sick people and AIDS ribbons. There was no feed-back session after these activities. After the creative activities and the morning snack, learners went outside for their outdoor activities.

5.3.3.4 Lesson 4: 'Water' with Bulelwa

Lesson four was planned and implemented in the Grade-R class. The lesson began with the traditional morning activities, including a prayer, a prayer song, checking the weather, deciding on which day of the week it was and singing the 'days of the week' song.

Bulelwa introduced the programme organiser and initiated a group discussion with the learners. Using a 'water poster', Bulelwa explored the different uses of water with the learners, taking the poster around the group so that each learner had a chance to look at the different scenes depicted on the poster; the discussion moved from learner to learner

as the poster reached them. Some of the learner responses for uses of water included the following: “we cook ... we wash our hands ... teeth ... clothes ... ourselves ... we water the garden ... we swim ... when we eat pills ... the cows are drinking ... ”.

Bulelwa then conducted a ‘show and tell’ experiment with the learners where she used clean water and sandy water to demonstrate water quality, filtering the “dirty” water to demonstrate how water could be cleaned. Learners and teacher all sampled the clean water with many a “mmm” at the clean taste of the water. Bulelwa continued with a group discussion on water and water quality after this taste-test. During the discussion, Bulelwa asked the learners why one should not drink dirty water and the learners noted that if one did, one would get sick and would need to go to hospital or a clinic. Bulelwa also focused the discussion on where one could get water from, and through discussion with the group, it was decided that one could get water from taps, the dam, rain, the sea, rivers, pipes and the fire-brigade (the school had organised a visit by the fire-brigade a few weeks prior to this lesson). There was a brief discussion on wasting water and polluting water, although this focus was very brief and limited to leaving taps open and swimming in dams as a means of polluting water. Learners also noted that playing in dirty water could result in a rash on your skin (from the previous lesson) and one learner linked this to HIV and AIDS.



Fig 5.5 Exploring the theme of water

Bulelwa responded to the amalgam of ideas from previous lessons by firstly acknowledging the learners' knowledge and affirming their correctness, and then by linking their ideas to the current theme of water in ways that were relevant to the discussion. She also further probed some of these ideas with guided questions, for example, when one of the children suggested that one should not play in dirty water, Bulelwa asked the child to clarify what they meant, and the child responded that one could get scabies from playing in dirty water. Bulelwa tied this into a discussion on some of the things that could happen if one used dirty water, and what one could use dirty water for.

Throughout Bulelwa's lesson, she used English and isiXhosa words, asking learners to supply the word in the alternative language, and repeating words in the alternative language with the learners.

Bulelwa then described the morning's creative activities. The drawing and cutting tables had the guiding theme of taps, dams and swimming, and the painting table was used as an extension of the dirty water experiment as Bulelwa explained, one could mix different things with water to create different effects, in this case bubble paint. During the painting activity, learners helped Bulelwa to mix powdered paint with water, and then used straws to create different effects with the paint. Learners at the other tables focussed on finding and drawing pictures of the various uses of water, as well as where one could find water. Some of the learners drew clouds and rivers, and many of them drew taps, buckets and glasses. After these activities and a relaxation exercise and snack, learners went outside for the outdoor activities.

Bulelwa tried to provide opportunity for learners to learn about where water came from, what the different uses for water were, as well as how to experiment with water and how to clean sandy water. This learning was linked to other programme organisers in the weeks following the observation period, including "the sea", during which learners went on an excursion to the sea.

5.3.3.5 Lesson 5: 'The hospital' with Bulelwa

Lesson five was planned and implemented in the Grade-R class. After the traditional morning activities described above, Bulelwa briefly introduced the programme organiser to the group. She then selected 'actors' for a role-play activity and with the help of the group and a great deal of joking and teasing. The actors were then briefed and dressed for the upcoming performance. A humorous role-play about listening carefully to medical instructions was then performed, with Zama and Bulelwa prompting the actors as the skit progressed. The play began with a sick child being taken to the clinic by her parents. After examining the patient, the nurse prescribes a bottle of medication, telling the

parents that they should remember to 'shake the bottle' before giving the child the medicine. The scene changes to the home of the family, where they are discussing the medication, and the reason one needs to shake one's *body* before taking the medication. While they are shaking their *bodies*, a neighbouring family comes to visit. They ask why the family is shaking their bodies, and the mother explains the nurse's instructions, resulting in the visitors and the family all shaking their bodies in preparation for the child to take her medication. During the shaking, the nurse stops by to check on the patient and is confused by the antics of the family and visitors. Once they explain that they are following her instructions and 'shaking their bodies' before giving the child the medication, she corrects them, and explains that one needs to 'shake the bottle', not '*body*' so that the medication is properly mixed before it is ingested.

Bulelwa then initiated a group discussion on the skit with the learners, which focussed on the importance of listening to nurses and doctors when one goes to the hospital, and the importance of the hospital.



Fig 5.6 Children using role-play to learn about the hospital

Bulelwa then instructed the learners on the movement exercises and games for the morning. Once these activities were complete, learners were given their morning snack and went out for the outdoor play activities.

Learners were taken on a trip to the local hospital a few weeks after the observation period.

5.3.4. Teacher intentions

In this section, I present a variety of teacher intentions, with regards to the different aspects of each lesson, which will enable me to look at how teachers have interpreted their lesson plans in ways that respond both to school policy (and context) and to national policy.

5.3.4.1 The HIV and AIDS programme organiser – Lessons 1, 2 and 3

In describing what her intentions were for choosing this programme organiser, Zama (pers. comm. 2004) noted:

I want my learners to be aware of this virus so that they can protect themselves against it, ... I want them to know ... they cannot touch the blood without wearing the surgical gloves ... sometimes at home there are older people who rape children, neh, saying that they can be cured when they rape young children, so I also want them to be aware of those strangers like that – even their uncles and their older brothers ... when they saw someone wants to do something like that, they can run and told the older person about it This lesson was very important to them, even to the parents, because the parents were coming after that and asking me that you are teaching our children about HIV/AIDS cause they share the information at home ... I think it was important to their parents cause they say during the class visit ... they use that information even at home – their children told them ... so I think it was useful for the parents, even the children.

During our discussions about the individual lessons, Zama (pers. comm. 2004) and I went through each of the activities she had conducted, noting her intentions for each as follows:

Introduction to programme organiser with poster: Zama (pers. comm. 2004) noted that she used the poster as a tool to find out about learners' prior knowledge before giving them new information about HIV and AIDS.

The story:

I wanted them to know there are other children who got the HIV and Aids neh, but they are ... they are healthy like us, neh – they must love those children the same (ibid).

Group discussion:

I ask them questions so that they can express their feelings ... and also to know their prior knowledge (ibid).

Universal precautions demonstration:

I did the demonstration because I want them to know how to use the universal precautions, so that they can help their mothers at home ... if you have something what are you going to use – I want them to see it in practical ... learners learn better if they see something instead of telling them (ibid).

Creative activities:

They express their feelings on that ... they also do what they hear and what they see during the discussions and demonstrations ... so when they did that creative activity I saw that they learn something because they can draw that thing ... they can learn through paging through pictures ... to know how to page a book (ibid).

Inviting a guest speaker:

I invite Yoliswa because she used to work with people with HIV and AIDS, so I invite someone who knows better than me about the HIV and AIDS to speak with the children to share her information with the learners – to add on what they learn [from] me (ibid).

5.3.4.2 The 'Water' programme organiser – Lesson 4

As with Zama, Bulelwa and I went through each of the activities that she had conducted, noting her intentions for each as follows:

Bulelwa (pers. comm. 2004) noted the following intentions for choosing the 'water' programme organiser:

My intentions is to ... I want the learners to know the importance of water, what are the uses of water, where do we get water ... I want them to know – if they play with dirty water they can catch diseases, then I want them to know that the water is very important in their lives ... I want them to use their critical and creative thinking, because when I was using [the] poster, I want to show the different things where we can get water.

Traditional daily activities:

When I ask them about the days of the week and the weather outside, I want them to know the differences in the environment ... I want them to know that the weather is changing – it is part of our environment ... they develop their counting skills when they talk about the days of the week (ibid).

Singing songs before the lesson begins:

Before doing discussion[s], we must collect the minds of the learners by singing the songs ... I want them to concentrate on the lesson that I am going to talk about (ibid).

The use of English words in a isiXhosa lesson:

By using English words I want them to mix their language ... at least they must understand some words ... even if they can't speak English properly, at least they must understand some words, especially the pre-language (ibid).

Experiment with clean and sandy water:

I want to demonstrate ... if you can put soil or sand with the water, the water it changes – the experiment (ibid).

Creative activities:

It's where we experiment what we were discussing in the morning ring ... I want them to develop their small muscles ... I want them to develop their listening skills ... I want to know if – are they really understand the topic – some learners, they don't like to talk, but you can see them in their creative activities ... it's where they express themselves ... they develop communication skills by sharing and they work co-operatively with others – they learn how to share ... I want to see if they have achieved because we focus on if the learners can develop (ibid).

5.3.4.3 'The Hospital' programme organiser - Lesson 5

When *Bulelwa* (pers. comm. 2004) and I discussed her intentions for this programme organiser, she noted the following:

I want the learners to be familiar in things that are happening in hospital because sometimes you'll notice that some children, they don't want to go to hospital because they are scared, because they said that if somebody is going to hospital they are going to die – so I want them to know that ... hospital is the place where you get relaxed and you have cure for your illness and I want them to know the different works of the hospital people ... and I want them to be familiar in these diseases I'm talking about ... I want them to go and make research with their parents about what is happening to hospital so that they can be able to identify the problems that are happening at home.

Group discussions:

By doing discussion[s] I want them to come up with ideas because they had their prior knowledge about hospital, then I add on that prior knowledge (ibid).

Role-play activities:

By doing role-play, I want them to demonstrate the things that nurses, patients and doctors are doing, and I also want them to know that if someone at home, they are sick, they must go to hospital, not stay at home ... in pre-school, the learners they learn through play, ... they learn more about that topic ... and it's when I can see their skills (ibid).

Movement games:

I want for those who are not participating in the role play, I want them to make that activity so they can feel happy ... I want them to feel free to do any activities in the classroom ... I want them to use their critical thinking ... they identify and solve a problem because they must think – where is

the bean-bag ... In the movement activity, they develop that large muscles ... they are small ... if you do creative activities for a long time they become bored and tired ... so you must do some movement or music ring (ibid).

Religious prayers and songs:

We are doing prayers and religious songs ... things are changing now in our country, most of the kids they becoming street kids, and some they becoming dropouts at school, so we feel that it is important to educate learners at the early stage about religious things ... not only doing other activities, ja it is important – even other activities, but at least to make them to see that there is a difference between ... the bad things and the good things in life because when you teach them about Jesus Christ and God, they know that Jesus and God, they don't want crime, and God don't want children who don't want to go to school ... by teaching them in early stage, they grow up with that information (ibid).

5.3.6 Conclusion

In this section, I carefully described five lessons observed during this study, followed by a presentation of teacher intentions for each lesson. This section was aimed at presenting data generated on teaching and learning processes in the school through the observation of 5 lessons.

In this chapter, I have presented data generated through teacher interviews and observations of five lessons. The teacher interviews provided an opportunity to explore the multi-dimensional environment of learners, school-community relationships and teaching and learning processes in response to these from the teachers' perspectives and understanding. The lesson observations provided an opportunity to observe how these intentions as well as issues and responses noted in Chapter 4 translate into teaching and learning practices.

In Chapter 6, I go on to discuss data generated in Chapter 4 (context and policy) and Chapter 5 (teacher reflections and teaching and learning processes) in relation to literature as described in Chapter 2.

CHAPTER 6

CONTEXT, POLICY AND ENVIRONMENTAL TEACHING AND LEARNING PROCESSES

Sustainable development requires active and knowledgeable citizens and caring and informed decision makers capable of making the right choices about the complex and interrelated economic, social and environmental issues human society is facing. To achieve this requires the broader process of social change known as social learning or what the OCSD [Office of the Commission on Sustainable Development] calls 'enhancing societal capital for the environment'. This involves not only specific education and training programmes but also the use of policy ... as opportunities for teaching and encouraging new forms of personal, community and corporate behaviour. Social learning also involves reflection – often stimulated by religious leaders and media – on the appropriateness of mental models and assumptions that have traditionally guided thinking and behaviour.

(UNESCO 2002:7)



6.1 INTRODUCTION

In this chapter, I interpret and discuss the relationships between context, policy and environmental teaching and learning processes and the arising ambivalences and tensions within this relationship.

I begin by looking at the relationship between context and policy, through a discussion of school policy and context, followed by a discussion on national policy, school policy and context and finally risk, sustainability and international policy. After which, I go on to discuss how context and policy influence and shape school-community relationships and the role of parents in the ECD centre. Thereafter, I look at how policy and context influence and shape curriculum at the school, through a discussion of the explicit, implicit and null curricula. Finally, I look at the relationship between context, policy and environmental teaching and learning processes in relation to learning theory, environmental education trends and curriculum policy as described in Chapter 2. At the end of each section, I discuss the ambivalences and tensions emerging from the relationship between context, policy and teaching and learning processes.

Through a focus on *ambivalence* and tensions in this chapter, I have tried to avoid the limitations of oppositional reasoning in discussing the various aspects of the relationship between context, policy and teaching and learning. I have instead tried to identify what the 'productive spaces' for future deliberations may be in for example, engaging the debate between school-based or community-based approaches to ECD (see Section 6.2.3 below), constructivist and fundamentalist approaches to pedagogy (see Section 6.5.1.7 below), and contextually or nationally defined approaches to curriculum development (see Section 6.4 below).

The Oxford Dictionary describes ambivalence as involving alternating attraction and repulsion. Ambivalence is a movement between different 'spaces' or positions, often signified by the existence of tensions (Haraway 1997; Bauman 2001; Bauman 1995). Haraway (1997), Bauman (1995) and Beck (1999) all recognise that contemporary society, characterised by risk and uncertainty, is also a society often characterised by ambivalence.

The most obvious ambivalence identified in the study so far is that within school-parent relationships (as identified in Sections 4.3.3.2 and 5.2.3, and discussed in Section 6.3 below). This ambivalence arises in relation to contextual factors, is embedded in the school policy and influences teaching and learning processes and opportunities for both learners and parents. Similarly, I consider other ambivalences and tensions in this

chapter, which arise in the nexus between context, policy and teaching and learning processes.

6.2 CONTEXT AND POLICY

In this section, I look at the relationship between context and both school and national policy, as well as how these different policy approaches address the risks affecting young children in South Africa, particularly those at the Raglan Road Child Care Centre, drawing on the findings as reported in Chapters 4 and 5.

6.2.1 School policy and context

As can be seen in Section 4.3, there is a close relationship between context and policy in the Raglan Road Community Centre. The local context and contextual issues have a direct effect on the school policy, both explicitly and implicitly, especially with regard to socio-economic issues affecting children (for example, issues of child abuse are both explicitly and implicitly embedded within the school policy by vocalising the school's intention to reduce abuse in the school objectives and by providing structures to reduce abuse in the rules section of the policy). In addition, there is evidence that the school policy also reflects the broader South African context with regard to dominant ideologies currently shaping South African society, for example, issues of inclusivity, transformation, partnership and equality feature in the school policy. A further contextual factor reflected in the school policy is aimed at provision against future contextual issues, both at local and national levels, for example, building leaders that have the potential to contribute to the country on a national level, as described in the teacher interviews, as well as at a personal level where children are enabled to stay in school, which in turn provides greater opportunity for skilled employment. The policy clearly demonstrates the rights-based approach to both education and development adopted by the centre, further reflecting a resonance with national policy, and international policy on education for sustainable development.

In this case, school policy is used to verbalise an integrated approach to education and development in response to a number of key socio-economic issues in the local context, namely, child abuse and neglect, poverty, need for leadership within the community and the need for partnerships between parents, teachers and community members in addressing these issues, particularly as they effect young children in the community. The policy does not, however, discuss environmental concerns beyond socio-economic environmental issues, thus representing a socio-economic approach to development as opposed to an integrated approach that involves concepts of sustainable development.

6.2.2 National policy, school policy and context

The centre is influenced by both national and school policy. School policy is shaped by the local context, as well as the broader national context of South Africa. School policy can be seen to support strong community development aims (see Sections 4.3 and 6.2.1 above) through this close relationship with local context. The approach of a contextually relevant school policy ensures that the policy responds to and represents issues affecting a specific community, in this case, the community surrounding the school and in which the learners live. However, as noted in Section 4.3, the school policy does not deal explicitly with educational practice or teaching and learning processes. In other words, the school policy seems to deal more strongly with the implicit school curriculum as opposed to the explicit curriculum.

National policy, specifically the revised National Curriculum Statement (RNCS), on the other hand, has very little explicit community development focus (DOE 2002). Instead, its focus is on teaching and learning processes, assessment and curriculum guidelines. It is this policy that teachers at the centre use to develop and plan lessons, and which they use to shape the explicit curriculum of the school. This can be seen in the way teachers use programme organisers to guide and format lessons and in the way they structure their days, with morning rings dedicated to life skills and afternoon rings dedicated to literacy and numeracy. In addition, national policy provides a structured means of integrating environmental concerns, along with matters of inclusivity and social justice into the curriculum. The RNCS (DOE 2002:8) states that:

The curriculum aims to develop the full potential of each learner as a citizen of a democratic South Africa. It seeks to create a lifelong learner who is confident and independent, literate, numerate and multi-skilled, compassionate, with a respect for the environment and the ability to participate in society as a critical and active citizen.

In addition, the above is incorporated into each learning area in ways that allow teachers to explore the interactive nature of a healthy environment, social justice, human rights and inclusivity through educational practices guided by outcomes, activities and assessment (see Section 2.5.2); while the school policy tends to focus more on social justice and human rights through a rights-based community development and education approach. The national policy (RNCS) provides a framework for teachers to interpret their local environment in ways that are contextually relevant through the exploration of contextual issues, within a curriculum framework that provides for a broad range of learning opportunities organised within a framework of eight learning areas.

In the case of the Raglan Road Child Care Centre, teachers drew on the national curriculum framework to guide aspects of their lesson planning, particularly programme organisers (as used in Curriculum 2005). However, there was less explicit focus on learning outcomes and assessment standards in their lessons and the outcomes and assessment standards appeared to be more contextually derived (reflected in teacher intentions where, for example, teachers planned lessons in response to contextual issues, and assessed learners in terms of changes in behaviour that might indicate abuse or disruption in family life). While congruent with some of the principles of outcomes-based education, teachers did not explicitly use the outcomes as specified in the curriculum statements to guide practice. It was also interesting to note that teachers still use 'programme organisers' as a way of structuring the explicit curriculum, when this curriculum feature is no longer included in the formal structure of the RNCS (DOE 2002). This indicates a transition process from the first version of C2005 to the RNCS framework. During discussions about networking and working with the community, Zama noted that because the RNCS was 'new', she was still unsure about lessons within this framework, and so discussed new lessons with other teachers, such as those at neighbouring primary schools in order to gain understanding of and confidence in adopting the RNCS.

Contextual factors thus appear to amalgamate with national curriculum policy frameworks, to create a way of structuring teaching and learning in ways that partially reflect the explicit intentions of national policy. This discussion has, however, also indicated that for teachers to successfully draw on national policy, there is a need for them to be confident with the 'new' requirements of the policies, and that they appear to require support in engaging with these requirements.

6.2.3 Risk, sustainable development and international policy

In providing a broad policy vision for ECD, the DoE's *Interim Policy on Early Childhood Development* (1996) emphasised the multi-pronged and integrated nature of ECD strategies that included a range of partnerships. As can be seen in the school policy document, contextual profile and teacher interviews, the Raglan Road Community Centre is currently functioning within such a framework. This partnership framework was even apparent in the structuring of teaching and learning processes, seen in the example of Zama inviting Yoliswa to assist with teaching learners about HIV/AIDS as she felt Yoliswa's skills would complement and extend her own.

As noted in Section 2.3, one of the tensions that was evident in the national audit of service provision was that between a community-based, multi-age-group model of inter-sectorial provision with an emphasis on the development of safety nets for children and families on the one hand, and the school-based model that focused on formal education

(the provision of a Reception year) on the other (Porteus 2004). Community-based centres inevitably serve children who are faced with a number of developmental challenges and issues and living in poor socio-economic conditions with under-trained or untrained teachers. Children and adults in these communities are often faced with an array of risks, both external and material, arising from socio-economic issues. For example, teachers at Raglan Road noted that children in their community faced risks resulting from the following issues: malnutrition, lack of health care leading to poor health, a lack of services resulting in a poor quality of life, material poverty (which was directly related to large unemployment figures in the area) neglect, abuse, HIV and AIDS, poor community and home environments and a lack of access to education (see Section 4.2); they further noted that many of these risks arose or were made increasingly worse by a lack of capacity and capability on the part of adults in the community. In the case of the Raglan Road Community Centre, there is an integrated approach to developing both child and parent capability in a number of integrated strategies that extend beyond formal education and address both the children's and the community's needs more holistically and immediately than a school-based approach would allow (see Section 4.2).

As indicated in Chapter 2, school-based approaches respond to a narrower spectrum of risks and to a narrower population (children attending the school). Responses are also limited in that they are restricted to issues covered in the school curriculum and to the scope of formal schooling. Many of the approaches to risk reduction, however, need to include broad-based, long-term strategies, and should ideally involve the development of empowered individuals who can think critically and act reflexively (Beck 1992), indicating that school-based approaches may not adequately respond to risk in a South African context (as discussed in Section 2.5.3).

Community-based initiatives on the other hand, are in a position to address a wider spectrum of needs and respond to a larger number of both external and material risks; they are however, also vulnerable to a larger number of risks than school-based centres, including those associated with funding, teacher training, resources, facilities and state structural support as discussed in Section 2.3. Programmes and educational initiatives are not limited to children attending the school, and centres can potentially provide a large amount of support for issues arising within the private lives of learners and within the broader community. This is illustrated by the programme organisers chosen at the Raglan Road Community Centre. For example, issues of HIV/AIDS, child abuse, nutrition and hygiene are all associated with the private lives of learners, and through the creation and support of community and family safety nets teachers are able to access learners' private lives where they are able to influence their lives through intervention, community workshopping and adult education (see Section 5.2). Community-based

centres are in a position to work with community development, from early childhood development through to adult training and education in integrated ways that build family and community support structures as they progress. For example, the Raglan Road Community Centre functions within the following model:

- The ECD centre forms the core of the community centre.
- The school takes a whole-child approach to education, which in effect deals with the cognitive, physical, emotional and social development of learners. This also includes active monitoring of issues of child abuse and neglect, and anti-abuse and neglect measures built into school policy and school functioning. In addition, a nutrition programme at the school ensures that learners receive sufficient nutrition to support their development, and the school day is structured to allow children to make use of this support.
- The centre runs 10 community projects and programmes aimed at developing capacity in adults as a response to risks that indirectly and directly affect children and adults in the community (for example, literacy and numeracy courses that are aimed at improving adult capacities for employment in addition to enabling parents to assist their children with school work, which in turn supports the children's development and increases their ability to stay and be successful in school, which in turn improves their potential to find employment and deal with other risks and issues in later life (see Section 2.5.3).
- In addition to capacity and capability development in community members, the centre facilitates the running of community workshops and self help programmes that deal with issues such as HIV and AIDS, abuse and neglect; issues that potentially place learners in risk positions. These programmes are supported by the 10 community projects, for example, a workshop on HIV and AIDS is supported by nutritional and herbal projects that provide low-income solutions to issues associated with this disease, such as poor nutrition or a lack of available medication. In addition, the ECD centre works with learners to develop capacities for dealing with this disease emotionally, physically and intellectually through the curriculum. Teachers also monitor learners for signs of sexual abuse that affect learners in areas with high HIV/ AIDS rates.

As can be seen above, the community-based programme is embedded within a contextual framework for education and development, resulting in the restructuring of private-public life boundaries in direct response to contextual issues and contemporary risks. This appears to directly influence teaching and learning processes at the school as shown in the examples where Zama noted that "sometimes at home there are older people who rape young children, so I want them to be aware of those strangers ... this lesson is very important to them – even to their parents ... they use that information even at home" and Bulelwa noted that "I want the children to be familiar with things that

are happening in hospital because ... they are scared ... so I want them to go and make research with their parents about what is happening ... so that they can be able to identify the problems that are happening at home”, indicating their intentions to impact on and influence the private lives of learners.

As a response to risk, a community-based ECD approach would therefore seem to allow for a more integrated approach to a wider spectrum of external and material risk, which in turn serves a larger population of South Africans in a larger number of ways at a local level, not the least of which is the development of capabilities. This response appears to manifest in different ways within the school: policy development; programme structuring; participation in programmes (including both children and adults); and in the explicit curriculum offered to learners (as discussed in Section 6.4 below).

Thus, this approach to ECD provision appears to provide a tangible way of implementing the social goals of the formal curriculum (as outlined in the RNCS) – particularly the principles that relate to social justice, inclusivity, human rights and a healthy environment. As noted in Chapter 2 (also see NEEP-GET 2004), this is directly linked to the Bill of Rights in the Constitution. This case study thus illustrates a practical approach to engaging these broad-based policy frameworks meaningfully at a local level in the ECD sector. It also provides a practical case example of some of the policy proposals put forward by UNESCO (2002), in their articulation of Education for Sustainable Development (see Sections 2.5.2 and 6.4.1).

6.2.4 Arising ambivalence

From an analysis of the data presented in Chapters 4 and 5, there appear to be two arising ambivalences within the context-policy relationship. The first is in the absence of a strong educational focus in the school policy and the absence of a strong community development focus in the national policy. Although the two policies complement each other when used together, there is a need to vocalise the ‘silent voices’, especially in the school policy, given that the school is an educational centre that claims to “develop [learners], so that they can be ready to go to school, to another grade” (Zama pers. comm. 2004). Similarly, there is much that can be learned about contextualisation of curriculum from the community development focus in the school policy and practice. As indicated in Section 6.2.2 above, this ambivalence is engaged by teachers at the classroom level (to some extent), but a more explicit consideration of this ambivalence may a) strengthen the school policy, and b) strengthen curriculum policy implementation.

The second ambivalence arising in this section is between that of school policy in response to risk and that of national policy in response to risk. As argued above, community-based initiatives *provide* an integrated approach to long and short-term risk

reduction, especially at a local level, while national policy *proposes* a need for integrated responses to risk as can be seen from the social goals embedded in the RNCS (with little guidance on how this should be achieved). There appears to be a need for national policy to support local policy in ways that enable school policy to continue to address risk through multi-faceted and integrated approaches, given that these objectives are embedded in the social goals of the curriculum. From the findings of this study, it seems that much can be learned about national and international policy implementation through a closer look at the relationship between context, policy and teaching and learning at a school-based level. It would also seem that, instead of an articulation of school-based and community-based approaches being viewed in oppositional discourses in the ECD policy landscape (eg. Porteus 2004), it may be more useful to engage this ambivalence in more complementary ways.

6.3 CONTEXT, POLICY AND SCHOOL-COMMUNITY RELATIONSHIPS

In this section, I discuss the way school-community relationships are shaped by context and policy at a local level. I begin by looking at the relationship between community development and education at the centre, and go on to discuss the role of parents in the school, concluding with the ambivalences arising out of this discussion.

6.3.1 Community development, whole-child development and education

As evidenced in the school policy (see Section 4.3), there is a strong development focus in the curriculum that over-shadows that of education. Education is in fact only present in school policy as part of one objective that talks about uplifting the standards of development and education. Where the development focus of the policy is supported throughout the text, the educational focus is not. During the teacher interviews, both teachers repeatedly noted that one of the most important aims of the school was to support and develop children “so that they can be ready to go to school to attend another grade” (Zama pers. comm. 2004). This implies a strong interest on the part of the school in the educational aspects of the ECD centre. This discourse was also evident in the teacher intentionality. For example, Zama felt it was important for learners to learn about various aspects of HIV/AIDS and to teach their parents about what they had learnt, in addition to whole child development that would help them to cope in grade one and Bulelwa (pers. comm. 2004) noted that “I want them to use their critical and creative thinking ... even if they can’t speak English properly, at least they must understand some words, especially the pre-language”, indicating their strong interest in scaffolding meaningful learning.

As noted in Section 6.2.2, national policy primarily maintains an educational focus, with reference to a broader development focus being implicit, and more broadly framed in curriculum policy discourse (i.e. as a broad principle guiding curriculum). Through a combination of community development and education, the school is able to address contextual issues in an integrated manner that works towards both short-term and long-term resolution of issues. Where community development has become intertwined in the adult education programmes at the centre, with education seen as a means for the development of the community, it is easy to consider these two approaches as the same thing. Teachers seem to have translated development in a similar way in the ECD centre since they talk about whole child development as an integrated and holistic approach to education that includes more than just cognitive development. Thus, in talking about development, there are actually two separate approaches being discussed – that of community development and that of whole-child development.

Teachers noted the following as aspects of whole-child development developed during lessons: i) emotional development – teachers observed and supported learners' emotional development, and provided emotional support and encouragement during the lessons through re-affirming learner rights and re-visiting ideas of love and care; ii) physical development – creative and movement activities in particular were aimed at developing fine and gross motor skills while also serving as reflection and assessment tools (creative activities) and as a tool for allowing all learners to actively participate in the lesson (movement games); social development – learners' social skills were developed through self-expression in groups, through learning to listen to and respect the opinions of other learners, through learning to communicate with others and share (especially during creative activities) and; cognitive development – learners were scaffolded from prior knowledge to new knowledge in a variety of ways, with ideas being re-visited by teachers and learners.

Development in the context of school policy, however, seems to refer to community development in the reference to contextual issues embedded within the text. In the teacher interviews, teachers made more reference to whole-child development, than to community development with regards to the ECD centre, and spoke about community development as part of an approach to create safety nets for children and families. It would seem, therefore, that the school policy does not fully reflect the educational interests of the pre-school programme, and that the interest in whole child development as expressed by the teachers is not visible in the school policy, which concentrates more on broader notions of community development, and the latter dominate the school policy.

6.3.2 The role of parents in the school

In identifying the role of parents in the school, I discuss the school-parent relationships. Two distinct relationships emerged from the contextual profile, school policy and teacher interviews; that of partnership and mutual responsibility, and that of a school in a position of authority and power with parents following instructions (see Sections 4.3 and 5.2.3). In examining the aims of the school policy and processes of equality and inclusivity within the school and community, it is clear that an unequal power relationship between parties does not meet these aims. Mutual responsibility and empowerment requires a redressing of these relationships in ways that empower both parties. It is also apparent that in providing safety nets for children, especially against contextual issues such as child abuse, this relationship cannot currently be equal and at the same time provide these nets. One needs to consider the priorities of the centre, which as noted in the interviews, is that of the children at the ECD centre. Within a rights based framework for ECD, the provision of safe environments and strategies to support children in context, equal power relationships can be seen to come second. There is however, a need to examine the effectiveness of these strategies if there are relationship issues between school and community. In this context, where the curriculum and school programmes are so closely integrated with community programmes and embedded in contextual issues, the school-parent relationship becomes significant. Parental support and input is integral to many of these strategies and therefore, a need to closely examine these relationships is important to the success of these strategies.

There is also a need to examine the types of participation required of parents. As evidenced in policy and interview data, much of the current parental participation can be described as political participation, where parental input is seen as politically appropriate in order to gain support for programmes. Also, although there is some measure of parents' educational participation within the community programmes, this is not extended to the ECD centre, except in limited capacities such as reading stories to children or sharing career experience with children in relation to programme organisers. Both teachers did, however, note that the school was currently trying to increase parental participation in ECD activities through creating opportunities for parents to become involved in the ECD centre through parent evenings aimed at brainstorming educational ideas with parents and through encouraging parents to observe lessons. With the newly established literacy and numeracy programmes for parents and community members, the centre hopes to enable parents to assist children with homework, further involving them in educational participation at the school.

6.3.3 Arising ambivalences

There are two ambivalences arising in this section; the first is between that of the educational focus and that of the development focus at the school. The first, that of education seems to refer to whole child development, aimed at assisting learners to develop life skills and the skills required to stay in school in the future, while community development is aimed at creating safety nets for children to reduce risk from contextual issues in an integrated approach that extends beyond the school and into the homes and community environments of children. There appears to a need for a clearer articulation of these two foci at the school, and for a clearer articulation of the relationship between the two foci in the school policy.

The second ambivalence arises within the parent–school relationship, where parents move from a position of equality and partnership into a position where the school is the authority and they are required to follow rules and comply with school policy. Although there is a move towards a partnership approach to education in the ECD centre, there appears to be a need to express this within school policy and move away from structures of school authority in ways that maintain safety nets for children.

6.4 CONTEXT, POLICY AND CURRICULUM

During this study, it has become apparent that the curriculum at this community centre is integrated, involving both community development and education, with special emphasis on providing safety networks for children and families in the community. In this discussion on environmental education approaches within the school curriculum at Raglan Road, I draw on both Eisner's (1985) description of the three school curricula (1985) and Habermas's (1972) description of three fundamental knowledge interests and curriculum (as described by Grundy 1987 – see Section 2.4.1). In addition, I have tried to work within a model of sustainable development that includes the relationships between socio-ecological issues (see Section 2.5.2).

As noted in Section 2.4.2, Eisner differentiates between explicit, implicit and null curricula. At this centre, the implicit and explicit curricula are very closely integrated in many ways, and although many implicit processes have been explicitly vocalised in policy and teacher interviews, they are none the less practiced implicitly, for example, the need to provide safety against child abuse has been stated in both policy and teacher interviews, although this aim translates into practice in a number of implicit strategies (for example monitoring children and creative activities for signs of abuse) both in class and out of it, as well as through a number of explicit strategies (for example, teaching learners and community members about these issues and how to deal with them).

6.4.1 The explicit and implicit curricula

As evidenced in the observations of lessons (see Section 5.3), the explicit curriculum at the centre is developed around a series of themes or programme organisers within which teachers set a number of outcomes. Teachers tend to mainly choose programme organisers in response to contextual issues emerging from previous organisers, in a way appropriating the concept of programme organisers to 'organise' learning based on emerging contextual issues. Thus the explicit curriculum is partially guided by the RNCS (DOE 2002). This approach to working with the curriculum is also influenced by a series of teaching guides used in the school. Thematic work is guided by a series of teaching guides developed by *Ntataise* (Short & Connolly 1998), and is divided into 12 foundation phase organisers. Each organiser is composed of the following learning areas: natural science, economics, life skills, language skills, maths, arts and culture, technology and social science (called social development). The social development section includes social development, natural resources and respect for the environment, and it is within this theme that many aspects of explicit environmental education take place. Examples of these are learning about water and where water comes from, different uses of water in the community and the repercussions of dirty water (see Section 5.3.3.4); learning about HIV/AIDS, including nutritional needs, social causes and consequences of the disease and developing safety nets through teaching children about their rights in matters of abuse and neglect associated with this disease (see Section 5.3.3.1) and learning about various community environments such as hospitals (see Section 5.3.3.5), gardens, the sea side and the police station. In addition to these, this theme also provides an opportunity to learn about environmental behaviours, and exploring natural resources such as food, wood and space. These sections are often integrated with outcomes from other learning areas, and include contextualising knowledge, skills values and attitudes from other areas.

These teaching guides are developed around specific critical outcomes as detailed in the foundation phase organisers, based on C2005, given that the books were developed in 1998, when the first version of C2005 was released. Each booklet provides details on the programme organiser (purpose, background information, learning areas and outcomes, a planning guide and word list); resource material (ideas for special activities, making educational materials and group times); and a visual resource guide that details ideas for activities (*ibid*). Each booklet is accompanied by an envelope containing educational aids such as posters and templates for creative activities. The teaching guides use a child-centred active learning approach, and are open ended, allowing teachers a great amount of freedom in shaping lessons and programme organisers.

Themes are inter-related and build onto one another, allowing repetition of key ideas and integration of a number of themes across programme organisers, for example, HIV/AIDS, nutrition and child abuse are discussed in a number of programme organisers (such as *The Hospital*, *A Healthy Body*, *Seasons*, and *HIV/AIDS*). Within this study, children introduced aspects of the AIDS discussions into their lesson about water and dirty water; a healthy body and the need for good nutrition were discussed in both the HIV/AIDS programme organiser and *The Hospital* programme organiser and issues of abuse and neglect were discussed in both the HIV/AIDS programme organiser and *The Hospital* programme organiser.

It would thus seem that the explicit curriculum at this school is based more on the teaching guides developed by *Ntataise* (Short & Conolly 1998), than the curriculum policy documents released under the auspices of the RNCS (DOE 2002). This would explain the continued use of 'programme organisers' as a guiding framework, while working within a RNCS discourse. It would thus seem that further curriculum work may be required in this ECD centre, to re-align the explicit curriculum with the new intentions of the RNCS. As outlined in Section 2.4.3, the RNCS facilitates a focus on environmental learning processes in more learning areas than the social sciences (NEEP-GET 2004).

This may also assist the teachers to broaden their environmental focus from mostly socio-economic dimensions to others, such as life and living (natural sciences), environmentally friendly technologies (technology), natural and cultural heritage (arts and culture) and so forth, thereby potentially taking the current conceptions of whole-child development and environmental learning further in this school context. This would also address the issue raised earlier relating to the way in which sustainable development can be enhanced at this school. This provides another illustration of how a closer relationship between school-based and community-based approaches to ECD can enhance each other (see Section 6.2).

Through data generated in the contextual profile, CDA of the school policy and teacher interviews, a number of implicit curriculum aims are illustrated. Many of these are concerned with community development in ways that deal with the socio-economic issues highlighted in all the data generated. For example, through discussing matters of abuse and HIV/AIDS in the explicit curriculum, teachers open up opportunities to monitor children for signs of abuse by providing opportunities for them to express themselves by talking, sharing and doing creative activities, thus furthering the implicit aims of the school to provide safety against child abuse. These are closely related to the explicit curriculum, and this influences teaching and learning processes accordingly, as discussed in Chapter 5 and in the sections above.

6.4.1.1 Capability development in the community

As mentioned in Chapter 2, ECD is considered a long-term poverty alleviation strategy. Sen (2001:87) discusses poverty as capability deprivation, noting that “[p]overty can be sensibly identified in terms of capability deprivation; the approach concentrates on deprivations that are intrinsically important, (unlike low income, which is only instrumentally significant)”, for example, illiterate people will have a greater challenge generating larger incomes than literate people due to segregation in skilled and unskilled workforce income discrepancies; in addition, they are less empowered politically, as well as educationally – they can not for example, go to university or do computer courses to improve their skills or capacities. Sen (2001) also discusses the relationship between low income and capability deprivation, noting that this relationship is significant in assessing and planning public action for poverty and inequality issues. Therefore, a curriculum that addresses capacity and capabilities can be seen as leading to better employment opportunities, access to further education and ultimately to the reduction of income related poverty. In addition, there is also the development of competencies that empower individuals to cope with and address future issues in a number of contexts. As shown in Chapters 4 and 5, the Raglan Road Community Centre (the core of which is the Raglan Road Child Care Centre) uses a number of poverty alleviation strategies that address both the lowness of income and capability deprivation issues. For example, beading, sewing and knitting workshops provide a means of generating income, as does the catering project, while the literacy, numeracy and computer literacy projects deal with capability deprivation. In addition, a number of other approaches, such as the herbal and nutritional projects support the basic needs of community members in ways that do not require the generation of income, with a focus on provision sustainability, and also develop skills and capabilities in individuals. Through this approach, the centre deals with socio-economic issues both implicitly and explicitly.

In further exploring the implicit and explicit curricula at the centre, I draw on Habermas (as quoted in Grundy 1987) to describe different foci within these curricula.

6.4.1.2 The three human interests

As noted in Chapter 2, Habermas discusses three human interests in his thesis of knowledge, including the technical, practical and emancipatory interests (see Section 2.4.1). The technical interest allows us to potentially control our environment, based on knowledge, and requires the development of factual and scientific knowledge. This can be seen in the explicit curriculum of the centre, where learners are taught about natural phenomena, such as winter and summer and how we adapt ourselves to these conditions (eating habits, heating and clothing are examples). These knowledge forms

also allow us to predict changes in the environment, allowing for the control of the environment.

The practical interest is orientated to understanding the environment. This interest can also be seen in the explicit curriculum, where children are taught about various aspects of the environment in order to build understanding, for example, learners learn about why one gets HIV/AIDS, what happens when a person has this disease, and, linking to the technical interest, how one can reduce the effects of this disease through medication and nutritional management. The practical interest involves a process through which learners and teachers interact in order to make meaning of the world and their relationships with the world (Grundy 1987).

The emancipatory interest is linked to individual freedom in society. It is within this link to equality and social justice, that the centre incorporates the emancipatory interest, through a rights-based approach to ECD and through programmes that address contextual issues that shape and effect equality and social justice in the community. While the practical and technical interests are concerned with understanding and controlling the environment, the emancipatory interest is concerned with empowerment, which Grundy describes as “ the ability of individuals and groups to take control of their own lives in autonomous and responsible ways” (1987:19). It is the empowerment of individuals and communities to make decisions in responsible ways that begins the work towards sustainable development aims.

As the implicit and explicit curricula deal with contextual issues and look at issues of equality, social justice and in some ways, the environment, it meets some of the aims of sustainable development. UNESCO (2002:8) notes that there are four inter-related holistic principles guiding sustainable development, including: peace and equity; appropriate development; democracy and conservation. In this context, although conservation goals are limited to strategies for resource use, the need for economic sustainability of projects and the nature of some of the projects has led to sustainable approaches to resource use (for example, food and herbal garden programmes). UNESCO also highlights the interdependent nature of the bio-physical systems, economic, social and political systems. UNESO (2002:8) notes that:

Sustainable development requires us to acknowledge the interdependent relationship between people and the natural environment ... [t]his interdependence means that no single social, economic, political or environmental objective be pursued to the detriment of others ... [t]he environment cannot be protected in a way that leaves half of humanity in poverty ... [I]ikewise there can be no long-term development on a depleted planet.

In this centre, the relationship between people and the natural environment is approached from a perspective of economic sustainability, with little or no consideration of ecological sustainability in response to contextual issues of poverty, a lack of medication in hospitals and high levels of some diseases. However, projects like the herb and nutrition projects do maintain and contribute to ecological sustainability in practice and without intention or, as UNESCO (2002) notes, acknowledgement. Similarly, school policy does not consider sustainable development explicitly, although implicitly, the relationship between context and development as approaches to education is maintained in the policy. School policy responds to contextual factors that can be described as contributing to various forms of poverty, but does not deal with issues of resource depletion in approaches to programmes addressing issues of poverty. As noted above, the heavy dependence on a contextual framing of the explicit curriculum and a continued use of materials based on the earlier version of C2005 also reduces a more holistic focus on socio-ecological dimensions of sustainable development, leading to a somewhat narrow and limited curriculum focus in the ECD centre.

UNESCO (2002:16) also emphasises the impact of the home environment on learning outcomes, noting that:

Parental education and home learning support are vital to learners, providing health and nutrition, moral values and codes of conduct, positive attitudes to education, and support for the school's requirements of learners.

Through the community programmes associated with the ECD centre, the centre supports parents and community members, thereby potentially creating home environments (parents) that support children in their development.

It is within the concept of sustainable development that tensions in the centre's curricula arise through the absence of an explicit exploration of these inter-relationships. Rosenberg (2004:12) notes that environmental education that focuses on only one of these environmental dimensions as opposed to the interrelationships between these dimensions is "... missing the point". She clarifies that environmental education and sustainable development are terms for processes that focus on the interrelatedness amongst social and ecological dimensions of life.

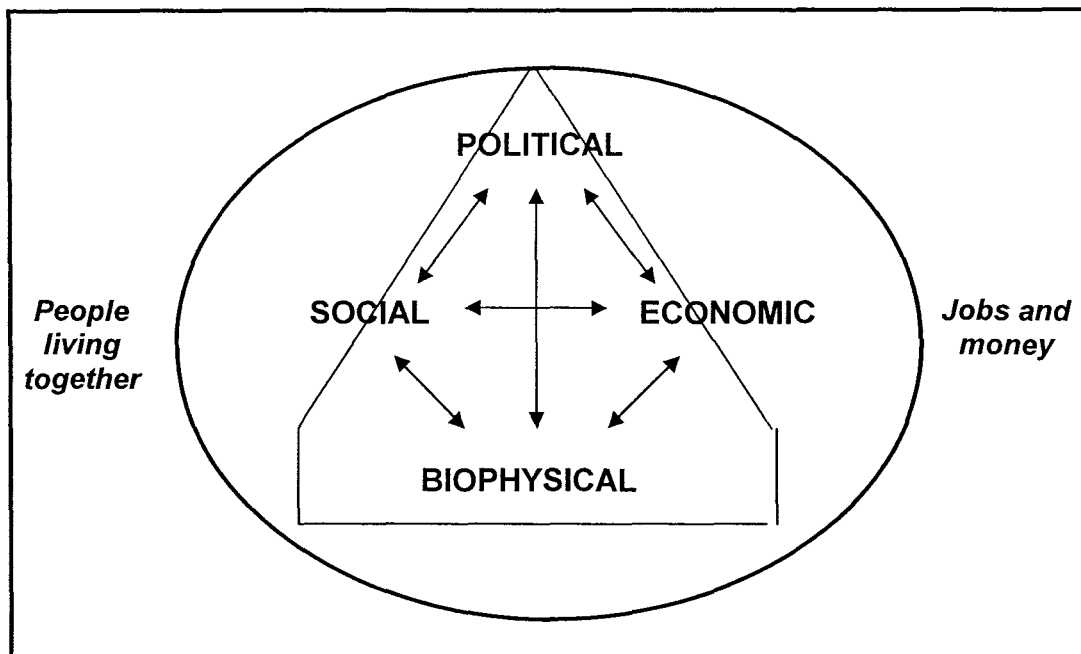


Fig 6.1 A diagram showing the inter-relationships between environmental dimensions (adapted from O'Donoghue, 1993).

For example, in considering lesson 4 on water (see Section 5.3.3.4), Bulelwa fails to bring in the effects of 'dirty water' on the environment, or the effects of water consumption on the ecological environment. There is no link to values of sustainable use of water within their context, both for economic and ecological benefit. In a context where there are issues of water supply and water quality, issues of ecological degradation are closely linked to these. As indicated earlier, a more explicit engagement with the RNCS, and its environmental learning and sustainable development focus should facilitate a broadening of the curriculum.

6.4.2 The null curriculum

Education for social and ecological justice must provide learners with local contexts where the social and ecological landscape can be studied through first-hand experience; it also must link such experience to the experience of others in other places and to the cultural, political, economic and ecological forces that connect people and places on a global scale (Furman & Gruenewald 2004:62).

The null curriculum deals with the 'silent' areas in the curriculum, and it is within this area that the exploration of the inter-relationship between the social, economic, political and ecological environment is located in this study. During observations and teacher interviews, there was very little, or no evidence of reflection on the relationship between

resource use and broader environmental issues of degradation, conservation, biodiversity preservation and protection. Nor were there links between global and local issues or the various inter-related aspects of the environment. Links between social justice, inclusivity and the environment were not explored beyond socio-economic perspectives. Although the explicit curriculum dealt with environmental issues of for example, water quality, these issues were explored in terms of consumption and supply, and stopped short of exploring issues of over-consumption, degradation and impact on humans and the environment. Although it needs to be borne in mind that such concepts are not always easy to explore in ways that are relevant to very young children, there is still a need to explore these connections in ways that are meaningful, if simplified for this context. For example, environmental education aids developed by Opie (1992 and 1997) and Opie and Schuil (1993), as well as the We Care Primary series (1993), all developed in South Africa, provide guidelines and suggestions for the exploration of these concepts in ways that are accessible to young children and their teachers. Many of these activities require the use of freely available resources and recycled waste material that can be easily obtained.

Because the inter-relationship between aspects of the environment are not explored within the school curricula, there is the risk that once capacity to earn income is built within the community, and within individuals, lifestyle choices that are made available with an increase in income will lead to a shift away from sustainable practices (such as food gardens) as they are not intrinsically tied to survival and the supply of basic daily needs – i.e. food can be bought with an increase in income, making the growing of food a unnecessary activity, which may result in individuals purchasing foods instead of growing them because of a lack of understanding of the effects on the environment. In addition to this, with the increase in income and capacity, there is a shift in social norms and a potential shift between class structures that shift ambitions and re-designate income and expenditure patterns (Sen 2001). It is not enough to merely use development practices that happen to be environmentally sustainable in order to build capacity and address social issues if the environmental sustainability is not intentional. There needs to be intent on the part of participants if such practices are to be applied by individuals in different contexts and across class structures – there needs to be an intentional development of what Jensen and Schnack (1997) describe as action competence for the environment, both through developing individual and community competencies that empower them to deal with social issues, but also, through the development of what I shall term environmental competencies that enable individuals and communities to deal with these issues with environmental consideration. This is particularly important in a South African context where environmental issues and poverty are ‘two sides of the same coin’ (Rosenberg 2004b).

It would seem that there is a need for an integration of environment as a whole, including insights from education for sustainable development, environmental education and environmental values education into all curricula aimed at the development of competencies that will address contextual issues in ways that are environmentally sustainable and socially and economically sustainable (UNESCO 2002).

This includes consideration of environmental issues that extend beyond the local context and the current context (i.e – global issues, as well as future issues resulting from current mismanagement of the environment). As can be seen in the five lessons observed, the explicit curriculum does not consider global issues in relation to local issues, nor does it consider the effects of addressing local issues through programmes at the centre on global environments, for example, what is the effect of using food gardens on world ecology as opposed to buying imported foods in stores.

6.4.3 Arising ambivalences

A further ambivalence can be identified through the analysis of policy, context and curriculum. This ambivalence lies in a contextually framed view of 'whole-child development', which, in this case, guides much of the curriculum work taking place. This conception of whole child development does not consider broader influences on the child's development, such as the inter-relationships between socio-ecological and socio-economic dimensions in the child's environment. The RNCS, on the other hand, attempts to provide a broader framework for children's development in the sense that it provides for a broad, general curriculum, but does not, in the same way, consider the contextually situated experiences of learners in relation to whole child development. Thus, it appears that this arising ambivalence may provide useful 'space' for the deliberation on whole child development and curriculum in ECD centres such as Raglan Road Child Care Centre, particularly if broader national and international policy goals of sustainable development are to be engaged at a local level.

6.5 CONTEXT, POLICY AND ENVIRONMENTAL TEACHING AND LEARNING PROCESSES

In this section, I discuss teaching and learning processes in relation to learning theory and in reference to contextual and policy influences.

As can be seen in Chapter 5 (and in the discussions above), teaching and learning processes are shaped by the local and national South African context. These processes represent both technical and practical human interests as well as emancipatory interests, all of which reflect different contextual issues that address both current and future needs (for example, the explicit curriculum teaches children about current issues

affecting their lives such as nutrition, hygiene and child abuse, as well as skills they will need to stay in school, find employment and deal with future issues).

As can be seen in this study, the centre uses an integrated approach to providing education and safety nets for children and community members in response to contextual issues, which has resulted in the re-structuring of home-school boundaries; it has also resulted in a highly contextualised school policy that is somewhat at odds with national policy structures. In addition to addressing issues reflected in the school policy, teaching and learning processes also reflect other contextual issues that have not been vocalised in the school policy, such as health issues or consumption and availability of natural resources. These issues reflect issues associated with environmental degradation and impact in the community (e.g. water pollution and scarcity; loss of biodiversity; sanitation risks, etc.) and were well represented in the newspaper search for the contextual profile. The school policy reflects socio-economic issues, where the national policy provides an opportunity for the exploration of social, ecological, political and economic issues in an integrated way, as outlined in the RNCS curriculum statement.

Though the adoption of a critical curriculum approach in addition to the contextualisation of school policy guiding programmes and projects, the centre has ensured a contextually relevant programme that responds to both education and development needs in an integrated strategy that involves multiple levels of education (both adult and ECD) through multiple integrated programmes. As identified in this study, however, this focuses mainly on the socio-economic aspect, potentially narrowing broader more holistic learning opportunities within a sustainable development framework.

6.5.1 Teaching and learning processes

In this section, I discuss the lessons in terms of an active learning framework, as described by O'Donoghue and Janse van Rensburg (1995) and in relation to learning theory. Active learning approaches characterise contemporary approaches to environmental education, as educators in southern Africa seek to respond to environmental issues and risks that arise in different contexts (see Section 2.5.3). Within the framework described by O'Donoghue and Janse van Rensburg (*ibid*), active learning includes processes of dialogue, encounter and reflection, as well as accessing learners' prior knowledge and contextual learning encounters in ways that are responsive to ecological, social and economic factors (see Section 2.4.2 and Fig. 2.1). This process of responding to what learners already know and then challenging them to learn more through actively engaging them in meaning-making is often called "active learning" (Lotz-Sistka 2003). O'Donoghue (1991:5) notes that "the young absorb a cultural capital in

language and experiential interaction with others ... [i]n this way, they develop critical capacities as they grow up”.

6.5.1.1 Learning support materials (LSM)

Russo and Lotz-Sisitka (2003) note that the adaptive use of learning support materials (LSM's) needs to be context-relevant, appropriate to learner age and with an understanding of learning processes on the part of the educator. They (*ibid*) explain that this approach to use of learning support materials enables greater responsiveness to environmental issues and risks as they arise in different contexts.

As indicated in Section 5.3.3.1, Zama, during the first lesson, made use of learning support materials to mediate meaning making with the learners. LSM's were used to provide visual illustration of different aspects of the programme, for example, an introductory poster depicting the AIDS ribbon, a meal, two sick people, a person exercising and a nurse was used at the start of the first lesson (see Fig 5.2). The poster represented different aspects of the programme organiser, which were further explored over the programme period. Zama also created story flash cards (see Fig 5.1). In addition, a programme organiser table¹⁹ contained the poster, a first aid kit and figurines of a hospital, doctors and nurses. All of these learning support materials were illustrative in nature, with minimal use of words, as these learners were not yet able to read. During the story, the flash cards were used both to illustrate the story and as a prompt for guided questioning.

Bulelwa used a water poster that depicted a number of sources and uses for water, both as a tool for assessing learners' prior knowledge, as a means of illustrating unfamiliar settings for the learners (for example, pictures of dams, the sea and more rural settings which learners had potentially not been in contact with) and to initiate discussions through prompting the learners by asking them what they saw in the picture. Although the poster was not context specific, it contained a large variety of contexts, and had many generic features such as taps, people swimming, gardens and rivers.

6.5.1.2 Learners' prior knowledge

As noted in Sections 5.3.4.1 and 5.3.4.2, both Zama and Bulelwa intentionally provided opportunities for learners to share their prior knowledge through discussion in order to create spaces for the sharing of prior knowledge, which O'Donoghue (2001:15) notes, provides opportunities for learners to express their views, as well as an opportunity for teachers to assess what is known, and the gaps and errors in this knowledge. Zama

¹⁹ The programme organizer table is changed with each new programme organizer, and contains posters, figurines and other programme relevant matter. The table is kept throughout the programme organizer.

noted that she intentionally provided these opportunities as part of her assessment of both learners (to assess learner development in communication skills and thinking skills, as well as assessing for indications of emotional disturbance indicating abuse or family disruptions) and the success of previous lessons (as lessons are often linked and overlap). As described in the observation data, both Zama and Bulelwa provided opportunities in each lesson for learners to share their prior knowledge through group discussions and guided questioning (see Section 5.3.3).

6.5.1.3 Learning in a group and scaffolding

Rogoff (1995, as cited by Lotz-Sisitka 2004:24) notes that it is through guided participation that a link is provided between prior knowledge and the new information, competences and skills that are needed to solve new problems. As indicated in Section 2.5 participation and problem solving approaches are characteristic of contemporary trends in environmental education. Guided participation in these programme organisers was provided by group discussions, a role-play activity and creative activities, where learners were encouraged to share what they knew, understood and experienced with their peers.

To supplement this process, Zama, Bulelwa and Yoliswa, as more knowledgeable parties, introduced new knowledge on the topic of enquiry, thereby scaffolding new levels of understanding. Zama also noted that Yoliswa introduced her to new knowledge during the talk with the learners, thereby scaffolding her own development. The water quality demonstration, in particular, provided a bridge between learners' prior knowledge and new knowledge by providing an opportunity for learners to observe and engage with the experiment as it was demonstrated by Bulelwa; it was then followed up with the creative activity that provided an opportunity to observe the effects of water mixed with paint; in addition, learners had the opportunity to experiment with water during the outdoor play session through the presence of a water trough in the outside play area, which I noted during my visits was always a busy area for pouring, mixing and playing in.

Meaning was mediated in a group throughout all five lessons observed, both during group discussions that were guided by the teachers, and during creative activities, where learners discussed ideas, concepts and stories with each other. Vygotsky notes that students internalise social processes as they are carried out in joint problem solving, and that this inter-subjectivity encourages the extension of students' understanding to new information and further activities (Lotz-Sisitka 2004, also see Wood 1999, Moll 1990). Simovska (2004, cited in Lotz-Sisitka 2004) describes this process of meaning making as a social group as a 'dynamic collective zone of proximal development'.

This 'dynamic collective zone of proximal development' reflects current environmental education trends, where every one is seen to be a learner (given that there are no fixed or pre-determined solutions to many of the environmental problems experienced in society today), and meaning is socially constructed in the local context as people work together to address issues and risks (see Section 2.5).

6.5.1.4 A learner-centred approach

Throughout the five lessons observed (and as explained in more depth above), Zama and Bulelwa provided opportunities for dialogue, encounter and reflection (see Fig 2.1 and Section 2.4.2). Dialogue opportunities were provided in each lesson in the form of group discussions, guided questioning and peer discussions during creative activities. Encounter opportunities were more limited during the observation period, and included the talk by Yoliswa as a clinic assistant, the demonstration of universal precautions in lesson two, and the water purification exercise in lesson four. Zama did, however, arrange a visit to the hospital at a later date (pers. comm. 2004). Reflection opportunities were provided by the creative activities after lessons two, three and four and through the feed-back session after lesson two. Follow-up discussions also allowed learners to re-visit and reflect on ideas from previous activities.

6.5.1.6 A critical curriculum

As can be seen above, the school programme is embedded within a contextual framework for education and development, resulting in the restructuring of private-public life boundaries in direct response to contextual issues. This approach places the school's implicit and explicit curricula within a critical approach to education (as discussed in Section 2.4). The multiple interacting contexts described by Cornbleth (1990:13) are evidenced in this curriculum through the exploration of themes that have relevance and deal with issues in both school and home contexts, as well as through interaction with broader community contexts such as hospitals, clinics and the biophysical environment (these approaches are also recommended in the UNESCO (2002) guidelines on Education for Sustainable Development). Because the curriculum is embedded in the context of learners' lives and works with learners to understand and overcome contextual issues, it can be described as being context sensitive and supporting a practice orientated curriculum that allows for focus on contextual change through the empowerment of individuals and the community as a whole. For example, lessons described above address issues of HIV/AIDS, abuse, neglect, nutrition, water provision and a fear of hospitals, all of which affect learners' lives in immediate and tangible ways.

6.5.1.7 *Approaches to learning*

As indicated above, and in Section 2.4.2, environmental education praxis in South Africa has been influenced by constructivist theories of learning, particularly the work of Vygotsky, who emphasises the socio-cultural nature of learning processes. Hein (1991), notes the following as aspects of constructivism with regard to learning: learning is an active process; learning involves language; learning is a social activity; learning is contextual; one needs new knowledge to learn; it takes time to learn and ideas need to be re-visited; and knowing the reason why one is learning something generates motivation on the part of the learner, in addition to making knowledge usable. Bearing the above in mind, both Zama and Bulelwa followed a primarily constructivist approach to learning. In particular, both teachers centred their lessons on learner context and the lived and experienced lives of their learners, as discussed in detail above. Both teachers used both new and familiar language to share new knowledge with learners in ways that were appropriate to their age and understanding. Ideas were also revisited, both within each programme organiser and across programme organisers, and themes of HIV/AIDS, child abuse, health and hygiene and water were re-occurring (both during and after the observation period). However, there was one area of their praxis that seemed to be 'at odds' with this approach to learning, namely the way that they approached religious education.

As can be seen in Chapter 5, there is an ambivalence in teaching approaches between a critical approach to curriculum that fosters the development of critical thinking skills through dialogue, encounter and reflection on different themes and issues, and a fundamental pedagogic approach which appears to characterise religious education in the school, in which prayers and religious observances are learnt by rote (see Section 5.3.3.2), and in which there is no critical engagement with religious doctrine or associated values – for example, learners are required to repeat prayers and religious observances, but there is no time or opportunity for questioning those beliefs or for choosing those beliefs – it is assumed that these beliefs are right and therefore should be accepted without question. In addition, the choice to include only one compulsory set of religious beliefs, based on Christian religious structures, excludes all other religious beliefs and introduces a discourse of exclusivity into the school ideology that is in conflict with previously described discourses of inclusivity and social justice, which mirror a larger ideological shift currently occurring in the broader area of South African society and in South African educational policy. This trend is carried into other school contexts such as parent-school meetings and school events, where each event is opened with a Christian prayer. Nor is the issue of religious values included in school policy, although the policy addresses other issues of discrimination, such as gender and economic discrimination. It must be noted, however, that the community surrounding the school

represents a large number of Christian households, and so these practices reflect a dominant ideology within the community, and may represent a School Governing Body choice.

In maintaining a view of education for sustainable development and a critical approach to curriculum as described above, the tension between these two curriculum approaches point to a number of issues.

One of these is a conflict between the inclusive ideology in the school (and in South Africa as a whole), as opposed to the exclusive ideology that results from a singular approach to religion. A technocratic approach to education can be most clearly seen in the religious education areas of the curriculum, which foster transmission of presumably expert knowledge and values derived from a very specific world view, the roots of which are connected with former educational practice in South Africa. As noted in Kallaway (1986), Ashley (1989) and Christie (2000), the apartheid government was based on a Christian National policy based on Calvinistic teachings. Christian National Education (CNE) was first introduced in the 1970's as part of an effort to integrate Calvinistic teachings into all areas of life (Ashley 1989). CNE was based on principles of racial segregation and gender inequality, and presumed white people to be superior to other race groups, in addition to being based on a patriarchal system. Within this framework, teachers occupied roles of authority, with an obligation to instil high moral and spiritual values of the Christian faith in children (Ashley 1989). As can be seen in the observation data (see teacher intentions in Sections 5.3.3 and 5.3.4), this approach of instilling values and beliefs is still used in this school where children are taught religious observances through memorization of prayers and religious songs without the opportunity for discussion or critical engagement with these ideas. This introduces a tension between the school striving to facilitate equality (gender and racial equality) on the one hand, and on the other, supporting the instilling of values and beliefs that are by their nature, exclusive and discriminatory. This opens up the potential for teachers and learners to be exposed to only one world view as "right", to the exclusion of others and creates spaces for discrimination and inequality within the school and community, while at the same time, learners get a different 'message'.

Also, although the centre seems to operate within a critical approach to education in many aspects, it appears that the curriculum stops short of interrogating and questioning the power of dominant social structures other than those imposed by race or gender, which reflect two ideologies currently dominant in South African politics. They do not for example, deal with class dominance, religious dominance, the dominance of anthropocentric views of environment or the dominance of neo-liberal economic discourse, for example . During my visits to the school, those children who had not yet

learnt my name referred to me as '*mlungu*' or 'white person', which for me²⁰ illustrated a separation between the community and 'others', who were considered 'white' if they came as visitors to the school, spoke English and carried a camera. The identification of this difference between the learners and myself along racial lines speaks of an older ideology of racial segregation, and although settlement patterns in Grahamstown still reflect this segregation (Holleman 1997) pattern, children as young as five years old have lived their entire lives within the new democracy. That they still identify with apparently more affluent others along racial lines points to a lack of critical reflection on social structures such as class, and perhaps also provides testimony to the very slow progress of transformation in South Africa.

6.5.4 Arising ambivalences

As can be seen in this section, there is an ambivalence in the approach to education between that of a critical curriculum and that of a technocratic curriculum approach. This, in turn, creates an ambivalence related to inclusivity/ exclusivity in school policy and classroom practice. The root of this ambivalence appears to be a) the presence of one dominant religious grouping in the school-community context, b) historically situated approaches to teaching religion and c) narrow views of inclusivity dominant in policy discourses, mainly emphasising gender and race.

6.6 CONCLUSION

In this chapter, I have interpreted and discussed various aspects of the relationship between context, policy and environmental teaching and learning processes. I discussed the relationship between policy and context by looking at school policy and context; national policy, school policy and context; and risk, sustainable development and international policy. Ambivalences arising out of this relationship included an ambivalence in education-community development foci in school and national policy, and in school policy and national policy as responses to risk. Next, I discussed the way in which context and policy shape and inform school-community relationships, with a focus on community development, whole-child development and education. Ambivalences arising from this discussion included that between the development/educational foci at the school, and that of the school-parent roles at the school, where parents shift from being partners into a sub-ordinate position with the school as the authority in the relationship and parents expected to comply with rules. Thereafter, I discussed the relationship between context, policy and curriculum by looking at the explicit, implicit and null curricula. A further ambivalence was identified through this discussion and has to do with the contextually framed view of whole child development guiding the curriculum at the school, which does not appear to consider

²⁰ It might be useful for the reader to note that I am in fact Indian.

broader development influences such as the inter-relationship between socio-ecological and socio-economic dimensions in the child's environment. This was discussed in the context of national policy (the RNCS), which provides a broader framework for whole-child development through an emphasis on socio-economic *and* socio-ecological dimensions embedded within eight learning areas, thus potentially providing a framework for a broader conception of whole child development. Finally, I discussed the relationship between context, policy and teaching and learning processes in terms of learning theory, environmental education trends and curriculum policy. An ambivalence arising from this discussion included that between critical and technocratic approaches to curriculum, resulting in an ambivalence related to inclusivity and exclusivity in school policy and classroom practice.

Through this discussion, I identified a number of arising ambivalences (summarised above), some of which were explicit in the form of tensions arising in school discourses and classroom practice. Others arose through consideration of broader national policy (e.g. the RNCS) and international policy (sustainable development) in relation to contextual factors, school policy and teaching and learning processes as observed in this case study. These have provided useful insight into *the relationship between* policy, context and environmental teaching and learning processes. They also provide a useful framework for making recommendations to guide environmental learning and further policy development at the Raglan Road Community Centre, and may provide some 'fuzzy generalisations' for the broader ECD sector, as defined by Bassey (1999).

In Chapter 7, I briefly summarise the study, and then consider these recommendations, in response to the ambivalences identified through the analysis in this chapter. I also reflect on the multiple research openings presented through this study, as well as reflecting on the research process in the study.

CHAPTER 7

RECOMMENDATIONS AND REFLECTIONS ON THE STUDY

Education is meant to change people, as is research; not through colonising their consciousness, but by bringing them to a place where they can make up their own stories.

(Hart 2002)



7.1 INTRODUCTION

As indicated in Chapter 6, this study focused on an analysis of the relationships that exist between policy, context and teaching and learning processes. The concluding paragraph of Chapter 6 identified that this relationship is fairly complex, particularly when one considers school, national and international policy in relation to context and teaching and learning processes. The findings of this study illustrate that this relationship is characterised by ambivalence (reflecting a number of tensions), which does not lend itself to simplistic recommendations. However, given the context in which the study was undertaken, namely a community-based ECD site, I feel strongly that the recommendations should be practical and useful to the ECD centre, without being imposing. The recommendations in this chapter are developed and presented in a form that will hopefully be beneficial to the ECD centre concerned, and should be read in this light.

In this chapter, I begin by briefly summarising the study. I then make practical recommendations, aimed at engaging with ambivalences emerging from the study. Thereafter, I discuss multiple research openings for future research, and finally, reflect on the research process.

7.2 SUMMARY OF STUDY

Chapter 1 draws attention to the conception of this study and the shaping of what has proved to be a particularly complex research focus for this study. Because this study is one of a few studies that look at environmental education that the 0-6 early childhood development sector in South Africa, a large number of basic questions which were bound up in one another were raised. Limiting and containing the study within manageable proportions, given the limitations of a half-thesis, was challenging, and in the end, narrowed the study down to working with the broad research question in one site. The final research question guiding the writing up of the study was:

How do policy discourses and contextual realities influence environmental teaching and learning processes in early childhood development centres?

The study was developed with an integrated focus on contextual realities, policy discourse and teaching and learning processes. Such an approach has enabled the study to be situated in a broader and richer landscape of both environmental education and early childhood development.

The emergent data, presented in Chapters 4 and 5, began to highlight ambivalences and tensions arising from the relationships amongst policy, context and teaching and learning processes. The different data sources worked together, creating a thicker description of the research area, in addition to highlighting different aspects of the ambivalences inherent in this relationship. Chapter four highlighted local policy and local context and Chapter 5 introduced national policy in relation to school policy, local context and teaching and learning processes. Each section revealed further ambivalences and tensions in this relationship, and although the study did not specifically set out to explore this relationship in terms of ambivalences and tensions, it soon became apparent that this approach would be more useful than exploring the relationship through dichotomies that position issues or practices in opposition to each other, leaving little room for resolution. Using ambivalence to explore the relationship in Chapter 6 opened up a number of 'spaces' in which arising tensions could be engaged with, and which allowed a contextual reflexivity to enter the study. Thus, the relationship between these three aspects of the study was not brought down to any singular, straight-forward interaction, consisting instead of shifting and often contending interactions reflecting both the local and the broader context. Chapter 6 endeavours to reflect key dimensions of these ambivalences in the relationship between policy, context and teaching and learning processes, and presents the research findings in terms of these tensions and ambivalences.

The question then, is, has the study been able to successfully engage in the process of responding to the research question and research goals? If the answer is that the study has revealed that the relationships between context, policy and teaching and learning are not simplistic, but rather characterised by tensions and ambivalence then yes, this study has started to answer the research question (see research openings for further exploration of this question noted in Section 7.4 below).

The first goal of the study was to gain insight into the contextual environment of a community-based ECD centre; this has been achieved through the compilation and documentation of a contextual profile, in addition to insights gained through all other data sources. The critical discourse analysis of school policy provided for a useful deepening interpretation of contextual dimensions of the ECD centre.

The second goal was to explore the relationship between context and school policy; this was achieved both through the critical discourse analysis of school policy and through teacher insights presented in interview data. Further insight into this relationship was gained during the observation of lessons, which introduced the discourse of national policy into school practice.

The third goal was to explore the relationship between context, school policy and environmental teaching and learning that was achieved through observations of lessons, which were reflected on drawing by on contextual profile data, insights into the school policy and a consideration of national and international contextual factors and policy frameworks influencing environmental education praxis in South Africa.

7.3 RECOMMENDATIONS

In this section, I make recommendations that are practically useful for the school, with relevance to engaging with the ambivalences emerging from this study. These recommendations may also be of relevance to the broader field of early childhood development and to the development of an environmental focus in ECD teaching and learning processes.

In maintaining the view that this study may provide fuzzy generalisations (see Section 3.1) that may be useful in other contexts, but especially in community-based ECD contexts, the following recommendations can be used to enter into deliberations on environmental teaching and learning processes at an ECD level. The use of fuzzy generalisations instead of scientific generalisations introduces a degree of uncertainty into generalisable recommendations. Although the recommendations are aimed at informing policy and practice at the Raglan Road Community Centre, even in the context of this school, recommendations are broad, providing openings for deliberation at the school, rather than prescriptions for the school to implement.

7.3.1 Engaging the strong development focus in school policy and the educational focus in national policy and teacher discourse

As discussed in Section 6.2.4, there is an ambivalence between development and educational foci in school and national policy and teacher discourse.

This study recommends that, in addition to the current articulation of the development focus, the educational focus of the school should be more clearly articulated in the school policy. In doing so, the educational focus will be fore-grounded in local policy, thereby strengthening the school policy. In addition, articulation of the educational focus of the school will support and strengthen the implementation of curriculum policy in classroom practice. Teachers' views on education can be further explored in the school policy, and the broader curriculum framework provided by the RNCS can be discussed for its relevance to contextual and other issues in the school.

7.3.2 School policy and national policy in response to risk

This study indicates that community-based approaches to ECD have the potential to provide integrated approaches to both long and short term risks through multi-faceted and integrated approaches. This study recommends that the ECD centre continues to strive towards responding to risk in this way, but that it also tries to align this response within the social goals and broader framework of the national curriculum (see recommendation 7.3.4 below).

In addition, this study recommends that this case, and other cases such as this be developed as examples of policy in practice at national and international levels, particularly in the light of UNESCO's (2002; 2004) recommendations for re-orientation of education systems worldwide within the frameworks for Education for Sustainable Development. In particular, this case can be considered as an example of policy in practice in the light of the UNESCO (2004) Strategy for Implementation for the forthcoming UN Decade of Education for Sustainable Development (starting in 2005). Extended work in this direction, may provide further impetus to sustain community-based ECD centres, rather than phase them out as noted in Section 2.3. I intend to, once this study is complete, to produce a 'user friendly' case study of this school's response to risk, which could be used by the school to strengthen their own work, and which can also be circulated (with permission from the school) for broader policy discussions.

7.3.3 Engaging with the ambivalence in the school-parent relationship

As noted in Section 6.3.3, an emerging ambivalence within the school-parent relationship was noted within the school policy discourse, as well as through teacher interviews. Discourses referring to parents shift between those of partnership and those of compliance. This study recommends that the centre carefully examines this relationship, and while still maintaining safety nets for children, vocalise the strong move towards partnership indicated in Section 5.2 more strongly in school policy. It further recommends that the school explore opportunities to involve parents educationally in the ECD centre's work. This may further enhance this relationship and work towards integrating school partnership aims into school practice.

7.3.4 Re-alignment of the explicit curriculum and broadening of the contextually-based view of whole child development

This study has shown that the school is currently in a transition between the C2005 curriculum and the RNCS. This study recommends that re-aligning the school's explicit curriculum with that of the RNCS will allow a more holistic approach to whole child

development, in addition to providing broader guided opportunities for the integration of environment into the school curriculum (as discussed in Section 6.4.2) beyond just the social sciences. This would enable teachers to consider broader influences on learner development and to develop a perspective of environment that includes the inter-relationships between socio-ecological and socio-economic dimensions in learner environments. This re-alignment would address concerns described in Section 6.4.2, which discusses 'silent' areas in the school curriculum.

This study also recommends that the school continues to focus on the effective way in which they contextualise learning, and that they continue to strengthen approaches that respond to children's needs and interests as they consider broader possibilities for themes and topics within the RNCS framework, as this will strengthen implementation of the RNCS. The approach currently adopted by the ECD centre, to combine adult education and community development work with early childhood learning appears to allow for this rich contextualisation of learning.

7.3 5 Engaging the ambivalence in approaches to education

The ambivalence in approaches to education identified in Section 6.5.1.7 between that of a critical curriculum and an approach that reflects technocratic approaches to curriculum results in an ambivalence related to inclusivity and exclusivity in both school policy and classroom practice. This study recommends that in order to broaden views of inclusivity to reflect broader South African views and ideology, the centre should reflect on practices that may result in exclusivity discourses in classroom practice (for example, traditional approaches to religious education). Re-aligning the curriculum with the RNCS and considering the RNCS policy for its stance on values education may be useful in engaging with this ambivalence. (The Department of Education (DoE, 2001) also has a Values in Education policy, that may also be useful in these deliberations).

7.4 RECOMMENDATIONS FOR FURTHER RESEARCH

In this section, I make recommendations to guide further research in exploring the relationship between policy, context and environmental teaching and learning processes within an ECD context.

An emphasis on community-based ECD centres within an RNCS framework

This study focuses on a contextually derived curriculum that makes limited use of national policy. Further research focusing on the relationship between policy, context and environmental teaching and learning in an ECD context where curriculum is fully aligned with the RNCS may provide further insights into this relationship. It would also

provide an opportunity to critically reflect on the RNCS as an approach to environmental teaching and learning in the ECD sector.

Broadening environmental learning opportunities through the RNCS

This study recommends that the school re-aligns the explicit curriculum in this centre with the RNCS as a means of potentially broadening environmental education opportunities in ways that address socio-ecological and socio-economic dimensions of the environment and environmental issues. Research to explore the usefulness of this re-alignment in terms of broadening environmental education opportunities would enable the ECD sector to engage with this approach in more depth. Further research in this area could establish how a framework that includes the socio-economic and socio-ecological may contribute to a broadening of the concept of whole child development.

Context, policy and teaching and learning in school-based ECD contexts

This study has started to explore the relationship between context, policy teaching and learning processes within a community-based ECD context. Current national policy focuses on school-based ECD approaches (Porteus 2004). Research exploring this relationship within a school-based context would open up further 'spaces' for deliberations around these different approaches to ECD.

Education for Sustainable Development and school, national and international policy

A more in-depth analysis of the relationship between school, national and international policy within the Education for Sustainable Development framework provided by UNESCO (2002; 2004) would provide further insight into this approach as a response to environmental risk.

A focus on community development

A similar study focussing on the community development 'side' of the centres work would be useful to engage with the other aspects of development and sustainable development within the centre. The ECD focus of this study is only one aspect of the centre's strategy of community development and sustainable development.

Identification and engagement with ambivalence as an opening for deliberation and engagement of issues

Further research is needed into how an engagement of the ambivalences that arise in the nexus between policy, context and teaching and learning (such as those identified in this study) can be used to facilitate deliberations and engagement with issues. This

would be particularly useful in ascertaining whether this process provides useful spaces for working with arising tensions in response to issues.

7.5 FINAL REFLECTIONS AND CONCLUSION

During the conception of this study, I was repeatedly reminded that I was addressing an ambitious and complex research question, and that there was a danger that the scope of the study would be too difficult to manage within the given time and other constraints. Throughout the study, I have struggled to manage the scope of the study, while trying to ensure that I was achieving the depth in data and interpretation required to engage meaningfully with the research question.

This study has highlighted for me, the complex and inter-related nature of context, policy and teaching and learning at an ECD level. In the light of the research focus, this case study has created insights into this complex relationship, and has illustrated how the use of ambivalence can begin to open up the spaces to deliberate this relationship within context. The approach suggested by the use of ambivalence provides an alternative to the use of dichotomies as strategies to explore this relationship, which would limit engagement with these complex relationships. For example, if I had interpreted the parent-teacher relationship as an opposition/ dichotomy in this study, it would have been difficult to deliberate and engage this issue at the school, and it could have damaged the emerging relationship between the school and the parent body. Similarly, if I had interpreted the contextually derived curriculum in opposition to a curriculum derived from the RNCS, the school might have lost the value of the richly responsive contextual work that they are doing as they engage with the RNCS, and recommendations would have been limited to choosing one or the other option.

In reflecting on the study, some of the practically useful opportunities for deliberation arising out of this study at school level include:

- deliberations on revision of the school policy in relation to school-parent relationships and educational emphasis,
- deliberations on the teaching approaches within the school, and more broadly within an ECD context,
- deliberations on broadening the curriculum focus and the conception of whole child development to include both socio-ecological and socio-economic dimensions of the child's development (in addition to the psychomotor, social and cognitive dimensions that are heavily emphasised in ECD practice already).

More broadly the study has provided an opening for deliberations on the model of community based ECD in relation to international policy developments at the start of the United Nations Decade of Education for Sustainable Development.

Although it has been most challenging to explore the relationships among policy, context and teaching and learning, this process has brought me to a point where I can begin to explore these relationships within the spaces created by the areas of ambivalence in this study; it has provided me with the tools to begin deliberating this relationship. I hope to start some of these deliberations with the school once the research is complete, as a way of sharing what I have learned with those who have participated in the study.

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APPENDIX 1

**LETTER FROM DIANNA HORNBY
(CENTRE FOR SOCIAL DEVELOPMENT)**

Thanks Di! Its always great to get feedback like this, and yes, Priya is a special person who does give much of herself to everyone she interacts with. Thanks for supporting her with her research. I think it will be a very useful research project!

Heila

On 27 Sep 2004 at 12:29, d.hornby@ru.ac.za wrote:

> Dear Heila
 >
 > As you may or may not have been aware we had the Premier to
 > open the Raglan Road Multi-purpose Centre last week. I wanted
 > to
 > give you feedback on Priya.
 >
 > For a long time now I have grappled with the issue of students
 > who
 > work with communities to gather information for their thesis. The
 > relationship is one sided, the community gives generously and
 > the
 > student takes all they need.
 >
 > Priya, has restored my confidence in our students! She gives so
 > generously to the individuals and to the school community at
 > Raglan MPC. She was part of the big celebrations,
 > arrived
 > in a beautiful Indian outfit and got stuck in serving people lunch
 > and
 > giving of herself. She really does need to be commended.
 >
 > The community have embraced her generosity and think she is
 > great! I know this bodes well for future students at Raglan Road
 >
 > thanks to Priyas contribution.
 >
 > Kind regards
 > Di
 > PS I know you are on leave at the moment but wonder if you
 > could
 > return the literature I sent over through internal mail on your
 > return.
 > Thanks
 > Diana S Hornby
 > Centre for Social Development
 > P O Box 94
 > Rhodes University
 > Grahamstown
 >
 > PH/Fax 046 - 6224408
 > Cell 082 8011 374 (please note new number as from 7 July 2003)
 >

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APPENDIX 2

INTERVIEW SCHEDULE

**Draft Interview Schedule:
Raglan Road Community Centre, School Constitution**

1. How were the school objectives decided on?
2. Was the community part of this decision-making process?
3. Who was involved in the drawing up of the constitution?
4. Who are the centre stakeholders?
5. What is the purpose of the constitution?
6. (Who do the objectives address? – who was considered in the drawing up of the constitution?...is it aimed at the parents?)

Objective 1:

1. What types of leaders does the school want to build?
2. Which qualities does the school target or try to develop to build up these leaders?
3. Is this the same type of leaders that the community would like to build?
4. How is this achieved in practice...i.e. which activities do you do to achieve this?

Objective 2:

1. How does the school provide safety against child abuse?
2. Is it effective?
3. In what ways does the school contribute to the reduction of street children? (...children that are neglected by parents and are on the street during the day)

Objective 3:

1. How does the school uplift the standard of development? (individual or community development?)
2. In which ways does the school integrate education and development?

3. What educational standards is the school aiming at?
4. Does it fulfil the present needs of both school and community?

Objective 4:

1. What are the aims of working with parents and community members?
2. What are the benefits of this relationship?
3. What part do parents and community play in the school?
4. In which ways would you like to work together in the future?
5. Are there any relationship issues between parents, teachers and community members?
6. What are parents' roles at the school meetings?
7. What is the purpose of school meetings?
8. In which ways does the community "own" the school?
9. What are the community rights/staff rights/ parents rights?
10. What is the role of the SGB in the centre?
11. How is respect between teachers and parents/community members fostered?
12. What is meant by respect?

General questions:

1. What is meant by "children should be neat"?
2. "School time should be important" – in which ways should school time be important?
3. What does the school do in the event that fees are not paid? Does this affect the children?

APPENDIX 3

EXAMPLE OF INTERVIEW TRANSCRIPT

INTERVIEW TRANSCRIPTION – TEACHER 1 – 11 JUNE 2004

Priya: Okay, so...I am going to be asking you all the questions about the constitution, and as I ask you some thing, and we discuss and discuss, and then later on you would like to go back and change something or your understanding has changed we can go back.

How were these objective decided on?

Teacher 2: The objectives of the constitution:...it was the staff before neh, the SGB and the staff. Later the...

Priya: So, first the staff, and then the staff and SGB...?

Teacher 2: Yes. Then after SGB, two – the SGB and the staff speak to the parents, then we all agree on the constitution.

Priya: Okay, and was the community ...was the community part of this decision-making process?

Teacher 2: Yes, yes. They are the part, because some of these things, we ask them from the community...that are you satisfied about our school, and we ask what are your objectives about this centre, because...(interrupted by outside party) ...then we ask the community that what are your feelings about this centre and what are your objectives?...When they talk to us, we take that ideas and we discuss with the SGB.

Priya: Okay. And then, : Who were all the different parties...or the stakeholders involved with drawing up the constitution? Was it just the staff and the SGB and parents?

Teacher 2: No, it was the the staff at the centre, the councillor, Mr Chipa...

Priya: Okay, what about the CSD?

Teacher 2: The CSD...Yes, the CSD are a part because we've got partnership...

Priya: And what ...what about the Rotary Club?

Teacher 2: Rotary?

Priya: (teacher 1) was saying that they fund you with computers...

Teacher 2: Okay, I'm sure she is misunderstanding. It is not a Rotary, it's the DG Murry Trust, but Rotary Club is the...the service organisations that we invite to our workshop so that they can share their knowledge with us, and they used to visit our centre when we ask them too...if there is something that we need...Rotary Club, ABSA, Child Welfare,...local government....Dedra, Dept of Culture, and e-Rotary.

Priya: Okay, so they just come in to support the centre.

Teacher 2: Eh, eh. Ooh Rotary – the support of Ooh machine – two machines of leather, that came from Rotary...and also the Rotary...they support us when they have a conference....they ask us to make T-shirts for their class...they want to market our stuff.

Priya: Okay, and then who would you say the stakeholders in the Centre are?

Teacher 2: Eh...eh...local government, like the councillor, and...the SGB

Priya: Okay, by stakeholders..., what I mean by stakeholders is anybody who's got a part in the school or in the centre.

Teacher 2: Okay, the community, and the...community councillors.

Priya: Okay, what is the purpose of the constitution? What is the reason that the school decided that you need a constitution?

Teacher 2: The purpose of the constitution is that we don't want to to abuse the children's rights...we also don't want to abuse our rights, we also don't want to abuse the community rights and we don't want to...to...to...misuse the...the things that the school owns...and the other thing, we don't want to...to destroy our centre, we want to develop. So there must be a constitution, so that each and everybody they must know that if they...if they did this and that...like if they do something, or if they steal...if they steal something of the centre, they must know that the...the constitution – it does not agree....and we also want the...the ...the reason why we do the constitution, we also want the other parents that they must know that this project is safe, this project is a project which sustains...it is not a project which is going to collapse tomorrow.

Priya: Okay...um. The objectives in the constitution, in fact everything in the constitution, but specifically the objectives...who do they address...who are they speaking to, who are they for?

Teacher 2: Say it again...

Priya: Um, who do the objectives address...meaning who do they speak to? Who do you want to read this and follow this?

Teacher 2: Okay, it's the staff, the SGB and the parents...and also the community, because the children, they...they...they know their children's rights but the children, they don't know about the...the...the constitution...the only thing they know their rights, so as the parents, the staff and the community, we must know the the constitution.

Priya: Okay, now I'm going to talk a little bit about the four objectives that are in there. I see the one's in the new constitution are slightly different – but they're quite similar.

Teacher 2: Ehy (affirmative), they are quite similar...

Priya: Okay, what type of leaders does the school want to build....it says here to build the leaders of tomorrow.

Teacher 2: Like, we want to ..to ...to build the leaders like Mike Shadiwe, eh, Mercy Bongela, umm, Hansie Cronje, Bennie Makatsie, Makaya Ntini, ...all the leaders that are role models in our....in our country.

Priya: So by leaders to are saying that you want to develop role models for the future?

Teacher 2: Eh, yaa... we don't want to to to, don't want to see our children, our learners to be...to be i-out-drops...we want them to see their future.

Priya: Umm...is this the same types of leaders that the community wants?

Teacher 2: Yes, they...they want the same.

Priya: And then, which activities...what types of activities do you do to develop these leadership qualities?

Teacher 2: Activities neh,...There are different activities that we do at our school. Like for instance we do have the creative activities, like e-creative activities – that's where we teach the skills to the learners, like we doing cutting...some they are going to be designers, we do e-art like e-drawing, some they are going to be the artists, we do i-songs - some they are going to be a singer, and we going to dramatise – they are going to be the actors. Also, we do the sports

– just like last week ...if you are going to buy the Grocott's Mail, you are going to see the learners, they are playing cricket. And also there are some learners they are not active 'doing', they are active in their minds – so that learners, maybe they are going to be a lawyer or teachers – it depends on their...their skill they have, but the only one thing that I...we know is that - all the children they have different skills – we as teachers must develop that skills. That children they have.

Priya: So when you say you must develop leadership skills, you are talking about very individual skills for each child...

Teacher 2: Ya...

Priya: Nothing is the same...each child has their own skills....

Teacher 2: Mmmm (negative), ya, they've got their own skills...

Priya: The next objective:...

Teacher 2: Reduce the number of street kids and provide safety against child abuse ...as you know, that there is a lot of child abuse all over, so as the...the...the teachers, neh, especially the teachers of the young children, we must support these children, we want them to come to pre-school so that they can be secured, and we know that if they are here, they are secured, rather than they stay in the location doing nothing.

Priya: Okay, in what ways does the school contribute to the reduction of street children?

Teacher 2: ...Reduction of street children....reduction means?

Priya: Making less....

Teacher 2: Less...okay...in what way...by encouraging....by making e-campaign with the community, because there are some in the community they don't know, they don't know the...the...the value of the pre-school so by calling a campaign...like for instance we do have e-community facilitators who are making workshops for the community, not only for the parents of the pre-school, for the community. They are talking...they use these topics of child abuse, HIV and AIDS, domestic violence. That...these community facilitators are the tutors from the CSD. They teach by CSD...because the CSD, they are working with pre-schools neh. So, they decided to train the community facilitators to educate the

community members: they must take their children to pre-school, and there are different pre-schools here in Grahamstown...some they cost R30 or R20, so the parents their duty to decide which pre-school I may afford.

Priya: Okay, now about the next objective which is uplifting the standard of development and education...what are you talking about when you are talking about development?

Teacher 2: Development? As I know that, ne, some of the parents, they are not well trained, they need skills so by talking about this development we want them to come and visit our centre and talk to us – that which kind of skills they want so that we can ask people from town, from our community, who have these skills to educate...(unclear dialogue)...because all the people they are here, they are not parents...(unclear dialogue)...community, but we ask them to talk to us... which kind of things ...(unclear dialogue)...we ask radio cas..? ...(unclear dialogue)... to...to...to call all the people that are interested in sowing skills, knitting skills, beading skills, to come to the workshop – we are going to share.

Priya: So we are talking about community development?

Teacher 2: Our development is not for community only...to our learners, or to parents ...it's general focus for everybody

Priya: Okay, and umm...what did the school...what are the educational standards that the school is aiming to integrate and uplift?

Teacher 2: By saying that we want to uplift the standard of education neh, we are saying that if the...if the learners neh, are not educated maybe they are going to suffer in future, because if the children are not well educated, they becoming the street kids, they go and take things in the town because they got no money and they are not educated, so if all the community can take their children to school, so that they can learn how to develop themselves, they can learn how to... how to...how to stay...(unclear word)...Also they can learn about the behaviour...what kind of behaviour they should have with community, teachers, even their friends.

Priya: In which ways...you've answered this more or less already, but I'll ask it again. In which ways does the school integrate education and development? How do you bring them together?

Teacher 2: We bring them together because education - it goes with development, because if you educate somebody about

maybe...like e-learners, like if learners about fire, we supposed to take them to the fire station, then we must show them, eh, the practical what is happening, the house is burning, or if the shop is burning, or if their school is burning, so we want to develop them holistically they must know all the accidents. And also we link the education to development in terms of...in terms of...in terms of community and their parents, because some parents they, they know how to do things but they don't have that... these skills, they have only theory...of how to do like...how to bake, how to cook, how to sew, only in theory, but they didn't know practically how to do these things (interrupted by phone call).

Priya: Okay, the next objective talks about working hand in hand with parents and communities and teachers, okay. What are the aims of working together?

Teacher 2: The aims of working together is that...because we are dealing with children neh, these three people, like teacher, parents and the community – we call it like a three legged pot. You know a three-legged pot, neh,?! So that three-legged pot, they belong in the same pot, but they are the pillars of this...they are the pillars of this pot, neh. So parents, teachers and community – we must work in hand to develop our children. We must not separate, we must not separate ourselves – we must work together to...to develop these children. And we must know that each and every one of us...each and every one needs one of them, because if we are working alone as teachers we are going nowhere without parents and community because these children that we are teaching come from parents. So that is why we must work hand in hand in terms of knowing their background, their environment, because children they come from different backgrounds and even if the children, maybe children is abused...if you don't know the background of the children what are you going to...to...to investigate about it, so if you do work hand in hand with the parents and community, they can help you as a teacher.

Priya: What are the benefits of this relationship – I think you have more or less answered this, but if you have anything you want to add - the good things that come out of working together.

Teacher 2: The benefits of working together as parents and teachers and community. First we, if we...like if we have a problem with our school, maybe we want the ...eh we want the eh...the equipment to use for the creative activites we ask the children to...to...to talk with their parents so that they can bring the waste material that we are going to use in the pre-school. And also if we want to visit other

places we call the taxi, then they can help us, we want to go some place, they take us.

Priya: Do you pay for the taxi's?

Teacher 2: Yes, we pay, but there are...there are...there is a discount rather that they pay to their transport.

Priya: Okay.

Teacher 2: Even if...if we want to do fire, we call the fire department that they must bring us their partners to come to demonstrate at the pre-school, so it's the benefit that we gain from the community.

Priya: Um. What part do the community and the parents play in the school...a lot of these questions are a little bit different.

Teacher 2: Eh eh, they are different, the part the parents play in the school: sometimes they come and volunteer. Like for instance if we have workshops here, we ask the parents to come cook for the students of the workshop. If once we are going to have the outing, we ask some parent - especially if the outing is going to be out of Grahamstown, we ask some few parents to go with us, even if we have a...i-function here at our school, we ask the parents to help us in the activities we are going to do.

Priya: Okay, which are the ways that you would like to work together in the future, things that you are maybe not yet doing but that you would like to be doing together?

Teacher 2: The other thing we want in future, like we want like e-computer is still in the process neh, we want it, so it can help with computer literacy, especially the parents, not only for the pre-school, for the schools also, because they are going to benefit because we have computers here in the centre ...(unclear dialogue)...

Priya: What other...oh...Are there any relationship issues between the parents, the teachers and the community members? It says herethis part here...

Teacher 2: If a parent have a problem with a teacher, she or he must discuss the problem with the teacher before taking further steps, like contact supervisor, committee members or CSD staff... The question?

Priya: The question is: Are there any relationship issues between the parents, the teachers and the community members?

Teacher 2: Yes, sometimes we do have a problem, like for instance some parents, they don't want to attend their workshops so they ...they don't have information about the programme of the school. If they come to visit the school during the outdoor play, they thought that the teachers are not working, they are just sitting on the side, watching their children, but if she can come to the teachers, they must not...the parents must not come to me and shout and shout. She must go to the teacher of the class of their children and ask about the programme - yes we do talk about the programme in their meetings, but there are some parents they don't want to...to...to follow the...the the the...the rules of the school, they don't even care about their children, the only thing they know is that my children is at Raglan Road Multi-purpose Centre and the things that I expect are that my children they must write their name, they must eat food, nothing else. They must come and see the class and ask the teachers... "what are they going to do today or next week....can I come and watch my kids when they are doing creative activities". By writing this we encourage that they must support their children.

Priya: Okay, um, what are the parents roles at the school meetings?

Teacher 2: At the school meetings,...the parents roles, e-meetings first, they run by the SGB, but the parents roles is that they must be the... they must... they must be the part of the decision of that meeting, the decision must not come to the SGB or the to staff. The decision must come to the parents.

Priya: Okay, and then what are the main purposes of the school meetings?

Teacher 2: The main purposes of the school meetings: We want to inform parents about the school, we want to also inform them about we are going, what do we do in the future, what else can we do at the multi-purpose centre.

Priya: Okay, um, okay, then shifting a little bit: In which ways does the community own the school...it talks about ownership and owning and not owning...

Teacher 2: Okay, like for instance if this computer – I not...I must not own this computer and take as if this is my computer, because I am in the office. I must know that this computer, it belongs to the school. It does not belong to me, or the community or to the SGB or to the

teachers – it belongs to the school. Must know that, even if parents they are going to have a funeral at home, the parents must not come and demand e-chairs or everything, like e-chairs or e-plates or whatever they use, whatever they use...whatever things they used to use in the funeral. They must not demand – all these things belongs to the school. For example, is that...is that...we tell them that this project is for...is for...wants to serve the community, but if there is somebody who wants the things at home, she must not think that she can take and use at home – no it's not like that - if she wants to do something she must come here to do it here.

Priya: Okay, then this one, that Zama was struggling with – perhaps you can help me. What are the rights of the community, the staff rights and the parents' rights? What rights do they have with regards to the school?

Teacher 2: Like, the community, they have a right to come to our school and ask questions because the school belongs to the community, but the community, they don't have a right to demand things that are here in the school. And also the staff, they have a right to work here, and also they have a right to do e-activities in the school but e-staff they don't have a i-right to e-abuse e-children, also they don't have a right to own things of the school because they are working here. Then, the children, they have a right....oh, there is a lot of rights for children, there is a lot of rights for children. Children, they have all the rights, especially for the education – you know the rights for children...but the only thing is the children, they don't have...ay, not the children for this much - the parents, they don't have the right to take...to force their children to come at school without paying. Because parents, they used to..to...to misinterpret the children's rights, they think that (their parents) they must come to school free without paying. Yes we know that at government school they must come, the education is free, but here is not under government...this school is not under government. They must know that they must pay. But we...we don't want to frustrate the children. If the parents they...she don't want to pay fees, we call that parent and talk to them, that you know that you are...you are you you you are...frustrating your child, so you must pay your fees because the child has the right to get an education, to a better education, she has a right...she or he, has a right to eat...and she has the right to play with other children. It's you, it's not the child.

Priya: And is the SGB representitve of the community and are they elected by the community or the parents...the SGB?

Teacher 2: No, the SGB is elected by the parents. The reason why is that, if we can say the SGB can be elected by the community, some community members they do not know what is happening in the pre-school. The reason why the parents want to elect the SGB from themselves is that they, their children are here and they know what is happening to them at the school, what is the purpose of the pre-school, what is the purpose of this centre. But if the parents, their children are not here, but they are here before...we...if she or he wants to be a committee member again, it depends on herself or himself and also the parents, not the staff – it is not the staff who elect the committee members.

Priya: Does the staff take part in the election?

Teacher 2: No, we don't want to take a part because sometimes there are fears of maybe, if I am going to elect Priya, some they are going to think that oh, Priya is a friend of Bulelwa, so if Bulelwa is Bullying at the school, Priya, she's not going to say anything about it, because she'll defend Bulelwa. That is why we...we...we we we give the parents the responsibility to elect the committee and SGB.

Priya: And what is the role of the SGB in the school?

Teacher 2: The role of the SGB in the school is to see to the school funds, if the staff and the children are secured, to see is there anything to be fixed in the school, and also to see that is there any development at the school.

Priya: How...do you know what fostered means? When I say "respect is fostered"? It means how is respect grown, how do you accomplish respect – that is what fostered means – how do you grow something. How is respect between teachers and parents and community members grown or fostered?

Teacher 2: Like you mean i-relationship?

Priya: Yes.

Teacher 2: Okay. It grows because...because of these workshops that are run by community facilitators because that workshops helped very much – they...that workshop build the relationship between parents and teachers and learners.

Priya: (teacher 1) was telling me that sometimes you have...when you just invite the parents just for tea, not to talk about anything, just to get to know each other...?

Teacher 2: Yes, especially during the first term, if we call them to visit the classes to share the...the...the progress of their children by talking and making tea or coffee so they must know it's not a meeting – we are trying to share ideas, to discuss what we are doing with their children.

Priya: What is meant by respect?

Teacher 2: By meaning respect...(sorry)...we mean that we must respect each and every person, and we also know that we must...we must care for everyone, we must support the children well, we must work as a team, we must not undermine ourselves, and must also have confidence about each and every one's work.

Priya: Okay, and there is a line in there that says that “children should be neat”?

Teacher 2: Children should be neat...yes, Children should be neat. Eh, eh.

Priya: What is meant by that?

Teacher 2: We mean that, some parents they don't care about their children. They take their children without washing them, so when the child arrive at the school, some, they are so embarrassed, because their parents, they didn't know that their children know their rights. As teachers we know that the children know their rights and we know that if the children is wearing the dirty clothes, then other children is wearing the clean cloths, these children did not cope with the classroom because of these clothes. So the parents are embarrassing the children.

Priya: Okay, And then, this other line...

Teacher 2: And we also teach them about this, if we are doing 'my body' and a “healthy body”, like 'nutrition', so the children, they know all these things...they know all these things, but the parents they thought that their children didn't know anything...(laughter)

Priya: And then this other line says “school time should be important”. In which way should school time be important?

Teacher 2: Like in terms of i-lateness, neh. If the programme starts at nine, but maybe there are some children that are not here yet, they come late. Yes, we know that in pre-school they are not reading, but we develop the children, and we want them to understand what are we going to do in the classroom, what are you going to teach, so if they don't go to school on time, they embarrass you as the teacher because when you are doing a programme organiser, you want to teach all the learners in your classroom, you don't want to teach others and others don't...

Priya: What does the

Teacher 2: Sorry, and we know that our school, the staff, we arrived at half past seven till half past four, and the children – eight o'clock till four. And there are some parents, who don't want to pick their children at four o'clock, they want to pick them maybe at half past seven. Sometimes, we sleep with these children!

Priya: Really? Wow!

Teacher 2: They don't care about their chi.. there are some parents they don't care about their children! I don't know why. Serious!

Priya: What does the school do in the event that the school fees aren't paid?...If the parents don't pay school fees, what do you do?

Teacher 2: We...we used to expel the children before, but as the time goes on, we decided that it is not good. We must ask these parents to pay the fees and if she didn't want to pay, she must take their details to the lawyer because we don't want to frustrate the children, we don't want to embarrass the children.

Priya: Thank you. We're finished.

APPENDIX 4

OBSERVATION SCHEDULE

OBSERVATION SCHEDULE

Date of observation: 21 June 2004

Teacher: Zama

Subject theme: HIV/AIDS

Activity cycle: FIRST RING

RELATED TO CONTEXTUAL ISSUES	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • child abuse • HIV/AIDS • Nutrition • health care • emotional support issues
DEALS WITH CONTEXTUAL ISSUE BY:	through a story through discussion
Develops leadership skills by:	talking + sharing.
Supports whole child development by:	emotional, cognitive deals with contextually relevant issues.
Brings practical into theme work by:	
Deals with the learners different environments by:	discussing different environments through stories, personal experiences

NOTES - CONTACT SUMMARY SHEET:

- Introducing theme HIV/AIDS
(Poster made by teacher)

- Discussion on what is AIDS, how you get it

- Story about child with AIDS
- focus on nutrition.

emotional support
done with picture flash cards

- most pictures depicting western images, eg. foods not easily accessible to community, byns as a form of exercise, white person in hospital.

* during discussion, one of the female learners noted that you can get AIDS through being raped by a neighbour / abt near!!

Story emphasis on Nutrition, Emotional Support and child abuse in lesson.

Two classes together - 1 class not used to be camera. Children seemed to know a little about AIDS, nutrition + emotional needs.

APPENDIX 5

EXAMPLE OF OBSERVATION TRANSCRIPT

OBSERVATION 3-1

Teacher: *Igama lam ndinguLulama Nxopo umama ka Mhllali, andilindelanga loo nto tu kuwe ke.*

My name is Lulama Nxopo, the mother of Mhllali. I am not expecting that from you.

Into eyenzekayo namhlanje sizakufunda nge-Hiv kunye ne-Aids.

What will happen today is , we are going to learn about HIV & AIDS.

Nakhe naliva elo gama? Hee...ke!

Did you ever hear that name? fine.

Learners: *"Yes!" Misi*

Yes miss.

Teacher: *Nakhe naliva phi elo gama?*

Where did you hear that name?

Learner: *NaseTivini.*

On T.V.

Learner 2: *NaseTivini esibhedlele.*

On T.V. in hospital.

Teacher: *OK! Kuthiwa yintoni I-HIV?*

Okay, what did they say about HIV?

Teacher 2: (Interrupting).

Teacher: *Mamela ke kudliwa ngothethwa nge-Hiv ne Aids.*

Listen now, we used to hear about HIV & AIDS.

La-Hiv ne Aids kuthiwa sisifo esikhoyo esingumbulalazwe, sibulala omncinci umntwana osandulukuzalwa, umntwana ongangawe, sibulala nomntu omkhulu.

That HIV and AIDS is a common disease that killed the nation, kills small babies that are newborn, like you, even kills adult people.

Uyaqo nda! Kudla ngokuthiwa eTivini.

Do you understand? Even on T.V. they used to say that.

Anditsho? Utsho nawe.

Isn't it? Even you are saying that.

Learners: *"Yesi" Misi*
Yes Miss.

Teacher: *Umntu ke ngoku onesi sifo ndingambona njani?*
Ubonakala njani umntu one si-sifo?
How can you identify a person with this disease? How do you see a person who has this disease?

Learners: *Akabonakali nga "niksi" Akaphindathini.*
You cannot see...

Teacher : *Akaphindathini na kwekwe ngoku?*
And what else, son?

Learner : *Esibhedlele.*
In hospital.

Teacher : *Yhoo! Esibhedlele.*
Yes, in hospital.

Learner 2: *Uyakuhlala phaya imini yonke. Mhlawumbi ufile kwa phaya.*
You are going to stay the whole day. Maybe you are going to die there.

Teacher: *Ubulawa sesa sifo?*
Because of that disease?
Ngelinye ixesha esa sifo asimbulali kakhulu, esa sifo ba-khona aba bantu phakathi kwethu nala pha elokishini, abantu abanaso esa sifo baphilile, batyebile, bahle, banxiba kakuhle, nabo bahambe isikolo nje ngathi.
Sometimes, they do not die quickly, there are people in our location that have this disease. Those people are healthy, fat, beautifully dresses, and attend school just like you.
Niyayazi loo nto leyo?
Do you know that?
Yilo nto ke xana umntu ene-Hiv kufuneka nawe umphathe kakuhle.
That is why you should treat a person with HIV nicely.
"Kongxi" umphathe njengomtwana wakowenu. Andithi?
Treat them like your child.
Kufuneka umthande. Andithi?
You have to love them of course.
Umphathe njengomtwanwa wakowenu, Andithi?
Treat them just like your child at home, isn't?

Learner: *Xa kukho imoto umbambe, uthi masambe kweli cala.*
When you see a car you should help him to walk on the safe side.

Teacher: *Hee..ke! Nihambe ecaleni.*
OK, you walk on the pavement.
Mhlawumbi nifuna ukuwela, mhlawumbi kukho Umntu omkhulu ohamba nani nimbambe nihambe naye.
Maybe you want to cross, and there is an adult who is also crossing, & you ask him to help you to cross.
Yile nto abantu aba-gulayo masibaphathe kakuhle ngoku komntwana wethu.
That is why we must treat people who are sick properly, like a young child of ours.

Learner: Mna ndiyamfunqula.
I do hold a sick child.

Teacher: *Umfunqule ke. Yabona!*
You hold them, you see.
Mna ndiyabona umphethe ngolohlobo.
I can see you hold him like this.
Yabona ke esa sifo kudla ngokuthiwa siyasulela.
You see that this disease is infectious.
Nangobana omnye apha the igazi lomnye umntwana mhlawumbi naye usulelekile.
Maybe someone touches some-one else's blood, that person can be infected through the cut.
Andithi une "cut" nalaa mntu une "cut" apha the ela gazi kule "cut" leyaa ingene kulena yakhe akosulele nawe.
If you have a cut, and someone else has a cut, touches it and touches you, you can be infected.
Kuloo nto kubalulekile ukuba ngaba kukho umntwana apha phakathi kwethu uye mhlawumbi wopha wane "cut" kufuneka uhambe uyokuxelelaUbani?
That is why, if one of us has cut and is bleeding you should go and report it... to who?

Learner: "UMisi".
The teacher (miss).

Teacher: Ungakhange ube kanti uyile wayakumphatha ngesandla sakho.
Don't even touch with your hand.
Kodwa ke asi-thi bonke abantwana abameleyo ukopha ba ne Hiv.
We don't say all children who have accidents and blood are HIV positive.
Neee! Kodwa ke kuthiwa ngoku kukho le nto yesi sifo.
But what you must know is this problem of the disease.
Kufuneka singaliphathi neliphina igazi.
Don't touch anyone's blood.
Loo nto ayithi umntu ebene gazi uneHiv.
We don't mean that a person who is bleeding is HIV positive.
Ndithi, andithi wonke umntu onegazi uHiv Neee!
I'm not saying a person who is bleeding is HIV positive.
Kufuneka thina sikwazi ukuzikhusela, singahlali nje.
We should be able to protect ourselves where there is blood.

Learner: *Ewe sihlale sizikhusela.*
Yes, we should protect ourselves.

Teacher: *Ewe sihlale sizikhusela. Uyaqonda!*
Yes, we should protect ourselves. Do you understand that?
Zikhona ipilisi abantu abane Hiv abadla Ngokuzitya.
We do have pills for people with HIV.
Mosi kuthethwa ngoHiv. Andithi?
Yes, we are talking about HIV, isn't it?
Kuphindwe kuthethwe nge-Aids.
And also AIDS.
Uyayazi umntu oneHiv ufana nam, afane nawe Niyayazi loo nto leyo!
A person with HIV looks just like you and me. Do you know that?

Learners: *Ewe.*
Yes.

Teacher: *Kamnandi benithe akabonakali uyafana nam kunye nawe.*
That is good, we have said that a person with HIV is like us.
Ukanti umntu one-Aids akahambi nokuhamba ulele esibhedlele, uyagula nyhani-nyhani.
However, a person with AIDS does not walk, they are sick, and they are in hospital.
Ke lo-wo kukho umehluko phakathi komntu olele esibhedlele.
The one with AIDS is in the hospital, there is a big difference.

Kodwa ke xa kuthe-thwa kuthiwa iHiv neAids.

But when we talk, we say HIV & AIDS.

Xa kuthethwa ngayo nawe "mosi" uzakumamela njee uyazi ukuba bekusithiwani ngayo.

And when they are talking about it, you will listen carefully and know what it is all about.

Aphiwe silapha "moss", OK ibingathi ulele, kodwa uyaqonda wawulivile nawe eli gama.

Aphiwe, we are here, ok, it seems as though you are sleeping, you are aware, you have heard about this name.

Kwakuthethwa ngantoni?

What am I talking about?

Learner: (unclear dialogue...).

Teacher: *OK! kuthwani kubantu abane Hiv? Baphathwa njani?*
How can we treat people who are HIV positive?

Learner: (unclear dialogue...).

Teacher: *OK! Ngobakaloku abantwana abazenzanga.*
Okay, because those infected children did not want to be infected, didn't do it themselves.
Ngelinye ixesha nabantu aba-khulu abazenzanga, mhlawumbi ezi zifo bazelwe nazo emakhaya abazenza-nga.
Even the adult, it is not their fault, maybe they are born with the disease - it is not their fault.
Ikhona iTritmenti etyiwayo ngumntu oHiv ne Aids.
There is a treatment for HIV & AIDS.
Itritment ke zezapi-pilisi adla ngokuzifumana eKliniki, adla ngokuzifumana kwaGqirha, adla ngokuzifumana eKhemisti.
The treatment is the pills that you can get from the clinic or doctor, or even the chemist.
Abanye abayityi-kuyitya la-tritmenti ngobakalo-ku kufumanekisa ukuba akukho sizathu sokuba ayifumane la-tritmenti.
Others don't even take that treatment, because there is not reason to take it.
Ye-na kuye kuthiwe kuye makatye iVeji.
They are told to eat vegetables.
Ngobani abatya iveji apha kuni?
Who here eats vegetables?

Learners: *Ndim Misi.*
I, miss.

Teacher: *Baphilile ke abantu abanjalo, utye iveji noba akunayo iHiv.*
People who eat vegetables are healthy, even if you don't have HIV.
Utye iveji, utye into eluhlaza ikakhulu, kufuneka utye ikhaphetshu ulitye ithanga kuba ndi-yayazi abanye abalithandi ikhaphetshu, abazithandi ezi zinto ndizithethayo.
Eat vegetables, something green, very green, you must eat cabbages, eat pumpkin, I know others don't like cabbage, they don't like what I'm talking about.
Zezi zinto kanye ebekufuneka kanti ube kanti uphillile nyhani.
It is what you are supposed to eat in order to be healthy.

Learner: *Mna xa ndisitya iveji yodwa ndithi mna uMakhulu makandiphinde.*
When I am eating vegetables, I say to my grandmother, I want more.

Teacher: *Uyeva ke lento siyithethayo ngoba kaloku xa esitya iveji ingakumbi ikhero-thi.*
Do you hear what we are saying, if we eat vegetables, especially the carrot.
Uyayibona ikherothi yona imenza amehlo akhe abemhlophe abe "brayi-thi".
Do you see a carrot, it can make your eyes white and bright.
Athi u "Misi" yena noba uyabhala into phaya ayibone msinyane.
When a teacher writes something on the board, you will be able to see it.
Yazi ukuba yintoni na? Yile veji!
Do you know what it is? It's the vegetable.

Learner: *Kufuneka utyiveji qha, ukwazibona.*
You must eat vegetables so that you can see.

Teacher: *Ewe, nyhani-nyhani niyayitya iveji?*
It is true. Do you all eat vegetables?
Kuloo nto abantu sibakhuthaza batye Iveji nhee.
That is why we encourage people to eat vegetables.

Uthi xa umama engayiphekanga iveji ubuze, Mama kutheni ungaliphekanga ikhaphetshu nesipinatshi?

If your mother has not cooked vegetables, you must ask her, why don't you cook cabbage and spinach?

Learner: *Mmm... ndiyamxelela umama andiphekele.*

Mmm... I told her and she cooked for me.

Teacher: *Ibeninzi ntwana wam, uyipheke ibe ninzi ntwanam.*

A lot of vegetables, cook it a lot.

Benditheke, zikhona pilisi ezityiwayo ngabantu abane Hiv, kodwa ke nothi ngabo bonke.

I have said there are pills that are eaten by the HIV positive person, but not all of them.

Aba-nye abayityi-nokuyitya.

Others, they don't even take those pills.

Eza pilisi, omnye mhlawumbi akanayo nendawu Ebuhlungu yena uyitya la tritimenti mlawumbi unentloko.

Others, maybe they don't have pain, they take only if there is pain.

Learner: *Mhlwawunbi ugalele iditoli.*

Maybe you pour Detol.

Teacher: *Uvase ela nxeba lakho nhe, uvase, uvase akugaleli ditoli pha kwela nxeba Lakutshisa.*

You wash a cut with water, you don't pour detol on a cut.

Funeka pha emanzini uthi chatha intwana yeditoli uthathe isipo-nji okanye ilaphu ukline pha kwesasilonda sakho.

You pour Detol in water, take a sponge or cotton, and clean your cut or wound.

Learner: *Kwesa silonda sakho.*

On the wound.

Learner 2: *Kufuneka uthathe ibhandeji usibhandeyije ngoku.*

You must take a bandage and bandage yourself.

Teacher: *Ukwenzela ukuba sibeklini, xana sikhuselekile isilonda siphila msinyane.*

So that the wound becomes clean, when it's clean it heals easily.

Beni-yazi ke loo nto!

Did you know that?

Learner: *Nam ndandinesilonda kule ndawo.*
I had a wound, long ago, here.

Learner 2: *Nam ngokuya ndandihambeBelungwini ndandinesilonda, ndagqiba ndasigaleli-ditoli ndasibhandeja.*
I had a wound when I visited the "whites". I put detol on and bandaged it.

Teacher: *Saphila ke ngoku?*
Did your wound heal?
Kanti la nto yayigalelwa phaya yayingeyoditoli yayibhetha-dini, elayeza lalingathi librawuni lenzelwe ukuba liphile.
What they put on your wound was not Detol, it was Betadine, it is brown, for the wound to heal quicky.

Learner: *Nomadubhula.*
And the dip (another type of anti-septic like Detol).

Teacher: *Umadubhula kaloku yena zizinto ezigalelwa phaya emanzini azigalelwa phaya enxebeni.*
The dips are not meant for wounds, you mix them in water.
Nhe! Ngokuba ndiyazi ukuba naphaya ekhaya niva umadubhula ni-ngaze, nimgalele, phi?
I know at home you hear about the dip, you must never use it...where?

Learner: *Enxebeni (bonke).*
In wounds.

Teacher: *Uyakukutshisa ndiyayazi umntu uzakuba umadubhula ayokuwugalela kwesa si-londa, nanko ekhala ngoku angaxeli ngoku ukuba kwenzeke ntoni.*
It's going to be painfull if you pour it straight on the wound, and you will cry, but I know you won't even tell what you have done.
Athi isilo-nda sam siyaqaqamba.
And then you will say my wound is sore.
Ngelo xesha ugalele ntoni?
What did you use?

Learner: *Umadubhula (bonke).*
(The dip)

Teacher: *Ugalele ntoni?*
What did you use?

Learners: *Umadubhula (bonke).*
The dip.

Teacher: *Mamela ke eza pilisi zityiwa pha ekliniki zeza pilisi kuthiwa zityiwa ngabantu abanesingq, abantu abaneHiv bayazitya ezapilisi, abanye zezapilisi kuthiwa (unclear dialogue...)*

Listen, these pills from the clinic are used by people are HIV positive, other pills are called....

Ayingabo bonke abazityayo ezapilisi.

Not all are taking these pills.

Into eyenzekayo phaya kweza pilisi kufuneka uyokutsho kwagqirha, ugqirha amtshekishe intobana njengokuba kuthiwa lomntu uHiv.

What is happening is that, for those tablets, you must go to the doctor to be examined when they say you are HIV positive.

Ingaba la ntsolongwana iHiv selininzi ka-ngakanani apho kuye emzimbeni. Andithi.

And find out how the virus is spreading in your body.

Umntu unamalungu wakhe omzi-amba nhe, la malungu akukhuselayo.

A person does have blood cells that are protecting your body against diseases.

Ngala malungu omzimba akukhuselayo kwizifo, ngala xana unefiva avele akukhusele mhlawumbi uza kuhlaselwa yi-fiva ingabi sakuhlasela lofiva.

These blood cells are protecting you from diseases like fever, maybe they will protect you from getting sick.

Sithetha ngaloo malungu anjalo emzimbeni.

We are talking about these blood cells in your body.

U-gqirha uyakutshekisha kukho izinto ekuthiwa ziCD4 Khawunti endingayaziyo noba zizakwaziwa na apha.

A doctor checks your CD4 count, (I don't know if they will understand here.)

Ugqirha unayo icg4 khawunti nhe athi okugqiba akhangele la ntsolongwana ukuba ininzi kangakanani apha emzimbeni wakho ukubangaba la ntsolongwana sekuyityakaze umzimba wonke ugqirha uthi ayikho into endinokumenza yona.

The doctor checks your CD4 count to see how much virus is in your body, if the virus is spreading all over your body, there is nothing he can do to help you.

Akazokukwazi ukuyifumana la tritimenti.

That person won't be able to get treatment.

Into eku-funeka uyenze wena kufuneka utye iveji, ungaseli utywala, ungatshayi utsho ugqirha.

What you should do is to eat vegetables, do not drink alcohol, do not smoke, that's what the doctor says.

Learner: *Mna xa ndiphangelayo andizosela tywala, andizokutshaya zoli, andizotshaya niks.*

When I work, I won't drink alcohol or smoke cigarettes, not at all.

Teacher: *Hee..ke uyabona ezo zinto zenzelwa ukuba uphile, sozungaphili ungafika na-kwi-100 years oko koko ko uphila.*

If you don't take these things, you will live to be 100 years old, staying alive.

Ukhe ubabone abatata badala.

Did you ever see those grand fathers.

Anditsho Abazange batshaye abanye, abanye zange basele. Kaloku kuthiwa ke ngoku Umntu uyagula akufunekanga asele, atshaye.

I'm saying never drink alcohol. They say human beings aren't supposed to drink alcohol and smoke.

Utsho ugqirha akakwazi intoku-ba angakunika itritimenti.

The doctor says he cannot give the treatment.

Ugqirha uyakwazi umntu ukumnika itritimenti mhlawumbi lantsolongwana ayikhoninzi phaya emzimbeni wakhe.

The doctor can give the HIV person treatment if the virus is not too much in their body, they can qualify to get the treatment

Yena ufu-manise msinyane ugqirha ubana unalantsolongwana uyibone msinyane.

If you go for the test at an early stage, and the doctor is able to see the virus.

Uku-yibona kwakhe msinyane wathi hayi ke wena unakho ukuyifumana le tritime-nti.

If he diagnoses at an early stage, you can say you qualify for this treatment.

Kodwa la tritimenti nezapilisi zona ayifani nezapilisi zentloko andithi yo-na intloko uyitya xana unentloko mhlawumbi ubuye ekliniki unikwe ezapilisi kuthiwe zitye kathathu ngemini ngugqirha akuphindi ke phofu uzigqibe xa uzi-uzigqibileyo.

That treatment is not like headache pills, that you eat when you have pain. Maybe at the clinic they gave you and they said you must take three times a day.

Into eyenzekayo ezapilisi uzakuzitya ubomi bakho bonke ukuba uzitya ngo-7 kusasa uzakuzitya ngo7 everyday.

This kind of pills you eat through your life, for instance, if you take them at 7 in the morning, you must take them at 7 o'clock every day.

Uyaqonda!

Do you understand?

Learner: *Naxa uzakuya esikolweni useliyeza lakho ugqibe ulivale, ulibeke pha uthathe u-bhaka wakho uye esikolweni.*

Even when you go to school, you drink your medicine, and finish it and close it, and put it away. Then you take your bag and go to school.

Teacher: *Kuloko uqabuka kusithiwa xa ubone ipilisi endlwini noba uyayazi noba akuya-zi akufunekanga uyithathe uyitye ngoba ugqirha akakhange ayinike wena lapi-lisi. Anditsho.*

That is why, when you see pills at home, if you know or don't know what it is for, you are not supposed to eat it because the doctor did not give it to you. Is that not so?

Learner: *Mhlawumbi beyinike wena.*

Maybe he gave them to you.

Teacher: *Ebenike umama wakho, usister wakho okanye usisi wakho, mhlawumbi ubeyi-nike wena, nawe nobana ugqirha beyinike wena, nawe kulindelekile umama wakho akunike la pilisi ungazithatheli.*

Maybe he has given them to your mother or your sister or your brothers wife, maybe he gave them to you. Even if he gave them to you, you are supposed to wait for your mother to give them to you. Do not take them yourself.

Ungathi yhuu limnandi eliyenza khawu-me ndilisele ngoba ukuba ngaba uthe wagula wathi wathi mhlawumbi unefiva wanikwa iyeza lefiva alizosebenza elayenza kuwe lefiva ngokuba usela iyeza ungenafiva, alisebenzi.

Don't say "this medicine is nice", and say let me drink it, because if you do get sick and take the medicine, it will not work because to drank it when you were not sick.

Ubome idisprini uyitye imnandi "mosi" "iswiti" ucimbe yilekese, naku bini unentloko ngoku unikwe idisprini ayisebenzi "mosi" la di-sprini pha kuye.

If you saw a Disprin and eat it because it is sweet and tastey, if you get a headache and are given a Disprin, it won't work.

Uyaqonda. Yima ke ngoku bendithethile kamnandi abantu bangandimamela.

Do you understand. Wait now, I said very nicely and the people were listening.

Ndicela ukubuza apha endi ndizakubuza kanye aba bangandimame-nga.

I'd like to ask a question, and I'll ask those who were not listening.

Ukubanangaba uthe umntu kowabo kukho umntu oneHiv.

You have someone at home who is HIV positive.

Kufuneka sim-phathe njani?

How must you treat them?

Learner: *Kakuhle (bonke).*
Nicely.

Teacher: *Kakuhle, yima ke ndizakubuza umntu abemnye ndifuna siphakamise isandla Andifuni mntu sicule ndifuna ukufumana kanye aba bangandimamelanga Qabu Kuthiwa masimphathe njani umntu oneHiv?*

Nicely, wait, now I'm going to askone by one and raise your hands. I do not want us to hymn, I want to get those who were not listening. Qubuka, how must we treat a person with HIV?

Learner: *Kakuhle.*
Nicely.

Teacher: *Umbona ngantoni umntu oneHiv okanye oneAids.*
How can you identify a person with HIV or AIDS?

Phakama Mandilakhe, yinto-ni esiyibonayo xa kusithiwa umntu uneHiv okanye uneAids?

Stand up, Mandilakhe. What do we see when they say this person has HIV or AIDS?

Learner: *Amadyungu-dyungu esuswini.*
Blisters on the stomach.

Teacher: *Abandawoni la madyungu-dyungu apha kuye?*
Niyabona uthi uwabona nda-woni la madyungu-dyungu apha kye?
Where do we find the blisters exactly? Did you see where he said they are?

Learner: *Esuswini*
The stomach.

Teacher: *Esuswini, niyamva uthini uMandilakhe uthi apha esuswini.*
In the stomach, do you hear, Mandilakhe, in the stomach.
Uyabonake omnye umntu uyakwazi ukutsha atshe ngamanzi omphunga xa uvule iketile, utshiswe pha ngula moya ushushu.
Someone can get burns from hot water or water vapor, when you open the kettle and you are burned by hot vapor.
La moya uyakwazi ukwenza amadyungu-dyungu, loo ayithethi into yokuba xa unela dyungu-dyungu uHiv.
And that water vapor can make blisters, that doesn't mean they are HIV positive.
Hlala phantsi ke kwekwe.
Sit down, boy.
Xa umntu enedyungu-dyungu loo nto ayithethi ukuba uneHiv mhlawumbi la mntu utshe asinaze sitsho la mntu uHiv. Umntu oneHiv akabonakali ufana nam ufana nawe.
If someone has blisters, that doesn't mean they are HIV positive. A person with HIV is just like you and me.
Besitshilo, anditsho!
We did say that, is that right!

Learner: *La mntu abe namadyungu-dyungu nalaph' ebusweni.*
That person has blisters on her face.

Teacher: *Mamela kaloku ngoku.*
Listen now.

Learner: *Nalaph'emzimbeni.*
Even around the body.

Teacher: *Sithetha nge Hiv ngomntu oHiv asithethi ngomntu oneAids.*
We are talking about a person with HIV, not AIDS.
Besithe zinto ezi-mbini ezi,ngumntu oHiv ufana nam ufana nawe, uphillile, umhle, unxiba kaku-hle naye ecaweni naye uzakufota namhlanje kuZisileyo(unclear dialogue...) ndithetha o-njalo umntu oneAids ulala esibhedlele.
We have said these two things. An HIV person is like you and me. He's healthy, dresses smart in church, and he will have a photograph taken today. And AIDS person is in hospital.

Learner: *Akaphindi aye skolweni yena.*
He won't be able to go to school.

Teacher: *Akaphindi aye skolweni yena lowo. Yena uyagula nyhani-nyhani akakwazi tu Akahlali phakathi ngoba nizakumthunuka. Uyaqonda.*
He won't be able to go to school, that one. He is sick and he can't be with us because you are going to disturb him/her. Understand.
Mhlawumbi kunzima Nokuhamba kulaa mntu lowaa.
Maybe he is not able to walk.
Awukho umbuzo enifuna ukundibuza wona?
Are there any questions you would like to ask?
Mhlawumbi khange niwuve kakuhle, mhlawumbi ikhona into endingakhange Ndinixelele yona?
Maybe you have not heard clearly or there is something I have not told you?
Yabona ke ngoku eza pilisi kuthiwa AZT nazo "mosi" ni-Thi nidla ngokuziva eTivini. Eza pilisi zizindidi eziyi-4 kwabanye ibe zindidi Eziyi-3 azifani eza pilisi eziya.
You see then, these pills that are called AZT, you said you heard their name on television. There are four different kinds of these pills, the other three are not the same.
Kukhona ezinye ekuthiwa yi-3d ne-4d. Yabona Ke ezo anizokuzazi mhlawumbi niza kube nizive phaya etivini.
The others are called 3D and 4D. These, you might not know because you have heard them on TV.

Ezinye kuthi-Wayilamavudine. Nazo anizokuzazi nazo zezaphaya kwaAZT. Ayitritmenti Iyi-1 umntu oyifumanayo phaya le.

Others are called Lamavudine. You don't understand, they also come from the AZT group. It is not the only treatment that you can get.

Uyayazi ngelinye ixesha kuthiwe umntu xa eye pha kwagqirha athu gqirha ugaze ulisele iyeza elineParasitamoli, ipa-rasitamoli hlawumbi zipilisi ezifana nePanado.

Sometimes the doctor will say never take pills that contain paracetamol or pills like Ponado.

Learner: *Ukwazi uyisele neParafini.*

Never drink parafin.

Teacher: *Mamela kengoku sithetha ngepilisi namayeza asithethi ngeparafini yee.*

Listen now, we are talking about medicine, not parafin, okay.

Va Into eyenzekayo ugqirha uyakwazi ukunika iyeza, unesi uyakwazi ukunika lyeza kodwa elayeza lingakuncedi kuloo nto kufuneka umxelele umama wa-kho, mama andiphili lefiva ndinayo, mama ndandiye nawe kugqirha wathi u-gqirha kuwe mandingabe ndiphinde ndilisele iyeza elina parasitamoli.

Sometimes a doctor can give you medicine that contains paracetamol, or a nurse and it does not help you, that's why you have to tell your mother if you are not getting better, that the doctor says I must not take medicine that contains paracetamol.

Mama mani khawujonge la bhotile leya yeza lenziwe ngantoni na.

Please, mother, check what that medicine is made of.

Umama uza kuthi xa efunda elayeza afumanise okokuba tyhini kwezinto zibhaliweyo apha ikho-na into ebhalwe parasitamoli.

Your mother reads and finds out it is written on the label, paracetamol.

Tyhini imncedile umama wakhe ke ngoku, uma-ma ubuyela kwagqirha uthi ugqirha hayi khangeni ndiyazi eli lineparasitamoli, aphinde akunike elinye, likuncede ke ngoku.

You helped your mother to check the label, then she can go back to the doctor and he will give your mother another medicine that will help you.

Beniyazi loo nto? Lingabanceda omama benu, niyaqonda.

Did you know that?

Kuyiloo nto nabazali benu xaba sekliniki okanye kwa gqirha balifunde elayeza lenziwe ngantoni na.

That is why your mother should read what a medicine from the doctor or clinic is made of.

Ayikho eminye imibuzo Nomkhitha eninokundibuza yona nawe Sipho?

Do you have any questions, Nomkhitha or Siphoo?

Akho nto banokundibuza yona ngo kuba kaloku nijonge pha ebhodini

They don't have any questions because they are looking at the board.

Learner: *Uphakamisile lo Misi.*

He has raised his hand, miss.

Learner 2: *Kodwa khange undixelele into yesibhedlele*

But you never told me about the hospital.

Teacher: *Eyiphi kaloku pha esibhedlele?*

Which one (what about??) in the hospital?

Kha undixelele yeyiphi lento ufuna ukuyazi pha esibhedlele?

What do you want to know about the hospital?

Yeyiphi sisi ufuna ntoni phaya esibhedlele? Masimlinde.

Which one, girl, what you want at the hospital? Let us wait for her.

Teacher 2: *Xa etsalwa igazi, xa etsalw'igazi pha esibhedlele.*

When they are taking blood in the hospital.

Lithiwani ela gazi?

What are they doing with that blood?

Teacher: *Okey! Ugahlala phantsi yee..va.*

Okay, you can sit down.

Yena uthi khandimxelele into yasesibhedlele, yabona xa upha esibhedlele Mhlawumbi uyagula ugqirha akayazi "mosi" unantoni okanye wena umxelele Ugqirha ukuze ayazi eyona yona nto unayo athi mntwanam ndicela ukutsala igazi, atsale igazi aph'engalweni ngenaliti ayikho buhlungu ke le naliti atsale ela gazi lakho.

She says I have not told her about the hospital. You see, when you are in the hospital, and maybe the doctor doesn't know what is wrong with you, he will ask to draw blood from you with a needle, and test it. It's not painful.

Anditsho. Xa usesibhedlele ugqirha athathe, lingena ebhotileni, incinci ingako, alise pha, ikhona indawo ekuthiwa yi"Leb".

You know if you are in the hospital, the doctor keeps your blood in a bottle, a small one, and takes it to the lab.

I-leb yi-"rhumi" a-pho ekungafanelekanga kungene nokuba ngubani na.

The lab is a room where not everyone is permitted to enter.

Larhumi igcwele amaga-zi abantu litshekishwe intobana yeyiphina le nto (ingatyumunclear dialogue...)??

That room is full of blood in bottles, that need to be checked for what is wrong with them.

Kulapho ugqirha alumke itritimenti, uyade angakwazi ugqirha ukunika itriti-menti engakhange ayazi ukuba ugula yintoni na. Uphendulwe ke ngoku.

It is when a doctor gives you treatment that can't be given if he doesn't know what is wrong with you. Did I answer you now?

Kula-pho kanye, ubuzakundibuza nawe, buzakundibuza ntoni?

It's where you are going to ask me, what are you going to ask?

Learner: *Khange undixelele ngomzimba onekwasa wam, mhlawumbi ubene omm...mm...*

You have not told me about someone who has scabies, ...maybe you have...mmm...

Teacher: *Kaloku eyona nto bendiyizele namhlanje bendizokuthetha nge Hiv neAids be-ndingazokuthetha ngekwasa kodwa ke ndikhake ndikuzame ukuxelela malu-nga nekwasa, uyaqonda.*

I didn't come here today to talk about scabies, I came to talk about HIV and AIDS, but I will try to explain about scabies.

Uyayazi ngelinye ixesha umntwana okugqitywa uva-swa akayingxameli bethuna, niyayenza loo nto umntu ogqityw'uvaswa kokwa-bo ahambe ayodlal'enyhunyhwini.

You know, sometimes when a child s finished taking a bath, they go to play in dirty places like in drainage.

Yhazi phaya enyhunyhwini kukh'amanza' mdaka, pha balahlitsheyimba uyayazi loo nto leyo!

Did you know, in drains there is dirty water, and they pour urine there - did you know that?

Kugqityw'avas'izitya ubo-ne kukorhobha amalaph'endlwini ayolahlw'amanzi pha edreyinini wena uha-mbe uyokudlala kula manzi.

After they wash dishes and clean the floor with water, it is poured into the drain, and you go and play in that dirty water.

Ikwasa ke...
The scabies...

Learner: *Ufake, ngenyawo, ufak'amanz'endlwini.*
You put your foot in the water.

Teacher 2: *Uyokuf'inyawo zakho pha.*
You put your foot in there.

Teacher: *Ikwasa ithi gqi pha isulele abany'abantwana ngoba kaloku wena mosi xa ubo-nayo pha xa ukwelayo kuphum'igazi okanye kuphum'int'encinci yamanzi, incindi qha, le kwasa ibikulo mlenze ingapha, ngoku uyasuka kurhawuzelela ngapha uzokukrwela kulo mlenze ungapha.*

Then the scabies comes as a result of this. Sometimes you scratch one leg and it bleeds or a watery liquid comes out, and then you scratch the other leg with the same hand.

Bethuna le kwasa uyizisa ngapha urhawuzelelwe apha.

Then you transfer the scabies from that leg to this leg.

Uyaqonda la ncindi uyizisa emzimbeni wakho wonke u...endapha une kwasa emzimbeni wonke.

Do you understand, that liquid is spreading through your body, and you end up having scabies on your whole body.

Kuloko kufuneka singadlalini emanzini amdaka, kodwa ke besingekho apho, yaqonda.

That is why we should not play in dirty water, but we were not there.

Yenziwa yiloo nto ikwasa.

That is what causes scabies.

Kufuneka nivase nimkhuthaze umama "before" nilale umntu athini?

We should wash and encourage our mother to wash us before we go to bed, we must what?

Avase, abanye abafuni nokuvasa bayakhala xa bekuthiwa mabavase ebusuku xa bezakulala.

Take a bath. Others don't want to, they are crying when they are asked to bath at night before they go to sleep.

Umama wakho ukuba ngaba unekwasa avase ezampahla zakho azeneke elangeni azi-ayine "before" uzinxibe.

If you have scabies, your mother should wash your clothes, out them in the sun and iron them before you wear them.

Uzinxibe zi-ayiniwe ngokuba xa u-ayinayo iyafa la ntsolongwane le ibangela ubene kwasa. Asisobe siphinde si-hlal'enyhunyhwini mosi, andithi?

Wear them when they are ironed, because if they are ironed, the virus dies, the one which causes scabies.

Learner: *Ewe shiyi nyhunyhu.*
Yes, leave the drainage.

Teacher: *Xa kuthiwa masodlalani sobalekeni, andithi?*
When they say 'let's go and play', we will run, is that so?

Learner : *Ewe soshiyi nyhunyhu, sobe batsho abatshana bathi masihambe siyodlala phaya, ndiyohamba ndiyodlala ehadini, ndigqibe ndivase, ndi-ayine mpa-hla yam.*
Yes, we will leave the drainage, I will never listen to my friends when they say let's go and play, I will play in the yard. When I finish, I will wash and iron my cloths.

Teacher: *Hee..kee! ukanti ukubana ngana nithi nidlala pha neza tshomi zenu nathi masihambeni sovaseni, uthi umama wakho makakuvase ube nhle, itshomi yakho izakufunukuya kweza tshomi ungadlali nayo, ngokuba izakosulela ngoba ayifuni kuvasa, andithi?*

When you are busy playing with your friends and you decide to go and bath, and you tell your mother to wash you and your friends don't want to bath, don't play with them because they are going to infect you because they don't want to wash.

Akunakusulelwa ngumntu omdaka wena.

A dirty person can infect you with diseases.

Nam andisoze ndidlale nomntu omdaka uzandisulela.

I, myself would not play with a dirty person.

Ukhona umntu onombuzo?

Does anyone have a question?

Ndibawela kuthi gqi umbuzoapha kweli cala lingapha, kubuzwa kweli cala lingapha.

I would like someone from this side to ask a question, because they asked from the other side.

Yizani ni "safe".

Come, you are all safe.

Akhonto nifuna ukundibuza yona malunga ngeHiv neAids?

Is there anything you would like to know about HIV and AIDS?

Learner: (unclear dialogue...)

Teacher: *Yintoni enayivayo ngeHiv?*
What do you hear about HIV?
Zange nive nto niks, nasetivini nasewayilesini athe-tha ngaloo nto?
Have you never heard anything on TV or radio about that?
Mamele ke kukhona abantu pha ekliniki mhlawumbi abanye benu bakhe bandibona pha bakhona abantu abahambayo.
Listen, there are people at the clinic, maybe some of you see me there, they are people who go to the clinic.

Learner: (unclear dialogue...).

Teacher: *Okey! Ndandiphangela kule kliniki, phaya ekliniki thina esiyenzayo, abantu Mhlawumbi abagulayo kakhuli abangakwaziyo ukuziyela ekliniki uyokutha tha ipilisi zabo, thina siye sizithathe kule kliniki size nazo apha elokishini si-fike umntu simnike ipilisi zakhe, siphinde sihambe ke ngoku.*
Okay! I used to work at the clinic, maybe there are those who are not able to go to the clinic, they are too sick to fetch their treatment, so they take treatment to them from the clinic to the location and then go back to the clinic.
Uyaqonda ke si-nabo abantu abanjalo? Kuloko ke xa kukho umntu ogulayo kokwabo kufune-ka axele athi ukhona umntu ongaphilanga kokwabo, "endi" yonke sizokwazi ukuya ekliniki sizokwazi thina ukumhambela.
Do you understand that we have people like that? That's why you should report if there is some-one who's sick so that we should know and report it from the clinic and visit him.
Ikhon'enyinto okanye zipheli-le?
Is there anything else or are we finished?
Ndiyathemba ke intobana nivile ngeHiv kunye neAids nhe.
I hope you have all heard about HIV and AIDS.
Nivile ke nyhani ke phofu ngeHiv?
Did you all really hear about HIV?

Learners: *Ewe.*
Yes.

Teacher: *Nivile ke nyhani ngeHiv?*
Did you all hear about HIV?

Learners: *Happy...Misi, Yes Misi.*

- Teacher:** *Okey! Kufuneka simphathe njani umntu oneHiv?*
Okay! How must we treat a person with HIV?
- Learners:** *Kaku....hle.*
Nicely.
- Teacher:** *Okey! Xa ubona igazi komnye mhlawumbi nawe ukweny'klasi.*
Kufuneka Uthini?
Okay! If you see blood and maybe you are in another class, what are you going to do?
- Learner:** *Kufuneka uxelele uMisi wakho.*
You should tell your teacher.
- Teacher:** *He...he...ke! Kodwa ke asithi xa omnye esopha lamntu uHiv, No!*
That's right, but we are not saying that when someone is bleeding, they are HIV positive, no!
Asitsho. Qha ngoku ke kufuneka sihleli nje silumkile sijongile singaliphathi ngesandla Uyaqonda!
We must be careful that we don't touch the blood with your hands, do you understand!
Hayi ke ndiyahamba ke ngoku niziphathe kakuhle. Utye ntoni?
Now, I'm going to treat yourselves nice and eat what?
- Learners:** *I-veji.*
Vegetables.
- Teacher:** *Sitye siyigqibe andithi?*
Eat it all, alright?
- Learner:** *Yeee...si ! Misi.*
Yes, teacher.
- Learner 1:** *Nefruti!*
And fruit!
- Learner 2:** *Ne-apile.*
And apples.
- Teacher:** *Yhu! Niyamva uthini mabethuna.*
Do you all hear what they are saying?
Sisipho niyamva? Uthini Loyiso igazi liya-muncwa.
Sisipho, do you hear? Loyiso is saying you can eat blood.

Ningaze niyenze loo nto leyo. Mamela ke...
You must never do that. Listen now...

Learner: *UBulelani walimunca.*
Bulelani tasted it.

Teacher: *Mamela ke ugalimunca igazi ulala esibhedlele akuphinde ubuye ukhe waya Esibhedlele umunce igazi, ke phofu igazi liyingozi apha kuwe. Andithi?*
Don't taste blood - if you taste blood you will sleep in the hospital and never come back because blood is dangerous. Understand?

Learner: *Lenzaivumba .*
Blood causes a bad smell.

Teacher: *Uyabona uyayazi ke ngoku. Masimqhwabel'izandla uyayazi.*
Do you understand now? Let's clapp hands, he understands.
Hayi ndiyanishiya ke ngoku.
I am leaving you now.

Teacher 2: *Okey. Nithini ke? Okey. Okey ...Nithini kuye?*
Okay, what are you saying now? Okay, okay,...what are you saying to her?

Learner: *Enkosi....!*
Thank you!

Teacher 2: *Into ezakwenzeka ke ngoku nizakuya ezi tafileni, phaya kukho itafile ebi-kiweyo enkulu nhe.*
What is going to happen now is that you are going to the tables - that have been set out.
Phay sizakwenza igroup entsha.
We are going to make a new group.
Abanye bazakuvota kwelaphepha, abanye bakhatishwe ipikitshazi njengokuba benziwe abantu, ogqirha njalo-njalo noba ufuni khadi phaya uzakukhangela kula khabhati noba uyokulincamathisela, abanye bazakupeyinta kwelaphepha nhe.
Others are going to that paper to cut pictures of people, doctors, etc. and if you need a card, you will paste it there.
Others are going to paint on that paper.
Kha uhlale phantsi!
Can you sit down!

Sakwenza loo nto ke.

We are going to do that.

Abanye bazakuya kwezinye itafile kudrowushwe nge-khrayoni abanye ngee-koki, abanye bafake ipeyinti, aba-nye bathathe ipiktshazi.

Others are going to the other table to draw with crayon, others with koki pens, others they are going to use paints, others are going to use pictures.

Ndiyayazi abantu baba ne-intrest, ndiyabazi abanye abazokufuna ukuba mdaka.

I know people have tracksuits, they would like to but they are going to be dirty.

Andiyazi bazakuthi bekutheni ze banxibe ezi-mpahla ngokubana kufuneka kusetyenziwe.

I don't know why they are wearing these clothes because we are going to wor now.

Learner: *(unclear dialogue...) Hayi...Hayi.*
No...no!

Teacher: *Hayi nyhani bendicinga loo nto nam okey.*
No, I was thinking that too, okay.

Learner: *(unclear dialogue...)*

Teacher: *Into ezakwenzeka onke amantombazana azakuphakama athi cwaka.*
Now, all the ladies are going to stand up quietly.