AN EVALUATION OF THE SCHOOL FEEDING PROGRAMME: A CASE STUDY OF

MAGOG PRIMARY SCHOOL

by

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Abstract

This study evaluates the school feeding programme at Magog Primary School. It sets out as its objective to find out how the programme operates and its potential impact on school children, including challenges, if any, and recommends solutions to mitigate the challenges. It was motivated by the need to provide information which could be used as a basis to ensure that the nutritional and educational objectives of the National School Nutritional Programme are achieved.

A review of literature demonstrated that, within the developmental framework, the point of view of civil society, government and the academia on the school feeding programmes are a valuable strategy to intervene in the nutritional and cognitive development of learners. It also made it evident that there are diverse views as to whether the School Feeding Programme is achieving its intended objectives.

The findings of this study suggest that, although the programme has the potential to improve nutrition and health, enrolment, attendance and cognitive development, there are still some challenges and areas that need to be addressed and improved. These challenges arise as a result of lack of effective monitoring and evaluation, geographical location of the schools and other implementation flaws. The consequences are that the objectives of the National School Nutritional Programme are placed at risk.

Declaration

I declare that *An Evaluation of the School Feeding Programme: A Case Study of Magog Primary School* is my own work and that all the sources that I have used or quoted have been acknowledged by means of complete references.

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Signature   Date

Key terms

School Governing Body (SGB)

Governance

Management

Public primary school

Rural primary school

School Nutrition Programme

Cognitive development

Nutrition

Acronyms/Abbreviations

SGB: School Governing Body

PTSA: Parent – Teacher – Student Association

SASA: South African Schools Act

SMT: School Management Team

DOE: Department of Education

PSNP: Provincial School Nutrition Programme

NSNP: National School Nutrition Programme

KZN: KwaZulu Natal

UNHTF: United Nations Hunger Task Force

<u>Definition of terms</u>

In order to assist the reader and avoid ambiguity, various key concepts used in this study are clarified below.

<u>School Governing Body (SGB)</u>

According to Macbeth (1989:128), the *SGB* of a school is the mouthpiece of all the stakeholders involved in the school that makes key decisions about the school's functioning and educational responsibilities. The South African Department of Education (2010:7) regards SGBs as organisations comprising parents, educators, non-educators, learners and co-opted members of the community. This group of people is elected to represent the school and its community and must promote the school's best interests in all its actions and discussions.

<u>Governance</u>

The concept *governance* means setting the course for the school as an organisation through specific objectives, policies and budgets and by checking that such a course is maintained through regular progress reports. In the case of schools, governors as elected representatives of all the stakeholder groups are responsible for setting the direction in which the school will develop and function (Department of Education Eastern Cape, 2005:97).

<u>Management</u>

According to the Manual for School Management (Department of Education Eastern Cape, 2005:36), the concept *management* entails overseeing that things get done efficiently and effectively, in addition to ensuring the stewardship of resources. In a school setting, this involves the active process of putting the plans and intentions of governance into operation. Included in this process is the management of professional educational managers who are responsible for implementing policies and running the day-to-day operations of the school.

Educator

An *educator* is defined as someone who gives intellectual or moral instruction or who provides training in a particular subject (Soanes & Stevenson, 2004:261). The Education Labour Relations Council, in the *Policy Handbook for Educators* (Department of Education, 2003,), defines an *educator* as "any person who teaches, educates or trains other persons at an education institution or assists in rendering education services or education auxiliary services provided by or in an education department." In this study, an educator in a school will refer to a person responsible for teaching or instructing learners, with the purpose of developing their different skills. The educator's task increases in that he or she must also guide learners who demonstrate behavioural instabilities to behave according to the norms and standards set by the stakeholders of the relevant school.

Parent

The South African Schools Act (SASA) (1996) defines a parent or guardian of a learner as the person legally entitled to custody of a learner, or person who undertakes to fulfil the obligations of a person referred as a parent or guardian towards the learner's education at the school.

School Quintiles

All South African public schools are categorised into five groups, called quintiles. These categories are done in relation to the poverty of the community around the school. Quintile one is the poorest quintile, quintile two is the second-poorest quintile, and so on. A school's quintile ranking is important as it determines the amount of funding that it receives each year and whether or not the school can collect fees.

School Nutrition Programme

In this study, the term *School Nutrition Programme* is used interchangeably with the *School Feeding Programme*. The school nutrition programme is implemented in school to provide meals aimed at contributing to quality education and health.

Cognitive Development

According to Reber and Reber (2001:128) and Pintrich and Schunk (2002:20), cognitive development is a representation of mental forces that generate and sustain voluntary action or motivate behaviour. Such forces included but are not limited to conscious goals, needs, perceptions, values, expectations, beliefs, and attitudes. In this study, cognitive development is used to express learner academic performance.

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CHAPTER ONE: ORIENTATION OF THE STUDY

1.1 Introduction and background to the study

The dawn of democracy in South Africa altered the focus of the welfare sector within less than a decade. The country shifted from being nationally divided and exclusive to being united and inclusive while focusing predominantly on the needs, welfare and the right to education of the less privileged among the population (Department of Social Development, 2005). This ushered in the introduction of the Primary School Nutrition Programme in 1994 by the democratic government of South Africa. Subsequent to the introduction of the Primary School Nutrition Programme was the appointment of the Nutrition Committee by the Minister of Health to develop a nutrition strategy for South Africa. The committee, after an extensive review, recommended an Integrated Nutrition Programme (INP) which was geared towards a holistic approach to food provision, distribution and acquisition rather than the fragmented food-based strategy of the past (Child Health Unit, 1997:19).

Seoketsa (2007:28) mentions that the aims of the Primary School Nutrition Programme were to develop the learning ability of school-going children, alleviate poverty and also create women empowerment. To achieve these set objectives the scheme was rolled out in both urban and rural areas in all the nine provinces in the Republic of South Africa. Branca and Ferrari (2002:16) in affirmation of the objectives of the school feeding programme said that it aims to promote quality education by ensuring that children become active when learning, reduce if not eradicate short term hunger, provide food as a means of an incentive for children to attend school regularly and, finally, ensure that the problem of malnutrition is addressed. The school feeding programme has to be implemented across the length and breadth of South Africa to ensure a large coverage of needy learners to achieve its set objectives.

According to Vorley and Corbett (2005:3), the Primary School Nutrition Programme started in 1994 by serving approximately two hundred and five community schools and also nine centres in the residential areas meant for street children. Students from these community schools and centres, totalling about sixty-seven thousand children, were provided with meals for an average

of one hundred and ninety-one days in a year. Vorley and Corbett (2005:3) further emphasised that many of these children enrolled in these schools were marginalised, street children and, worst of all, an estimated forty percent of them were affected by HIV. This brings into focus the significance of a programme such as the school feeding programme and why a study into such a programme is necessary to ensure that its intended objectives are realised.

Accounting for the achievements of the school feeding programme, the Department of Education (2009) states that the outcome of the programme nationwide was outstanding. This was because it was able to provide food for an extra 943 699 school children in quintile one secondary schools, thereby increasing the overall number of learners being fed by the programme to over seven million children. The Department of Education (2009:10) further reported that the school feeding programme improved significantly in ensuring that selected learners in all nine provinces are provided with five cooked meals a week as compared to only three provinces in the past years. According to Sangweni (2008:23), this significant change became possible because the amount of money allocated for a primary school learner was   raised from R 1, 40 in 2008/09 to R 1, 85 in 2009/10.

Another important milestone in the implementation of the school feeding programme was the role of the volunteer food handlers. According to the Department of Education (2009), the number of people who volunteered to handle food increased from 32 904 in 2009 to 39 716 in 2010. Also, the amount of money given to workers who were involved in the school feeding programme by five provinces, namely, the Eastern Cape, KwaZulu-Natal, Limpopo, Mpumalanga and the Western Cape, was increased from R420 in 2008/09 to R522 during the reporting period. Although there are other factors which improve academic performance in the classroom such as quality of teachers, textbooks and infrastructure, Sangweni (2008) believes that school feeding potentially plays a major role in enhancing the educational outcomes of schoolchildren. Lack of nutrition is thus likely to create a vacuum in the process of improving the quality of education in South Africa.

According to Sangweni (2008:16), children who lack some nutrients in their food, especially iron and iodine, and those who are suffering from protein-energy malnutrition, hunger, parasitic infection or other diseases will not have the same chance of being able to learn as compared to their friends who are healthy, strong and well-nourished. Learners who go to school without food will find it very difficult to concentrate and perform their duties in the classroom. This can potentially lead to an increase in the drop-out rates of school-going children if not addressed.

Afoakwa (2008:28) also mentions that the problem of poverty, food insecurity and malnutrition is on the increase in developing countries especially sub-Saharan Africa, and South Africa is not an exception when it comes specifically to its rural communities. Consistent with this view, Buhl (2011:21) states that food is often not enough for the poor at home and most schools in developing countries do not have canteens and cafeterias where food can be bought or served. School feeding programmes are a convenient means by which important nutrients can be provided for needy children in schools. Ensuring that school children have food to eat helps them to concentrate more in class than when they are hungry. Del Rosso (1999: 28) indicated that nutritional status and health maintain a strong positive impact on a child's educational outcome in school. Therefore, the school feeding programme is well placed to address these challenges.

The Department of Health (2007:12) mentions that the immediate causes of malnutrition are linked with lack of dietary intake, stress, trauma and disease. These underlying causes of malnutrition are associated with the levels of household food security, maternal and child care, education and information, as well as health services and the environment. According to the Child Health Unit (1997:43), infectious diseases constitute one of the key factors contributing to child malnutrition and malnutrition makes a child more prone to these infectious diseases. Thus, it affects learner school attendance and academic performance. It is within this context that the Integrated Nutrition Programme (INP) is implemented as an integral part of the primary health care strategy and at the different levels of health management structures. According to the Burch (2000) the Integrated Nutrition Programme is required to prevent and manage malnutrition to, among others, reduce mortality and infectious diseases. The Integrated Nutrition Programme also facilitates and coordinates the inter-sectoral approach to solving nutrition problems in South Africa. The Bill of Rights is a cornerstone of democracy in South Africa; it enshrines the rights

of all schoolchildren in the country and affirms democratic values (South African Constitution, 1996). It is therefore significant from the perspective that every child in school has a right to sufficient food and proper nutrition in South Africa, and ought to benefit from educational programmes.

1.2 Statement of the problem

The emergence of a new democratic South Africa as a result of the collapse of the regime of apartheid created high hopes for many South Africans living in poverty. Poverty in South Africa is high and has affected some people more than others (Phogole, 2010). According to Phogole (2010) poverty is a condition which is associated with lack of basic needs such as water, healthcare and food, sufficient access to social and economic services and few opportunities for formal income generation. Poverty denies children the right to primary healthcare, basic education, adequate nutrition and safe water and sanitation (UNICEF, 2007). Poverty is one of the world's greatest enemies threatening the peace and security of our nations.

Sachs (2005) mentions that, more than eight million people around the world die each year because they are too poor to stay alive. According to Statistics South Africa (2009), a survey in South Africa as per population group shows that the black African population was the most affected with 60.9%, followed by coloureds with 32.9%, and 7.3% and 1.2% for Indians and whites respectively. When poverty hits a family, the vulnerable members such as children become its immediate victims. Since the early stages of life are critical to the physical, intellectual and emotional development of an individual, poverty can prove to be a serious issue for life. A study conducted by the Labadarios et al (2005) found that 21.6% of children between the ages of one and six had stunted growth and3.6% were severely malnourished or wasted. Another study by Gonzalez (2013) reported that 2.5 million children go hungry each year in Johannesburg and in Limpopo; this number translate to 4%. Early childhood diseases and especially those caused by HIV infection, to a greater extent are worse if a child has a low level of nutrition.

The alarming problem of poverty, hunger and malnutrition in South Africa has a rippling effect on the development of children who are the future generation of this country. The nutritional inadequacies have impacted negatively on a number of school going children and the quality of education provided in the country. According to Grantham-McGregor (2005:18), the problems of education are especially severe for learners from an impoverished and economically disadvantaged background. Grantham-McGregor (2005) went on to say that where learner malnutrition is very high, there is a possibility of the country experiencing high drop-out rates. On the account of the above discussion, Cook and Karen (2009) conclude that hungry children do more poorly in school and achieve poorly in academic work because they are not properly prepared for school and cannot concentrate. Cook and Karen (2009) further said that hungry children are involved in more social and behavioural problems because they have less energy to engage in complex social interactions and cannot also adapt to environmental stress.

It is clear that countries including South Africa are paying and will continue to pay for the consequences of poverty, hunger and malnutrition. Eradicating child malnutrition is an investment that cannot be over emphasised if countries are to raise the human capital needed for nation building. A school feeding programme is one of the programmes implemented in a number of countries, including South Africa, in an effort primarily to improve school attendance and academic performance in education through improved learner nutrition and health.

Notwithstanding the objectives of the school feeding programme, it seems the implementation of the programme is facing a number of challenges. According to Mbusi (2005), this programme by government to reduce hunger and potentially improve learner performance has badly been beset with challenges. Mbusi (2005) further reiterated that although the programme was intended to help poor children and empower women, it now serves to enrich those who are involved in its implementation. It is, therefore, the intention of this study to evaluate the potential impact of school feeding on learners in Magog Primary School. It also aims to test the effectiveness of the programme to potentially improve the children's ability to learn, attract them to school and determine how these achievements can be linked to the broader development objectives of poverty eradication.

1.3 Rationale for the study

Education is critical in terms of global and national issues; it is therefore compelling to evaluate the school feeding programme to find out whether it is achieving its intended objectives and also identify if there are any challenges that it is facing. First and foremost, the findings will add to the existing body of knowledge on the potential impact, if any, of school feeding at Magog Primary School. It will also assist researchers and students in further studies on the same subject.

Secondly, the type of information that will be gathered from this study will be necessary for planning, budgeting and resource allocation of the school feeding programmes in schools that are in similar situations. The recommendations and findings from the study will also assist in improving the planning and implementation of the feeding programme in schools with similar situations. Above all, since the issue of access to quality education is of utmost importance to government and civil society, the information gathered in this study will also be of immense value to government departments, non-governmental organisations (NGOs), health care institutions, promotion agencies and officials of the school feeding programmes.

1.4 Research aim

The aim of this study was to evaluate the potential impact of school feeding programme on learners at Magog Primary School in Port Shepstone Education District in KwaZulu-Natal, with specific focus on school attendance and learner achievement and performance.

1.5 Research objectives

The specific objectives set out to achieve the aim of the study were as follows:
- ❖ to explore the South African school feeding programme as it is understood and applied;
- ❖ to determine the potential impact of school feeding on school attendance and learner academic achievement in Magog Primary School;
- ❖ to determine the role and function of government and other stakeholders in the school feeding programme at Magog Primary School;

- ❖ to determine the relationship between school feeding and its potential impact on the nutrition and health of learners in Magog Primary School;
- ❖ to identify the challenges, if any, of the school feeding programme, particularly at Magog Primary School; and
- ❖ to provide some findings and make recommendations to mitigate the challenges, if any, of the school feeding programme at Magog Primary School.

1.6 Description of the study area

The proposed study will be confined to Magog Primary School. This school is situated on the South Coast in the Province of Kwa-Zulu Natal. It is a rural area thirty kilometres from the closest town of Hibberdene. Magog Primary School is located in the Umzumbe Local Municipality and it is within the Ugu District Municipality (DC21). It is the largest municipality within the district in terms of the geographic area coverage (Umzumbe Local Municipality, 2009/2010). According to South Africa Community Survey (2007:18-21) the Umzumbe Local Municipality is an administrative area in the Ugu District of KwaZulu-Natal in South Africa. The municipality was named after the Umzumbe River.

Incomes levels in Umzumbe are very low, and reflect a situation of acute impoverishment with almost 60% of all households having an income of less than R500 per month (South Africa Community Survey, 2007). Households rely for survival on pensions and other welfare grants, migrant remittances, informal earnings and casual employment wages (Umzumbe Local Municipality, 2009/2010). The levels of poverty have impacted negatively on the provision of food by families. Learners in this area are faced with insufficient food provision as a result of the levels of poverty evident among households. The effect of the poor economic and nutritional conditions have negatively affected learners both health and academic wise. These challenges manifest themselves in learners' growth, attendance and attention in schools.

The South Africa Community Survey (2007) indicates that the total population within Umzumbe Municipality has been estimated at 176, 287 persons which covers up to 25% of the District. The ward population is 9155 people calculated on the average. The most striking physical feature is the extensive undeveloped, natural land which represents almost 60% of the total land area.

Agriculture is the mainstay of the economy with the main activities being sugar cane and small scale farming, as well as small businesses. The table below shows the proportion of each race in the municipality and in Magog.

Table 1.1: Population by race in Umzumbe and Magog

Municipality	Black	Coloured	Asian	White	Total Population
Umzumbe	178,975	49	62	109	179,638
Magog	1454	26	-	-	1480

Source: Stats SA 2009

It is evident in Table 1.1 that there is higher concentration of blacks than other racial groups. The distribution shows that 1,480 are from population that was historically disadvantaged by apartheid in Magog as compared to 178 975 in the municipality. The distribution of these population groups emphasises the need for the municipality to be actively involved in programmes for the redressing of imbalances, particularly with regard to economic development, infrastructure, housing, food security and social services. The school feeding programme is one of the programmes that is being undertaken to address the problem of hunger among learners in Magog Primary School.

1.6.1 Socio-economic analysis of the study area

The situation in the Umzumbe Municipality has had a negative impact on the population living in and around Magog. According to the SA Community Survey (2007), this has led to an increase in the levels of the social and economic ills afflicting the people in Magog such as unemployment, low income and diseases. This has led most of the people living in this area into abject poverty. By implication, children in Magog Primary School suffer these effects and therefore do not attend school and if they do, it becomes difficult for them to concentrate due to hunger. The level of education in the Umzumbe Municipality especially in the rural areas needs much improvement.

Figure 1.1 below shows the percentage distribution of educational levels in the Umzumbe Municipality in 2007.
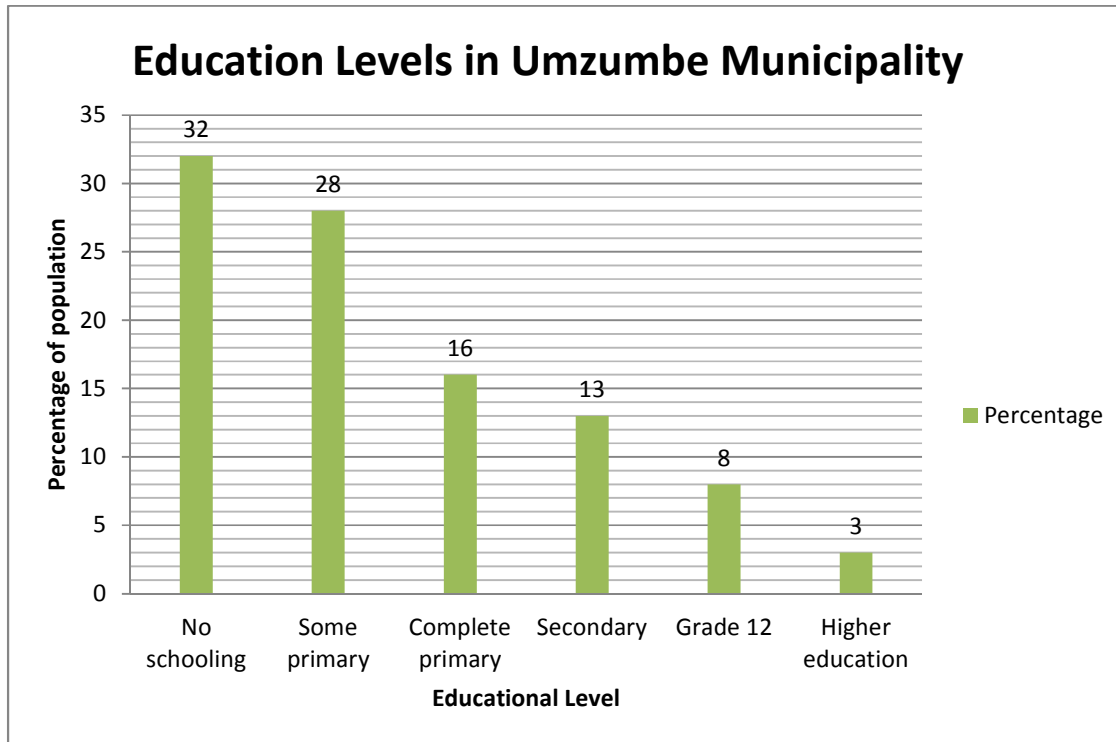
Figure 1.1: Education Levels in Umzumbe Municipality
Source: SA, Community Survey, 2007

Approximately 32% of the school going age population in Umzumbe does not go to school as shown by figure 1.1. It is estimated that 28% of young people are in primary school and only 16% of them have completed primary education in the Umzumbe Municipality. Also 13% are accounted for at secondary level and those that have enrolled in Grade 12 are approximately 8%. Magog Primary School has a standard building structure with enough classrooms to cater for its school children right from grades one to seven, but it lacks facilities such as canteens, fridges and storage space to facilitate the implementation of the school feeding programme. In Magog, the figure below shows the percentage distribution of children attending school in 2007.
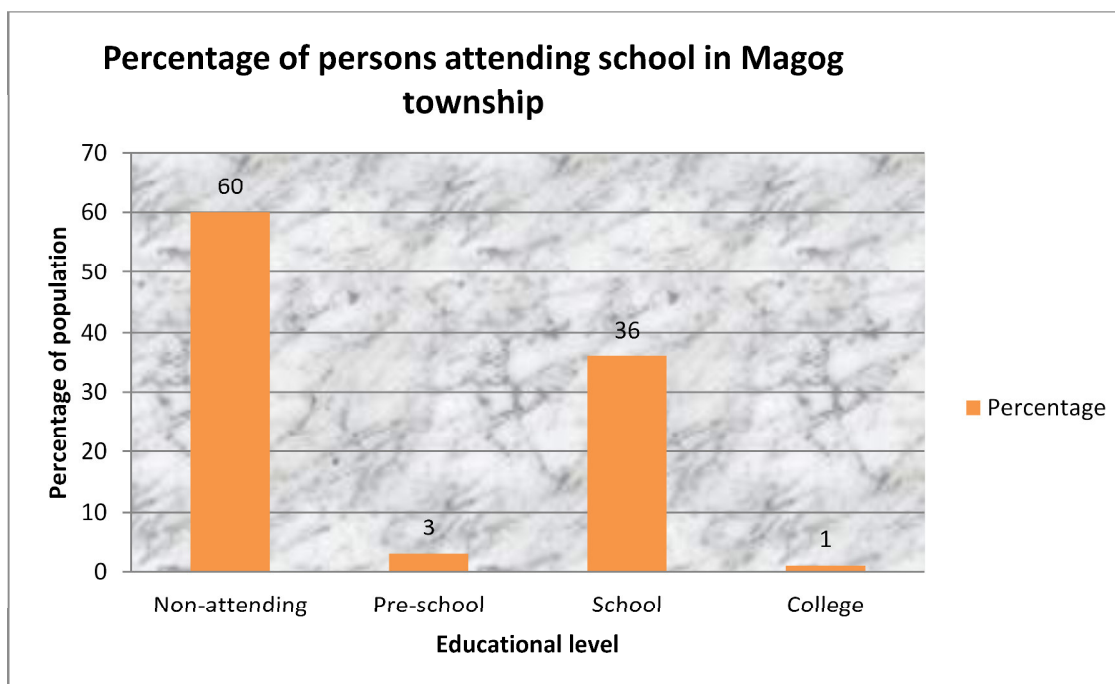
Figure 1.2: Percentage of persons attending school in Magog Township
Source: SA, Community Survey 2007

Figure 1.2 above indicates that 60% are not attending school with only 3% in pre-school. Thirty-six percent are in primary and high school with a minute 1% in colleges. The shortage of skills is identified as a challenge for economic growth. It has been argued that a large number of the population is unskilled. This contributes greatly to the unemployment situation in and around Magog where learners of Magog Primary School originate. The rate of unemployment remains very high in the Umzumbe Municipality leading to high levels of poverty. The table below shows the percentage distribution of unemployment in the Umzumbe Municipality.

Table 1.2: Percentage distribution of employment in the Umzumbe Municipality

Employed	28%
Unemployed	72%

Source: SA, Community Survey, 2007

Table 1.2 above indicates that the percentage of unemployed people in Umzumbe is 72% (South Africa Community Survey, 2007). Unemployment increases levels of inequality and poverty within Umzumbe communities. The high levels of unemployment are to blame for the limited and irregular household income, and inadequate levels of education and training. The situation of unemployment is even worse in Magog. The table below shows the percentage distribution of employment in Magog.

Table 1.3: Employment Distribution in Magog

Not applicable	-	Unemployed	24%
Not economically active	62%	Employed	14%

Source: SA Census, 2001

Table 1.3 shows that approximately 14% of the people are employed, 24% are unemployed and 62% are economically not active. This implies that learners from Magog Primary School come from a poor background. The provision of the feeding programme is therefore an important component of learners' upliftment. The high rate of unemployment has resulted in a record low annual household income in and around Magog in the Umzumbe Municipality. The figure below shows the percentage annual household income in the Umzumbe Municipality in 2007.
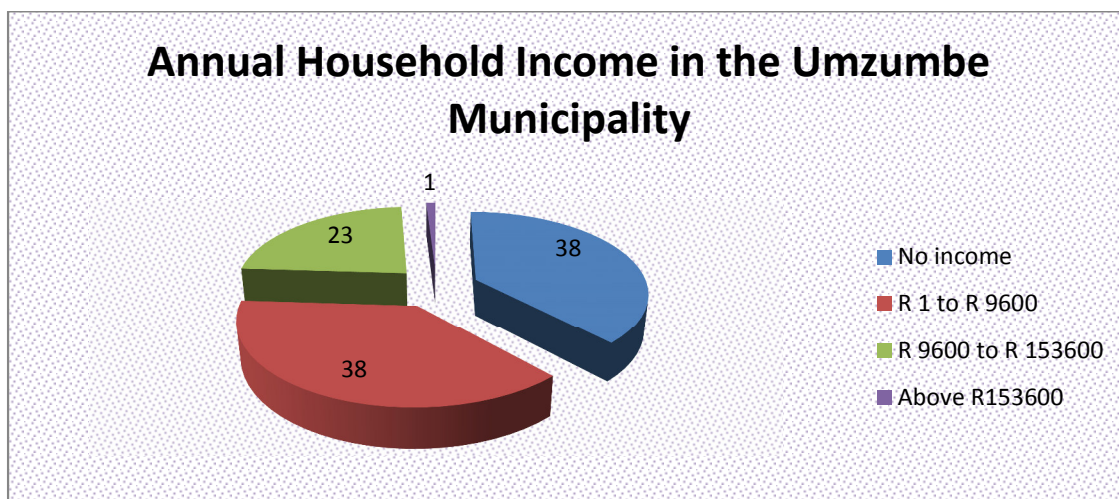
Figure 1.3: Annual Household Income in the Umzumbe Municipality
Source: SA Community Survey, 2007

Figure 1.3 indicates that 38% of non-economically active population poses particularly serious challenges on how to provide affordable and sustainable services. This shows that there is a high percentage of the people living in the Umzumbe Municipality who cannot afford basic services like food water and shelter. In order to highlight the levels of poverty, the figure below shows the percentage annual household income specifically in Magog where the research was conducted.

Annual Household Income in Magog

- No income
- R 1 to R 9600
- R 9600 to R 153600
- Above R 153600
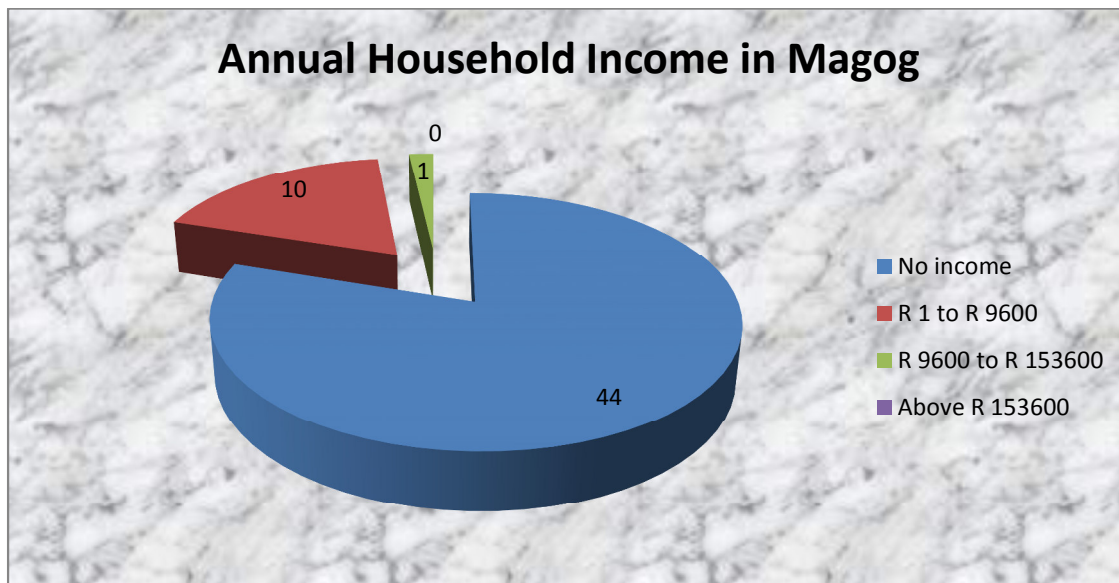
Figure 1.4: Annual Household Income in Magog
Source: SA, Community Survey, 2007

In Magog, 44% of the population live without an income with only 10% receiving between R1 and R 9 600. This is an indication that parents in Magog will find it difficult to ensure that basic necessities such as food are provided. The consequence is that learners at Magog Primary School are likely to go to school on an empty stomach.

1.7 Scope of the study

The scope of this study was restricted to sampled learners in grades six (6) and seven (7) and all teachers in Magog Primary School in the Port Shepstone Education District. These grades were chosen for their ability to express their views on the subject of the study.

1.8 Limitations of the study

The research had the following limitations: firstly, the identified participants were not fully accessible due to time constraint. Owing to the fact that the schools is located in a rural area, some participants were usually locked in meetings (staff or departmental) or attending classes. That made it difficult for the researcher to be given sufficient time during data collection session.

Secondly, there was a slight element of mistrust by some participants to the researcher. Some participants initially perceived the study not to be a pure academic undertaking but a work-related activity. The researcher assured the respondents that it is purely an academic exercise and no one will be penalised for the responses given. In light of this, participants were fully relaxed, calm and therefore gave all the relevant information needed (Cohen et al, 2007:156).

Thirdly, the empirical research findings were restricted to the Magog Primary School geographic area of the Port Shepstone Education District. Also, learner academic performance depends not only on the school feeding programme but a number of other variables such as the quality of teaching and learning, motivation and support from family and proper school infrastructure. There is, thus, the need for caution to be taken when generalising the findings of the study.

Lastly, the results of the empirical investigation only drew a picture of the potential impact of the school feeding on school attendance, learner academic performance and health at Magog Primary School at a time when the study was conducted. It is not known how stable their perceptions, attitudes and understanding were and whether they would change during the course of the coming years.

1.9 Conclusion

The preceding chapter gives a brief but concise introduction and background to the study. Here it looks at the reasons that necessitated the introduction of the school feeding programme. The problem statement and the rationale of the study were also explained in detail citing the research aim and the specific objectives that led the researcher to achieve the aim of the study. Lastly, the

socio-economic background of the study area was digested to readers the economic, employment and educational situation of Magog and why a study of this nature is necessary.

1.10 Chapter outlines

This study comprises six chapters:

Chapter one introduces the study with a brief description of the background which summed up the motivation for the study. It also provides the aims and objectives, the theoretical framework, ethical measures, the organisation of the study and a brief summary.

Chapter two consists of a literature review, and involves an in-depth study of current literature on school feeding.

Chapter three is an extension of the literature review and explores the case of school feeding in the context of South Africa. It reviews the introduction and implementation including challenges of the programme both in apartheid and democratic South Africa.

Chapter four presents a detailed account of the research design. It includes the methods and procedures used in sampling, the collection of data, and an analysis of the data collected.

Chapter five focuses on the findings and the interpretation of the study on grounds of the analysis of the data collected and the literature studied.

Chapter six presents a summary of the study, conclusions, recommendations and areas for further research.

CHAPTER TWO: LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Introduction

The preceding chapter provided a general orientation of the study, including the main problem statement. To understand the school feeding programme, an overview of the available studies on the school feeding programme is necessary. This chapter reflects on the historical background of the school feeding programme and the rationale behind it. It also reflects on the different phases that the programme has undergone till present and how it has been operationally institutionalised.

Further, this chapter discusses school feeding, nutrition and development in South Africa. It also explores relevant literature on the relationship between school feeding, nutrition and cognitive development, including how they are to some extent tied to broader development challenges and solutions. This is because school feeding is to a great extent associated with nutrition and cognitive development of school-going children in general and is, therefore, necessary especially to those children from poor backgrounds. The introduction of the School feeding programme in South Africa will be an important component of this discussion, including how it is operationalised. This chapter also comments on the key challenges affecting the implementation of the programme. Lastly, there will be a conclusion in which a summary of the key issues discussed will be highlighted.

2.2 Historical background of the school feeding programme

The existence of poverty and the increasing rate of food insecurity including demands for development, require that school feeding should be an integral part of policies in every country in the world. According to Richter et al (2000:16), a school feeding programme is part of the liberal, non-formal education sector and therefore should be free from detailed national control. These freedoms have strong ties to the non-profit sector and make school feeding programmes a force of societal change. School feeding was introduced in a number of European countries to ensure positive growth of their people and to reduce nutrition deficiencies.

It has its origins in the 1930s when the programme was introduced in the United Kingdom (UK) and in the United States (US). It was done with the explicit objective of improving the physical growth of children (Richter *et al*., 2000:16). For instance, in the United Kingdom a programme that subsidised milk for school children was initiated in 1934 and milk was provided free from 1944 onwards (Baker *et al*, 1978). In the late 1960s and early 1970s this benefit was withdrawn from all except for those children considered to be particularly needy.

Gunderson (2011:11) pointed out how the United States of America established the National School Lunch Act, which was passed by Congress in 1948 and how it is the legislative forerunner of all child nutrition programmes in existence today. The Act signed into law by President Truman in 1946 brought into being the National School Lunch Programme. This act was established to provide assistance to the United States of America in the establishment, maintenance, operation, and expansion of school lunch programmes, and for other purposes. Gunderson (2011:15) further states that the programme is hereby declared to be the policy of Congress, as a measure of national security to safeguard the health and well-being of the children in the United States of America. It also encouraged domestic consumption of nutritious agricultural commodities and other food. The United States Department of Agriculture (2003:12) states that, in pursuant of this Act, the Department of Agriculture provides states within America with general and special cash assistance and donations of foods. These provisions help schools in serving children with nutritious lunches each school day.

According to the World Food Programme (2005), the United Nations as part of its effort to alleviate hunger first commenced food assistance to community schools in the Lusaka District of Zambia in January 2003, with Project Concern International (PCI) as the implementing partner. Furthermore, World Food Programme (2005) writes that school feeding programmes were scaled up to reach five million more children and their families in seventeen countries namely: Bangladesh, Benin, Burundi, the Central African Republic, Ghana, Guinea, Guinea-Bissau, Haiti, Kenya, Liberia, Mozambique, Nicaragua, the Occupied Palestinian Territory, Pakistan, Senegal, Sierra Leone and Tajikistan. This expansion was affirmed by the World Bank (2009) in their study which indicated that low-income countries are expanding school feeding programmes because these programmes help push them closer to reaching the Millennium Development

Goals (MDGs). The realisation becomes evident when the school feeding programme draws more children, especially young girls, into the classroom. The ambition of all nations in the United Nations (UN) to address the challenges of poverty and hunger resulted in the formulation of the United Nations (2009) Millennium Development Goals. In the formulation of the MDGs, attention has been paid to hunger and poverty as stated in MDG number 1: which is to eradicate extreme hunger and poverty with its sub-goal being that, by the year 2015, the proportion of people who suffer from hunger will be halved as compared to 1990 (UNICEF, 2005:16).

School feeding programmes are said to contribute to achieving this first Millennium Development Goal. The programme supports school-going children with the acquisition of required education. This expands their opportunities in life thereby saving them from the poverty trap and hunger. The realisation of this goal has led to various forms of support from civil society and the international community. The United Nations Hunger Task Force (UNHTF) has made seven recommendations on how to achieve the first MDG. These are stated in their report "Halving Hunger, it can be done" (Sanchez, 2005). One of the strategies identified by the UNHTF to achieve this goal is the implementation of school feeding programmes with locally produced food rather than imported food.

The UNHTF especially recommends comprehensive community and school-based feeding programmes that include not only school feeding, but also systematic de-worming, micronutrient supplementation, take-home rations, safe cooking facilities, clean drinking water, and improved sanitation. To a large extent, all these ingredients taken together provide a good platform for improving the performance of school children, keeping children healthy and engaging the community (UNICEF, 2005:12). The United Nations (1949) and the International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights (1966) recognise the right to food as a component of an adequate standard of living. The International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights in particular requires that state parties undertake individually, and through international co-operation, to institute measures, including specific programmes, to improve access to food. The right to food security is also recognised in the Copenhagen Declaration on Social Development (1995) which affirms its support for the progress and security of people and communities

whereby every member of society is enabled to satisfy his or her basic human needs and to realise his or her personal dignity, safety and creativity.

Although governments play a major role in ensuring that the rights of individual citizens are adhered to, in the context of South Africa there is no expectation from civil society, national government and international organisations that it should be the responsibility of the state. It is in this vain that Afoakwa (2008) advocates school nutrition programmes to be the responsibility of both the government and civil society. But the researcher emphasised that government's funds are instrumental in providing a guaranteed and constant source of financial support, especially to programmes that are just being rolled out. Also, according to the Food and Agriculture Organisation (2009), the Declaration of the World Food Summit in 1996 by the International Alliance against Hunger recognised the urgent need to reinforce the efforts of all concerned partners as an international alliance against hunger to realise the objectives of the summit. This implies that a concerted effort from civil society, the private and the public sector, is ideal for the realisation of the objectives of the school feeding programme.

In its contribution to the significance of the feeding programme, UNESCO (2002:16) states that school feeding programmes contribute to all six "Education for All" campaigns contained in the Dakar Framework for Action (2000) and also included in the Comprehensive Africa Agriculture Development Programme (2003) adopted by the New Partnership for Africa's Development (NEPAD, 2003:34). To realise the objectives of the "Education for All', something must be done to attract children into the classroom. School feeding programme serves to attract children to school and retain them for the period within which they will be there (UNICEF, 2007). Vidar (2005:9) emphasised that the Food and Agricultural Organisation's (FAO) Constitution sets out the purpose in its preamble, as "raising levels of nutrition and standards of living and thus ensuring humanity is free from hunger." FAO views the right to food as central to its mandate. The right to food under international law implies that the means of production or procurement of food in sufficient quantity and quality must be free from adverse substances and should be accepted culturally (ICESCR 1966, Article 11). The individuals should make it a point to fulfil this right on their own or in collaboration with other community members. This right irrespective of race, religion, sex, language, political opinion and other status should be enjoyed by all.

2.3 Potential impact of school feeding on nutrition and cognitive development

Education is a driving force for economic, social, and political development and prosperity. It creates chances and avenues for people to reduce poverty, inequality and diseases. Kallman (2005:11) states that education creates a dynamic workforce and well-informed citizens that are able to compete and participate in the global economy. With the changing nature of the global economy, particularly in the wake of the twenty-first century, education has become a significant factor in creating economic and social opportunities geared towards prosperity. It has become an important aspect of any sustainable development initiative such as the empowerment of women, equity and gender equality (World Food Programme, 2006).

It is reasonable to note that what people can positively achieve is influenced by economic, political, social opportunities and enabling conditions of good health, basic education and the encouragement opportunities in the form of cultivation of initiatives (Sen, 1995:5). School feeding programmes are generally said to have two major impacts. The first includes the improvement of the nutritional status of school-going children and the reduction of malnutrition rates. Fumbar (2007:5) in his study on school feeding programme stated that protein, which is an important part of food that is essential for growth and maintenance, improved among schoolchildren from 12% to 28%, while fat content improved from 14% to 24%, crude fibre from 0.5% to 0.85 and carbohydrate from 4.4% to 50.7%.

According to Lamis et al (2010:6) and Hall et al (2001:8), in South Africa soup containing iron and vitamin C was given to 350 schools in an area of low socio-economic development on the Cape Peninsula. Results showed that initially 12% of six to seven year olds and 20% of eight to twelve year old children had low weight-for-age, and 49% and 31% had low deficiency in iron respectively. After 15 weeks of intervention, the iron status improved significantly, falling from 49% to 28% among six to seven year old children and 31% to 21% among eight to twelve year old children. The provision of soup to these learners potentially helped to improve the general level of their nutrition and health. This will also possibly increase their chances of high educational achievement if it translates into increased attendance and concentration in the classroom. The second major impact of the school feeding programme includes the improvement of school enrolment, school attendance and cognitive performance (Ahmed, 2004:32). According

to Kazianga et al (2009:13) and the World Food Programme (2006:33), school feeding programme also recorded an enrolment increase of 0.6% in boys and 5.6% in girls in villages that received school meals. The outcome of their study pointed to areas of improvement such as hours of concentration, regular attendance at school, high performance and alleviating hunger.

Buhl (2011:80) agrees with the above when he mentions that a total of 147 182 schoolchildren in most of the conflict-affected countries in sub-Saharan Africa are benefitting from the World Food Programme-assisted feeding programmes. Attendance in these schools increased to 94% in 2007/2008 compared to 88% in 2005/2006. Bundy et al (2006:16) state that the most obvious benefits of school feeding programmes are significant in terms of education outcomes and economic returns. These authors are of the opinion that school nutrition programmes can potentially increase Intelligent Quotient (IQ) levels by 4-6 points and school participation by 10%. These significant increases in educational outcomes have the potential spinoff of reducing poverty and disease and also increase the possibility of employment of these students in future.

It is of utmost importance that the school feeding programme is extended to cover a vast majority of school children in South Africa. According to Wilderman and Mbebetho (2005), there is a school of thought which argues that the expansion of the school feeding programme indicates that, as long as the present poverty and unemployment conditions exist, school feeding would remain significant and should be prioritised. Although much progress is desired, researchers believe that the programme has preventative value and should be supported irrespective of the costs and other equally important resources. In the absence of other more comprehensive programmes that would realise children's right to nutrition, the school feeding programme is the only programme that is explicitly directed to address the problems surrounding children's rights to basic nutrition, thus enhancing their cognitive development (Brand, 2005:114).

Cognitive perspectives seek to explain how our thoughts influence our day-to-day performance. Uncomfortable with the idea that cognitive development is shaped completely by environmental consequences (behaviourist approach) and unconscious forces (psychoanalytic approach) as opined by Baker (2014), Bruce (2004) is of the view that cognitive development theorists agree that a healthy body impacts positively on the function of perceptions, beliefs, attitudes,

expectations, values, needs, and other mental cognitions. Thus, Marinda et al (2007) confirms the benefits of school nutrition programmes and cites food as a key motivating factor in school attendance. This supports Maslow's (1970:3) theory of human motivation based on a hierarchy of needs. The need at the lowest level of the hierarchy is the physiological which includes hunger and thirst, and must be satisfied. Nutrition which is a basic human need, therefore, remains fundamental to human development and learning.

According to the South African Medical Research Council (2008:25), "Adequate nutrition is a basic human right and is very instrumental for the development of an individual's full physical and intellectual potential". Branca and Ferrari (2002:8) also document that a healthy child should therefore be defined as, "one who is going to be a fit and healthy adult with low chances for chronic diseases, enough capacity for physical work and reproductive performance". When food is provided in schools, the nutritional status of poor learners who would not have had a meal at home is significantly improved, leading to healthy and fit children. This improves their physical and reproductive performance in the future.

UNICEF (2009:6) reveals that one third of the developing world's children suffer from protein-energy malnutrition. An estimated 250 000 children a year lose their eyesight because of lack of vitamin A. UNICEF (2009) further mentions that at least 50 million children have impaired development because of lack of iodine. School nutrition programmes have, therefore, taken centre stage in global development discourses in recent times to address the issues relating to malnutrition and health of schoolchildren. The idea of school feeding programmes is thus the right approach in providing school children with the requisite nutrients needed for their daily tasks. According to Barbaran and Richter (2001), the National Iodine Deficiency Disorders Survey in 1998 states that among primary school children in South Africa, the mandatory iodation of food grade salt has dramatically improved the conditions of iodine and goitre among children in South Africa. It found that learners in 89,4 % of school feeding primary schools surveyed have a normal iodine status which implies that they are no longer under the risk of going blind and can attend school without any setbacks.

According to Potterton and Dawjee (2004:9) long distances that children walk to school can exacerbate the already appalling level of hunger and nutrition. The level of hunger among these learners is likely to rise after walking a long distance to and from school. Providing breakfast to these disadvantaged learners can help alleviate short-term hunger and improve their attendance at school. In South Africa where a high rate of stunting has been identified, it is important that children should have adequate energy and protein intake (Kruger and Badenhorst, 1996:15). The school feeding programme is a powerful tool for alleviating day-to-day hunger while providing the child with the requisite energy to carry on his or her daily activities. In support of these ideas, the World Food Programme (2005:25) research and experience show that when food is provided at school, hunger is immediately alleviated and school attendance often doubles within a year.

In establishing the link between enrolment, attendance and cognitive development, Russell and Nobuntu (2005:17) studied the effects of a school milk programme on scholastic progress over a two-year period among 4,133 "undernourished" learners between the ages of six and sixteen. Over the period of the study, 45% of the children receiving milk improved their performance as compared to 24% who did not receive milk. In line with this view, Olney (2006:7) found that children receiving breakfast potentially improved in tests of working memory and sustained attention. The children's classroom behaviour improved and those who had breakfast were less off-task and showed more class participation and positive peer interaction. According to the Department of Health (2007:32), children who come to school hungry have diminished attentiveness. There is a greater likelihood of these children becoming distracted and developing a lack of interest in learning, resulting in failure, low achievement and repetition (Department of Health, 2007:32). Even if there is a balance between the quality of teaching and the child's ability to learn, the actual time spent on the task is probably far less due to hunger.

Asbridge and Veugelers (2008:24) in support of the above, quote a study which found that school feeding led to improved achievement in English and, when combined with a programme to develop parent-teacher partnerships, also improved achievement in mathematics. When cognitive development is improved due to high enrolment and attendance as a result of a school feeding programme, learners become constructive and contributing future citizens who are not bound by social ills such as diseases, unemployment and poverty. This implies that they are set

free to achieve their fullest potential in life which benefits them as individuals and their society as a whole.

In support of this view, Sen (1995:16) presents five distinct freedoms which are associated with education: political freedoms, economic facilities, social opportunities, transparency guarantees and protective security. Each of these freedoms increases the general capability of a person and interacts to reinforce the achievements of other freedoms. They promote basic human or substantive freedoms that include elementary capabilities like being literate and being free from undernourishment. Furthermore, Sen (1995:36) is of the opinion that the expansions of these freedoms are viewed not only as the "principal means" but also as the "primary ends" of development. Sen (1995) reiterates that freedom depends on certain determinants which include facilities for education and health care. School feeding is of greater importance and remains one of the determinants in the realisation of quality education and good health.

Finally, the provision of food at school provides the basis for bridging the gap between the enrolment of boys and girls at school (World Food Programme, 2005). This results also in the empowerment of the girl-children when they have been marginalised, leading to the attainment of their freedom and being able to break away from the poverty trap. Moreover, education, especially girls' education, has a direct and proven impact on the goals related to child and reproductive health and environmental sustainability (Bastia, 2007:31). According to the Department of Education (2010), basic education provides girls and women with an understanding of basic health, nutrition and family planning, giving them the choices and the power to make their own choices regarding their own lives and bodies. The Department of Education (2010) further mentions that women's education directly leads to better reproductive health, improved family health and economic growth, not only for their immediate families but also for the society in which they live. It also helps to minimise the rate of child mortality, malnutrition and also becomes instrumental in the fight against the spread of HIV & AIDS.

Ensuring that boys and girls complete primary schooling is the target of the second Millennium Development Goal which is achieving Universal Primary Education. This to a greater extent is facilitated by the school feeding programme. To date, the developing world has made great

strides in reaching that goal. According to the United Nations (2009) Millennium Development Goal Report, there was progress in universal primary enrolment from 83% in 2000 to 88% in 2007 in developing countries. Also, according to the World Bank (2009), the World Development Indicators show that enrolment levels for Sub-Saharan Africa rose from 58% in 2000 to 74% in 2007. School feeding is mentioned as one of the significant catalysts which facilitated the attainment of the Millennium Development Goal mentioned above.

Building the capacity of a community requires that both human and social capital should be strengthened. Human capital comprises individuals' skills and knowledge and can be created through educational opportunities. Education of women and girls is significant in ensuring the empowerment of women and gender equality as reiterated in the MDGs. Ahmed and Del Ninno (2002:23) writes that the school feeding programme increased girls' enrolment in feeding programme schools by 44 percent and boys' enrolment by 28 percent in 2001, while in non-feeding schools, enrolment increased by two and a half percent during the same period.

The school feeding programme as one of its intended objectives aims to ensure that a girl-child grows up to be a woman who can identify and articulate her own needs and interests. The ability and possibility to negotiate her needs and interests will become more clear and transparent. The girl-child when an adult will realise she can stand up for the conscious struggle against injustice and discrimination, and she can demand her legal right for equal opportunity especially for education, health services, political participation and property. The realisation of all these achievements enumerated above can be improved and sustained if the school feeding programme is given the necessary support and prioritised. The achievements of the school feeding programme as discussed above have not come about without setbacks. The following discussion highlights some of the bottlenecks that have occurred in the implementation of the school feeding programme.

2.4 Challenges in the implementation of the school feeding programme

The Ministerial Review Committee Report as reported by Buch (2000) indicates that the school feeding programme in South Africa is faced with challenges. The committee comments on challenges such as the role-players sharing different interests and the School Governing Body

(SGB) members lacking capacity, knowledge and necessary skills, especially in the black communities which were disadvantaged during the apartheid era. Consistent with this report, Mabasa and Themane (2002) indicate that most developing countries are struggling with stakeholders' participation in the school feeding programme because of time constraints and lack of knowledge.

The findings of Greenhalgh et al (2007:13) indicate that the United Kingdom school feeding programme faced challenges in performing its duties such as participation in decision-making during the drafting of school policies. It also showed that lack of capacity, knowledge and skills, failure to conduct a good SGB meetings and difficulties in understanding the School Act due to the language used was of a challenge. In a similar vein, Wallace (2001) pointed out that the United States school feeding programme has a problem with involving learner representation during drafting of important school policies, but they prefer learners to make decisions on issues like waste recycling and maintenance of the school grounds and buildings.

Sallis (1998:21) indicated that New Zealand is characterised by "sham participation" because the decisions are still taken at the national level of government, and at the school level SGBs have to put a rubber stamp to those decisions. Sumra (1997) concludes that, in African countries like Tanzania and South Africa, school feeding programmes are faced with challenges due to their historical background which contributed to SGB members failing to encourage parental involvement in all the activities of the school feeding programme. These have resulted in a number of interrelated challenges among which are:

❖ While there are 22 approved meal plans, many providers have chosen "cold" menu plans that don't require cooking facilities. These menu plans have the tendency of not meeting the nutrient content as set out by the Department of Education.

❖ Parents' talk of food disappearing from schools and, in some cases, there has been corruption and theft by people providing the food.

❖ In many cases there is no accountability to the parent body.

The following section will discuss further the underlying causes of the challenges of the school feeding programme in South Africa. Governance and management play a major role in the smooth running of a school and the programmes that are being implemented thereof. Department

of Education (1997) defines governance and management as "governance is *the representative of the community within the school which has to create a vision, mission statement, to formulate policies, rules of the school and take decisions about the improvement of the school*" while management *"is the team that is concerned with the day-to-day running of the school"*. This serves as a guide to make sure that the school feeding programme and teaching and learning are effective and efficient, and to make sure that the plans of the SGB are implemented within the guidelines of the policies and rules. The main aim of managers and governors of the school feeding programme is to balance both governance and management (Department of Education, 2011-2012). It is also to make sure that there is a good culture of feeding, teaching and learning and to enhance an effective day-to-day functioning of the school (Beckmann & Visser, 1999).

Pretorius and Lemmer (1998:21) argue that governance and management cannot be separated because they aim to provide efficient and effective functioning of the school and to enhance the culture of teaching and learning, including other programmes such as the school feeding programme. In other words, the quality and objectives of the school feeding programme will be achieved when all stakeholders are involved, such as educators, parents, learners and members of the communities. Squelch (2001) in his findings indicates a problem regarding a balance between the governance and management issues at the schools. He said that the managers and governors are failing to share their roles and responsibilities because of the conflicting interests among themselves.

Heystek (2006:308) pointed out that effective school feeding will be attained if the school (School Management Team) and community (parents) engage in effective and transparent building of a strong relationship and trust for each other. Mestry (2004:127) also added that most educationists find it difficult to differentiate between governance and management because of their overlapping roles and responsibilities. In other words, maintaining a balance between the School Governing Body (SGB) and the School Management Team (SMT) remains a problem because both stakeholders need determination in balancing their roles and responsibilities, sharing common goals and striving to accomplish unity and stability together. Joubert (2011:63) concludes that both managers and governors are faced with challenges to fulfil their roles as stated Department of Education (1996) because the idea of governors being responsible for the

internal organisation of a school is impossible because training courses, hand-outs, packs, videos and booklets given to governors fail to capacitate them properly to execute their duties. Adding strength to the challenges of the school feeding programme, Mabasa and Themane (2002:112) point out a few challenges that SGBs are faced with, such as SGBs do not get proper training before assuming their studies. While they were conducting their research, they observed that SGBs are unfamiliar with meeting proceedings and the language used in their meetings. They also identified challenges in coping with administration issues, as well as failure to participate in the taking of important decisions. There is lack of knowledge of various legislation and they are also being intimidated by those who are knowledgeable and thus allow them to make decisions instead of them all participating in collective decision-making.

Addressing some of these issues, Joubert (2011) suggests that SGBs need certain competencies before they are able to govern their schools and to develop and improve their capacity and knowledge about the school feeding programme as part of educational governance of the schools. Therefore, school governors need training based on decision-making. This is because parents and educators in especially black communities do not have much experience of participatory decision-making (Van der Berg, 2008:19). Heystek (2006:478) in support of this view indicates that these abilities required by school governors are dependent on their educational background, especially the literacy level of governors.

Outside the issues of governance and management are other critical challenges of the school feeding programme that need to be highlighted. The World Food Programme (2008:9) also identified challenges of the school feeding programme and reported that the sustainability of school feeding programmes is questionable because of their high costs. The report went further to say that the average cost per student for the development of a school feeding programme in 2000 was $0.19 per day or $34 for 180 days of the school year. In addition, school feeding programmes are labour-intensive and require skilled human resources to operate. They further concluded that the cost involved in the operationalisation of the school feeding programme may not be affordable to most African governments, thus Ministers of Education cannot offer school feeding programmes at the expense of other equally important educational inputs such as health and the provision of water and sanitation.

Although the school feeding programmes have been widely implemented in both developed and developing countries, there remains much to be desired with regard to the strategy, monitoring and evaluation of these programmes. As mentioned earlier, Del Rosso (1999:16) is of the opinion that the school feeding programmes have gained a reputation over the years for being "expensive, riddled with implementation problems which makes them not effective in meeting health, nutrition or educational objectives". Vidar (2003:43) also pointed out serious implementation problems concerning poor learner coverage, the lack of good data, and the absence of a national nutritional surveillance system, leakage of funding and monitoring and evaluation of nutrition programmes which are not effective. Also, commenting on the issue of learner coverage in terms of the school feeding, Wilderman and Mbebetho (2005:3) were of the view that the coverage of the school feeding programme was limited to some schools instead of being implemented in all the schools, especially in the rural areas of South Africa. Ensuring that the programme covers all the children who qualify to be fed has been a major challenge to the implementation of the school feeding programme. According to the Child Health Unit (1997), the target number of beneficiary learners has never been reached. The ratio of those benefiting to the target of the programme has ranged between 80% and 89% since its introduction.

In reviewing the coverage of programme further, Wilderman and Mbebetho (2005) mention that South African researchers are divided about the policy value of the school feeding programme. There are roughly speaking two "camps": those who would like to limit the scope and size of the school feeding programme and those who would like to see an expanded programme. The former regards the school feeding programme as an exclusive feeding programme with insufficient fiscal space for other vital aspects of an integrated nutrition strategy while the later believes that the school feeding scheme should be complemented with other programmes like de-worming and nutrition education. This lack of balance between school feeding and broader socio-medical interventions is believed to reduce the overall effectiveness of the school feeding programme.

In every aspect of the implementation of any programme, there should be proper monitoring and evaluation policies to ensure the effectiveness of the programme. In accordance with this assertion, Shaw (2001:41) comments on the fact that one of the major difficulties facing the

school feeding programme is internal monitoring and evaluation which has been mandatory since the inception of the school feeding programme. This has led to the tendency of implementing organisations such as the Department of Education to focus more on keeping proper records of accounts rather than focusing on the benefits to the recipients which in this case are the learners. Del Rosso (1999) in support of this argument stated that providing healthy meals in schools requires that continuous assessment be done to ensure nutritional adequacy. Monitoring and evaluation if strengthened ensures that food is secured and the quantities which are allocated for learners are delivered exactly in their required size, shape and quality.

The purchase, transportation and delivery of foodstuff require a high level of security measures to ensure a continuous supply, delivery and running of the school feeding programme. Consistent with this view, Zachritz (2004) suggests that the biggest challenge of the school feeding programme is the issue of security. Security in all spheres of life is critical. The security measures surrounding the transportation and warehousing of the food are necessary to avoid theft, mismanagement and misappropriation. Tomlinson (2007:15) mentioned in his study that a number of evaluations of the school feeding programme have been carried out in South Africa by the Child Health Unit. While praising its achievements, they outlined a number of significant weaknesses in the programme. These include, among others, the vertical school feeding programme which means that food is provided in isolation rather than as a comprehensive nutritional programme.

Again, administrative and management difficulties related to corruption and quality of food were also cited as a weakness of the feeding programme. The beneficiaries of the programme are sometimes underfed, fed with poor quality food or miss some days of feeding. Tomlinson (2007: 15) is of the opinion that these difficulties have made the proposed impact of the school feeding programme on the nutritional status of school going children unlikely. Management of funds, logistics and delivery of a quality food supply have come under immense criticism in the implementation of the school feeding programme. Carien (2009) claims that a renewed focus on fraud, corruption and "leakages" in government contracts in programmes such school feeding will form part of government's cost-saving measures. Greyling (2011), an Independent Democrat Chief Whip and Member of Parliament said "*Children should not be made to go hungry just*

because the African National Congress (ANC) run government cannot manage its finances". Greyling further said that he was shocked at the recent development by the Eastern Cape Education Department to suspend their school feeding scheme due to lack of funding. He says, "It is incomprehensible to the Independent Democrats that poor and needy children in school, many of whom are relying on the meal that is provided at their school for their daily nutritional intake, are being made to suffer because of mismanagement of the provincial education department". This decision will have a devastating impact on thousands of schoolchildren who are already battling to gain quality education due to the appalling state of schools in that province.

Again, Afoakwa (2008:22) opines that "The major challenges on institutional feeding given to schools are on issues relating to price, availability of food commodities, logistics and non-payment or delayed release of grants for feeding by government". Furthermore, Daabu (2009) in support of this challenge writes that "out of the R48 461.53 required for the school feeding programme, only R13 076.92 was approved by the government". The availability of funds to run this programme is an important issue because when there is lack or delayed funds to buy foodstuff and to pay food handlers, the school feeding programme is likely to encounter serious problems if not to come to a halt. Vorley and Corbett (2005:3) enumerated some of the challenges faced by the Project Concern International (NGO) in implementing school feeding programme such as: increased workload, monitoring and evaluation, food management and availability of water. They further explained that many schools find it difficult to turn away students and this puts an enormous strain on the physical school capacity such as space in the classrooms and class size. This also creates an additional workload for the teachers which may adversely affect the quality of teaching, learning and record keeping.

Adding to the above challenges, Jackson and Eade (1987:40) wrote that just making the necessary arrangement to get the food to the right place at the right time is a major challenge and to use it as a tool to develop school children brings another complex set of difficulties that are not easy to overcome. In conclusion, the study by Zine (2007:12) found in his study that 61% of beneficiary schools did not have good kitchen structures and 78% did not have adequate stocks of kitchenware, especially plates and cups. Also, he found that 28% did not have toilet facilities,

while 87% lacked hand washing facilities. The unavailability of these structures poses a challenge to the food handlers and teachers. This leaves them with no choice other than to cook below the quantity required or be late in serving food to these learners. The rippling effect is that an enormous amount of instructional time is lost which leaves teachers in a position of not being able to complete their syllabuses.

2.5 Conclusions

This chapter described the historical background of the school feeding programme, emphasising the rationale for the implementation of the programme globally and in South Africa in particular. This section also commented on school nutrition and development in South Africa where literature on the impact on malnutrition and cognitive development was discussed. This part of the chapter also discussed the challenges of the school feeding programme ranging from funding to corruption, transportation to logistics and human resource capacity to quantity and quality of food delivered. The next chapter discusses the school feeding and nutritional programme in the context of South Africa.

CHAPTER THREE: SCHOOL FEEDING AND NUTRITIONAL PROGRAMME IN SOUTH AFRICA

3.1 Introduction

This chapter deals specifically with the case of school feeding in the context of South Africa. It discusses the introduction and implementation of the school feeding programme both in apartheid and democratic South Africa. This chapter also explains how the school feeding programme is operationalised in South Africa where the roles of government and other stakeholders are highlighted.

3.2 School feeding in apartheid and democratic South Africa

School feeding was introduced to South Africa with a programme to supply free milk to white and coloured schools in the early 1940s. Bennett (2003:16) distinguishes between five types of school feeding programmes according to their different objectives:

- ❖ School feeding as an emergency intervention;
- ❖ School feeding as a developmental intervention to aid recovery;
- ❖ School feeding as a nutritional intervention;
- ❖ School feeding to improve child cognitive development; and
- ❖ School feeding as a measure to ensure short-and long-term food security.

While the categories above are not mutually exclusive, they help to illustrate how school feeding programmes are dependent on their context and timing, as well as showing how some school feeding programmes have evolved historically. A nation's ability to nurture its resources for development is greatly dependant on the quality of human capital available (Department of Education, 2009:12). This implies that the cognitive and mental development of undernourished children when known to be inadequate or delayed can potentially affect their school performance and by extension their contribution to society.

The first evidence of attempts to meet the nutritional requirements of poor urban children in South Africa can be traced to the efforts of charitable organisations during the twentieth century. As early as 1916 the Transvaal Provincial Council's Executive Committee decided to make funds

available to feed needy children. By 1939/40 the Transvaal's total expenditure on these programmes amounted to R18 000. This had risen to R31 000 by 1940/41 (Cillie Commission Report, 1951:3; and Moll, 1991:3). Other programmes of this kind were the state-aided milk and cheese programme, the dried fruit programme and the citrus programme to deliver oranges to schools which also cost R37 000 in 1937. As earlier mentioned, good nutrition is a key factor in contributing to learner attendance and performance at school, especially for orphans and vulnerable children and children living with HIV/AIDS. Various studies and educators in schools attest to the fact that learners look more alert and participate better in class after a meal. Labadarios et al (2005:28) in agreement with this view report of a recent national survey conducted among South African children between the ages of one to nine which revealed that in 2005, about 64% had inadequate vitamin A status and 13.7% severe vitamin A deficiency. Additionally, 27.9% had low haemoglobin (Hb) status while 45.3% were zinc deficient. The researchers confirmed that these deficiencies caused a downward trend in the academic attainments of these individuals.

As part of a broader initiative to modernise social policy in South Africa, the Smit Report (1942:5-6) emphasised the problem of poverty and came up with the extensive degree of malnutrition among the 'Non-European' and poor-white population, pointing at the political consequences of allowing such a situation to go unattended. Amongst other measures to address that situation, it advised large-scale nutritional education and communal feeding programmes and suggested that the Government pays fifty percent of the net costs of approved programmes for the provision of free or partly free meals, whether such programmes are carried out by provincial, local or voluntary agencies (Smit Report, 1942:5-6). The then Minister of Finance, Jan Hofmeyr, who was known for his disagreement with the policy of segregation, announced in the budget speech that the government has to supply not less than a meal a day to children going to school, irrespective of their race or colour. Despite problems in implementing the programme, Hofmeyr once again showed the strongest commitment to the programme in 1945 when he stated that he considered it to be very important that the country does everything in its power to have this programme rolled out properly (Cillie Commission Report, 1951:31-38).

The first report of the National Nutritional Council on the progress of the school feeding programme was published in 1944. Approximately a million school children were covered within this period. Among these 322 000 were classified white; 485 000 African and 175 000 were Indian and coloured (Moll, 1991:4). There were great challenges in the implementation of the programme due to the lack of planning and extensive research (Moll, 1991:14). According to Kallaway (1996:23), by 1947 the programme properly kicked off with the appointment of local people as organisers of 'native' school feeding programme. Also local school feeding committees were established and appropriate control measures and procedures were put in place. At this time an annual expenditure of over two million rand was made available for school feeding in South Africa (SA, Institute of Race Relations, 1950:43).

In 1951 the Report of the Commission of Inquiry into school feeding (the Cillie Commission) was made public. One of the issues raised was that "consultation had been inadequate" (Cillie Commission Report, 1951:78). The commission further said that the national school feeding programme which was introduced into South Africa was without adequate systematic preparation while making reference to the mishandling of the school feeding programme. Despite these criticisms the project emerged from the investigation with every reason to expect that it would be continued on a more business-like basis (Cillie Commission Report, 1951:32). In spite of all these bottlenecks, the programme was clearly providing an essential social service, as the Cillie Commission recognised in its report of 1951. Aside from being critical of the programme, the Cillie Commission argued that all information available pointed to the fact that the level of under-nutrition in South Africa is of such a nature that more comprehensive and active steps should be taken to push up the level of nutritional status of the population (Cillie Commission Report, 1951:3).

The impact of the policies of apartheid on school feeding cannot be over-emphasised. Despite the tradition of racism and segregation in South Africa and the National Party's hostility while in opposition, such policies were also successfully launched by the United Party government by 1948. From January 1951 local school feeding committees were discontinued and school feeding, where it still survived in South Africa, became the responsibility of the principal, teachers, parent committee and local charity organisations (Kallaway, 1996:43). According to

Moll (1991:6), although school milk for whites, coloureds and Indians was still provided, the amount of state funding to African school feeding dropped greatly by 1953 due to lack of forward planning and research. During the period of 1957 to 1958 when all state-funded programmes were finally terminated, the total expenditure by the government had reached R870 000 (Kallaway, 1996:9). As a result of the termination of funding by the government, the responsibility of charitable organisations in terms of the number of children they had to feed increased. From 1958 to 1959, the number of children that were fed daily by African Children's Feeding Programme in Johannesburg, for example, had risen from 5 000 to 12 000 (Kallaway, 1996:17).

When state funding discontinued in the Western Cape, the Cape Flats Distress Association (CAFDA), the Students' Health and Welfare Centers Organization (SHAWCO) and the Peninsula School-Feeding Programme (PSFP) took over. Elsewhere in the country, several similar programmes flourished (Kallaway, 1996:10). In the 1980s and 1990s charitable and non-governmental organisations such as Operation Hunger and Ithuba also became involved in this sphere (Florencio, 2001). School feeding, in the context of apartheid-South Africa, was thus largely left in the hands of charitable organisations, NGOs and semi-business organisations such as Ithuba. These NGOs and other charitable organisations were moved by the objective of alleviating poverty and improving the health of children through nutrition. Driven largely by initiatives of the African National Congress, the policy of the Government of National Unity identified the area of school feeding as a policy of prime concern from March 1994 due to the levels of poverty and its implication on the education of especially poor black South Africans.

The situation prompted an immediate action, the establishment of the Primary School Nutrition Programme (PSNP) as the lead project after a specific intervention by President Mandela and the Reconstruction and Development Programme with the primary objective of improving the nutritional status of school children and their educational outcomes (Kallaway, 1996:14). Despite the deliberate attempts of the Primary School Nutrition Programme in the early days not to rely on the role of NGOs for delivery, this policy was not wholly carried out in practice. Areas such as the Western Cape continued to depend heavily on traditional NGO networks (Florencio,

2001). Elsewhere in the country delivery was on tenders to big business, and later numerous efforts were made to decentralize and incorporate small contractors (Kallaway, 1996:15).

The above resulted in a sharp disapproval from the NGO sector, which had a strong track record in the area of providing food to school-going children. By 1996 signs showed that the programme was under immense pressure. A number of accounts of corruption and the breakdown of the service indicated that all was not well with this needed initiative (Kallaway, 1996:15). The Committee of Enquiry into the Native School Feeding Programme (Union of South Africa 1949) was justified in its response to the rising costs and alleged malpractices. Notwithstanding the challenges, there was a clear realisation of the need for the feeding programme and therefore a special emphasis was put on addressing educational inequalities among historically disadvantaged groups such as the youth, the disabled, adults, and women, unemployed and rural communities in the new South Africa (Child Health Unit, 1997:4).

In 1996, the Department of Education (DOE) released the Education White Paper 2 based on the school organisation, governance and funding framework that indicates how the new school governance framework would be implemented in public schools. This resulted in the formulation of the South African Schools Act (No.84 of 1996) (SASA). According to the Department of Education (1996), SASA is a framework that aims to solve issues such as access to quality education, the redress of past challenges and the promotion of equity and democratic governance within the schooling system. This gave support to the National School Nutrition Programme which is a presidential initiative led by the African National Congress (ANC) to eradicate the nutritional inadequacies of the past. Wilderman and Mbebetho (2005) state that the provision of basic education in favourable social and economic circumstances is a complex matter. The level of complexity increases when basic education has to be delivered to individuals who struggle with the additional burden of poverty and hunger.

Due to the unemployment rate, children in South African have found themselves in glaring poverty. Poverty is defined by the World Bank (2008) as the inability to attain a minimum standard of living. In South Africa, poverty levels within the age group of 15-24 years are at around 28%, and are 24% for the age group 25-34. While the highest burden of poverty is on the

elderly (47%), child and youth-headed households were also found to be especially contributing to decreased standards of living (World Bank, 2008). The youth of South Africa is not homogenous, owing to the history and other characteristics such as gender, race and geographic location; hence it is important to break down the numbers of unemployed in order to derive an understanding of the problem. Figure 3.1 below shows the percentage distribution of people living in poverty per province in South Africa as published in the Government Gazette No. 883 on the 26th September 2007.
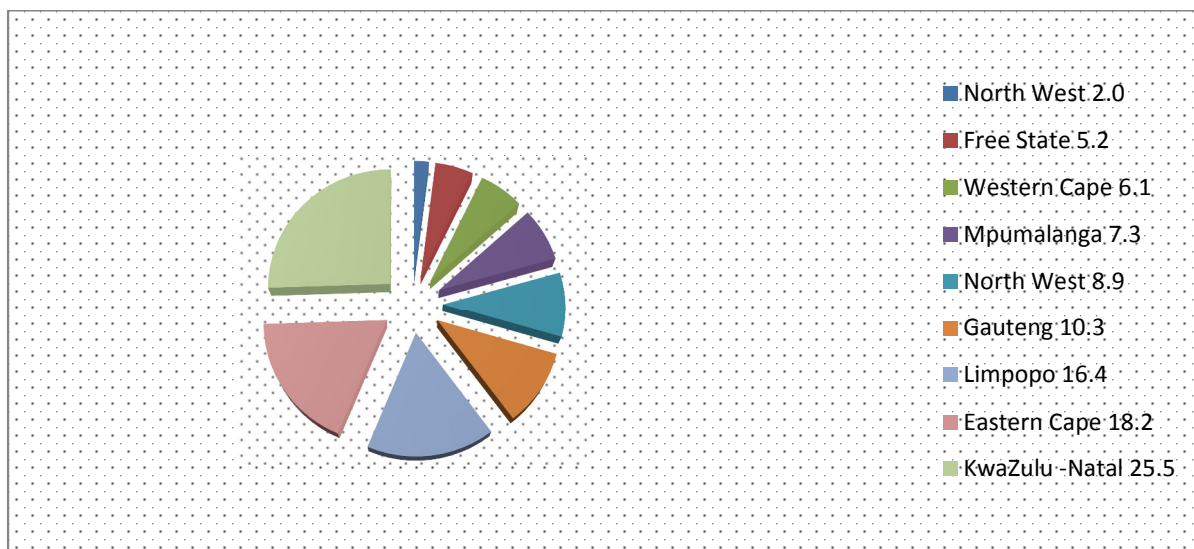
Figure 3.1: People living in poverty per province in South Africa
Source: Government Gazette No. 883 of 2002

Figure 3.1 illustrates the provincial distribution of people living in poverty in South Africa. The figure above reveals that South Africa is a country with high poverty levels with higher levels of unemployment, and thus parents are less likely to earn a decent living. Thus the government is faced with the responsibility of creating an enabling environment such as the feeding programme for its citizens to be able to overcome poverty and hunger.

According to the Department of Education (2011-2012), the Department of Education is an institution responsible for carrying out the school feeding programme. It also coordinates and oversees the programme, ensuring adherence to policies and other relevant legislation through monitoring and evaluation. Procurement of goods and services for the school feeding programme

is the mandate of the Provincial Education Departments (PEDs). The school feeding programme is funded through a conditional grant that is transferred to provinces according to the National Treasury (2013) as well as other directives from the Department of Education and National Treasury (National Treasury, 2009). The allocation to provinces is poverty-based in accordance with the National Poverty Distribution Table used in the National Norms and Standards for School Funding as gazetted by the Minister of Education on 17 October 2008 (National Treasury, 2009). The national poverty distribution table takes into account data around poverty in terms of specific provinces. This helps to determine the proportion of learners within each of the provinces who will be catered for within each of the five quintiles. Table 3.1 below shows the poverty distribution table as published in the Government Gazette No. 883 on the 26th September 2007.

Table 3.1: National Poverty Distribution Table

National Quintiles						
	1(poorest)	2	3	4	5(least poor)	Total
Eastern Cape	18.2%	21.6%	21.0%	11.6%	10.9%	100%
Free State	5.2%	14.9%	20.1%	18.8%	15.4%	100%
Gauteng	10.3%	11.4%	27.4%	27.2%	23.6%	100%
Kwa-Zulu Natal	25.5%	18.8%	25.6%	17.3%	14.1%	100%
Limpopo	16.4%	22.3%	24.9%	11.6%	7.2%	100%
Mpumalanga	7.3%	20.2%	29.8%	19.9%	13.5%	100%
Northern Cape	8.9%	17.7%	21.6%	14.8%	19.6%	100%
North West	2.1%	15.2%	30.5%	20.5%	11.0%	100%
Western Cape	6.1%	8.0%	23.1%	27.7%	34.6%	100%
South Africa	100.0%	20.0%	20.0%	20.0%	20.0%	100%

Source: Government Gazette No. 883 of 2007

Table 3.1 indicates what proportion of learners in each province should be accommodated in each quintile, with the poorest provinces having the greatest number of learners in quintiles one and two. By implication, the table indicates to provinces the number of schools that should be registered within each of the quintiles and the proportion of schools that should receive per

learner allocation above the minimum threshold. For example, the table indicates that 18.2% of learners in the Eastern Cape should be accommodated in quintile one schools in that province, as opposed to 6.1% of learners in the Western Cape which is considered a better off province. Similarly, over 39.8% of learners in the Eastern Cape fall within quintile one and two schools, whereas only 14.1% of learners in the Western Cape do. In this way, national quintiles attempt to recognise and accommodate the uneven distribution of poverty across provinces in South Africa. The Minister of Education consults with the Minister of Finance to review the National Poverty Distribution Table on a yearly basis and, when necessary, an updated version of this table is published in the Government Gazette. The National Poverty Distribution Table also helps the Department of Education to lessen the effect of poverty on education and the ultimate repercussions on society in general.

In the view of Van der Bergs (2008), the causal effect between poverty and education is not clear because, while poverty can have a negative effect on the attainment of education, levels of education can also determine one's propensity to poverty. In the analysis of two surveys by Statistics South Africa, Armstrong et al (2008) found that those with lower educational attainment are more likely to be poor than those with higher qualifications. The researchers further found that of those who were poor (15 years old and above), 88% either had no schooling, incomplete primary education, or incomplete secondary education. Figure 3.2 below shows the analysis of educational attainment of individuals 15 years and above in poor households in South Africa.
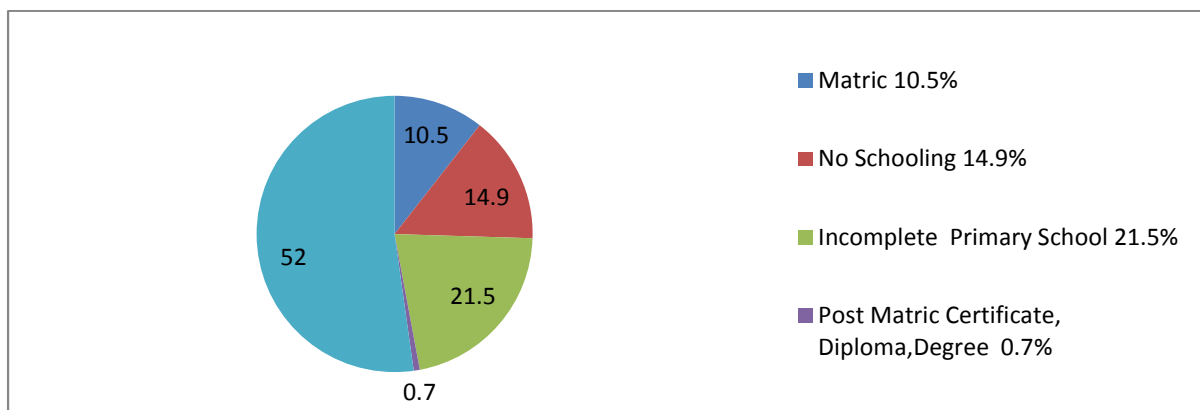
Figure 3.2: Educational attainment of individuals 15 years and above in poor households
Source: Armstrong, Lekezwa and Siebrits (2008)

The Reconstruction and Development Programme (RDP) of 1994 was one of the major blueprints for post-apartheid reform. It was more focused on expounding the nature of the problem under discussion. The central objective of the RDP was to improve the quality of life of all South Africans and, in particular, the most poor and marginalised sections of our society (RDP, 1994:15). The idea of a social safety net through which food, clothing and health care could be made accessible to the needy, comes near to addressing the issues of poverty. In the context of fulfilling these principal needs, the African National Congress recognised nutrition as a key factor, among others, that is in need of crucial attention.

The implementation of the school feeding programme gives effect to and is based on not only the South African Constitution but is also supported by international laws, treaties and conventions. According to Buhl (2011:33), the rights to food and basic nutrition have been implemented rather unsystematically in South Africa through various policies and indirectly by legislation. Food is as a result left in the hands of NGOs and other charitable organisations to distribute, and it is driven by the objectives of these organisations. Food rights are recognised in two sections of the South African Constitution Act 108 of 1996. Section 27(1) (b) and 28(1) (c) state that everyone has the right of access to sufficient food and every child has the right to basic nutrition respectively. It is also based on the following legislative provisions contained in the White Paper on Reconstruction and Development programme (1994:12). The provisions are summarised as follows:

- ❖ Access to quality food and basic nutrition as enshrined in the South African Constitution and the International Children's Charter.
- ❖ Access to quality basic education and learner success as stipulated in the National Education Policy Act 27 of 1996, South African Schools Act 84 of 1996.
- ❖ Targeting of schools for school feeding as informed by the Norms and Standards for Funding of Public Schools, according to the Department of Education General Notice 2362 of 12th October 1998.

The South African Constitution (1996) protects the right of access to food as a self-standing right departing markedly from established practice in comparative constitutional law and in international human rights law. As if this is not enough, it specifically recognises the right of children to basic nutrition as an important component that should be ensured by the nation. By specifically protecting these rights, the Constitution seeks to ensure that programmes, measures and strategies for reconstructing and rebuilding South African society should not treat access to food as a mere end but as an important part of the instrumental mechanisms for creating a new South Africa, in this particular case, to allow school-going children to learn without hindrances such as hunger. The school feeding programme remains one of the significant instruments appropriate for the creation of an educational environment where hindrances such as hunger can be avoided.

To successfully implement the school feeding programme, it is important for institutions responsible for its implementation to put in place proper policies to ensure proper monitoring and evaluation. Again, Buhl (2011:5) in affirmation of the above assertion mentioned that it also has to have adequate resources, managerial skills, staff, knowledge, and technology at the central and sub-national levels to correctly implement the programme. Best practice suggests that school feeding programmes are properly implemented if there is an institution that is mandated and accountable for the implementation of the programme. Fumbar (2007:33), in addition to the views already expressed, states that in many low-income countries, school feeding programmes are managed by external implementing partners, often as a programme that runs in parallel with sectoral programmes. An important effect of this is that any change to national ownership requires as a first step to institutionalise the school feeding within national and local-level structures.

According to Bastia (2007:29), national planning for school feeding should ensure that the government has identified the most appropriate and effective role for school feeding in its development agenda. With donor harmonisation efforts underway, Fumbar (2007:29) opines that it is increasingly significant that, if made a priority, school feeding is included in sector plans. This should form the basis for basket funding or sector-wide approaches that determine the allocation of donor resources. In other cases, the programme may be viewed as a multi-sectoral

intervention, crucially linked with the education sector, but implemented with sectors such as agriculture, health and local government. The key factor is to ensure government leadership for the incorporation of the programme within national policy. According to Kallman (2005:21), where the food comes from and who is responsible for its purchase determines to a great extent how a programme is managed. A programme that buys large quantities of food from national traders and distributes it across the country will need significant centralised capacity to plan requirements well in advance, coordinate national level tenders, and manage distribution (Department of Education, 2009:16). The right of everyone to sufficient food serves as a reminder that matters of food security, nutrition and accessibility deserve specific programmes, policies and other measures. Also, children's right to basic nutrition calls for attention to the need for general food measures and policies as one of their central concerns for children's nutritional wellbeing, and to the need for the state to devise child specific programmes on basic nutrition such as the school feeding programme.

In line with the emerging trend in international human rights law, children should be given priority allocation in social provisioning (United Nations, 1949). Under international law, the Universal Declaration of Human Rights (1948) clearly states that the state is accountable for the enjoyment of human rights within its territory. However, the state may delegate responsibilities to the various levels of government. The state should also through its national strategy or legislation assign as precise a responsibility for action as possible, especially in addressing multi-sectoral and multi-dimensional problems such as food insecurity. While the importance of creating an enabling environment where everyone can enjoy the right to food by their own efforts should be stressed, it remains the responsibility of the state to ensure that those who are unable to do so for themselves are adequately taken care of, so that no one suffers from hunger. It also implies that the state should take measures that seek to protect the wellbeing and welfare of children in the face of calamities, emergencies and threats to their livelihoods. Where there are competing interests in resource allocation, child prioritisation would entail treating the wellbeing of children as a primary consideration along with other similarly important state interests required of funding from national government (ICESCR, 1966 Article 2 & 11(2)).

In line with this, Labadarios et al, (2005:35) agrees that the current school feeding programme in South Africa continues to be solely financed through a central budget grant and therefore should not rely on international food donations for its functioning. Being a national government-run programme, international agencies were not involved in the setting up of the Provincial School Feeding Programme (Labadarios et al, 2005:35). This ensures that the programme is sustained and uninterrupted because funds are guaranteed for the programme implementation. In South Africa, the school feeding programme was initially managed by the Department of Health under the name of the Primary School Nutritional Programme (PSNP). In 2004 the management of the PSNP was changed to the Department of Education and was renamed the National School Nutrition Programme (Department of Health, 2007:15). The principal reason for the change was that the programme was deemed more as an educational intervention directed at improving educational outcomes rather than as a health intervention (Kallman, 2005:8). This change was a necessity to enable the Department of Education to monitor and evaluate the programme to ensure that the objectives were achieved.

According to the Department of Health (2007:18), the programme is coordinated by the National Department of Education in conjunction with the Department of Health and implemented by the provincial authorities through a tendering system. Any private organisations, including NGOs, are allowed to tender for the contracts. Some non-governmental organisations are service providers for the national school feeding programme and they often supplement the national programme. For example, the Peninsula School Feeding Association provides supplementary feeding in schools where the need is greater than that identified by the Department of Education. According to Smith (2005), the school feeding programme involves a meal, usually lunch or dinner provided to students at a school. Meals provided follow the Food Based Dietary Guidelines which provide for a variety of food items inclusive of vegetables and fruit and is usually served around noon. However, many schools also serve breakfast before classes begin in the morning.

The Department of Education (2009:4) states that the Grant Framework stipulates certain conditions, to which provincial departments must adhere, and that is, all learners in the targeted schools, Quintile1-3 primary and Q1 secondary schools, should be fed by 10h00 on all school

days. According to the Department of Education (2011-2012), hot meals served typically consist of samp or pap, soup, and beans or soya mince. However, at many schools, children receive bread and peanut butter, sometimes with fruit or juice. An average meal cost per learner per day is R1, 80 for primary schools and R2, 35 for secondary schools (National Treasury, 2009). Failure of Provincial Education Departments to meet the requirements of the Conditional Grant may lead to the Department of Education taking steps to; for example, withhold the transfer of allocated funds. The following section discusses the roles of government and other stakeholders in the feeding programme as stipulated in the Department of Education (2011-2012).

The Department of Education (DOE) is usually seen as the most authoritative professional department accountable for the leadership and management roles of the schools (Belle, 2007: 69). Being an authoritative department, it is in a vertical relationship with educators and therefore is expected to perform its tasks in state or public interest (Van der Westhuizen and Van Vuuren, 2007:441). To be precise, the DOE is vested and delegated with authority to represent the provincial Head of Department (HOD) at school level (South African Schools Act, 1996) concerning their tasks, duties and responsibilities. These include:

- ❖ to provide professional management of the school;
- ❖ to provide professional leadership within the school;
- ❖ to engage in class teaching as per the workload of the relevant post level and the needs of the school;
- ❖ to participate in extra- and co-curricular activities;
- ❖ to interact with stakeholders; and
- ❖ to maintain regular communication, especially with parents.

According to Labadarios et al (2005:33), the National School Nutrition Programme (NSNP) directorate at the Department of Education (DOE) is responsible for co-ordinating the programme. The purpose is to ensure proper nutrition and health of children so that they may learn more effectively. The directorate plays a key role in providing strategic direction, leadership and support as well as programme monitoring and evaluation to ensure that implementation is in line with the DOE strategic goals and complies with the NSNP Grant Framework (Department of Education, 2009).

A strong regulatory regime exists in South Africa to account for all budgeted funds including those transferred to the Department of Education (DOE) for the school nutrition programme. In terms of the Public Finance Management Act 29 of 1999, the Head of the DOE is considered an Accounting Officer (National Treasury, 2000). Accounting Officers are responsible, in terms of Section 38 of the PFMA, for the effective, efficient, economical and transparent use of resources that are transferred to their respective departments. The Accounting Officer must also maintain effective, efficient and transparent systems of financial and risk management and take appropriate steps to prevent unauthorised, irregular and fruitless and wasteful expenditure. In terms of section 81 of the PFMA, an Accounting Officer commits an act of financial misconduct if he/she 'wilfully or negligently' fails to comply with section 38 of the Public Finance Management Act.

The Department of Education works in close collaboration with the District Offices. According to the Department of Education (2009), District Offices are expected to monitor the actual implementation of the School Nutrition Programme by making regular visits to schools where a monitoring and evaluation checklist is completed. In elaborating on the issue of monitoring and evaluation, the Department of Education (2011-2012) states that it must visit five schools per day, and phone every other school in the District to monitor the state of feeding on a daily basis. Districts must also collect monthly monitoring reports from schools which indicate the number of learners fed in each school on a daily basis (Department of Education, 2011-2012). District Offices play a key role in managing schools because they are the main decision-makers and have more responsibilities than the other education offices. The success of a school and the degree of attaining the educational aims depend on the District Offices' governance (Kocabas and Karakose, 2009:129). In highly effective schools, as well as in schools which have reversed a trend of poor performance and declining achievement, it is the District Offices that set the pace, leading and motivating schoolchildren and staff to perform to the best of their abilities.

In Magog Primary School the responsibility of the District Offices is to undertake the instruction, supervision and management in general. The government and all other stakeholders look upon the District Offices for the effective implementation of any programme introduced at this level

(Aketch and Simatwa, 2010:486). The District Offices conduct training for schools with regard to the school nutrition programme and liaise with service providers when they receive any complaints from schools with regard to issues such as the non-delivery of food. District officials must meet representatives from each service provider on a monthly basis. District Offices are also expected to produce monthly reports as stated in the Department of Education (2011-2012) relating to the school feeding programme which they must send to the Department of Education. These reports are expected to contain programme performance information which includes the number of schools targeted; the number of actual feeding days, the number of learners fed, and include any details of food production initiatives and capacity building workshops (Department of Education, 2011-2012).

Finally, the District Offices also work in close collaboration with the school principals to ensure that there is a smooth implementation of the programme. The Policy on the Identification and Deployment of District Offices as set out in the National Education Policy Act (Department of Education,1996) outlines the duties and responsibilities of a primary school principal as follows, namely he/she:

- ❖ is the head of the school, under the direction of the school management committee;
- ❖ serves as the accounting officer of the school, is responsible for the preparation of the estimates for the recurrent and development expenditure of the school and interprets and implements policy decisions pertaining to training;
- ❖ is the overall organiser, co-coordinator and supervisor of all the activities in the school, and is responsible for improving and maintaining high training and learning standards;
- ❖ is responsible for the planning, acquisition, development and maintenance of the physical facilities at the school;
- ❖ promotes positive linkages between the school and the neighbouring communities and/or other nearby organisations; and
- ❖ promotes liaison between the school and other private sector organisations.

The responsibilities of primary school principals, as seen above, are numerous and varied. However, the role of the school principal remains very instrumental in ensuring that the school implements the feeding programme effectively. According to the Department of Education

(2011-2012), the role of the school in the feeding programme is that of an implementing agency and plays a fundamental role in ensuring that the programme achieves its intended objectives. Different staff members within schools are obliged to undertake a number of duties within the school feeding programme.

According to the Department of Education (2011-2012), if there are needy learners in schools that do not automatically qualify for the provincial nutrition programme, the principal is required to submit a special application for food to the provincial Department of Education with a list containing details of all learners considered needy. Information such as the full names, birth certificate numbers, the parents' names and home address, identity numbers, state of employment, income etc. must be furnished. The department may then allocate a budget for school nutrition based on the specific number of learners identified as needy in a particular school (Department of Education, 2011). The school principal is required to form a school feeding programme committee of which an educator is to be appointed to be in charge (Department of Education, 2011).

The school also plays a number of roles as indicated in the Department of Education (2011-2012) including the signing of the Proof of Delivery forms when they have verified that deliveries are correct. The school is also to monitor the daily running of the programme, ensure the safekeeping of foodstuffs and submit Meal-Server Payment Claims and Goods Received Voucher forms to the District Office (See Appendix F). Again, the Department of Education (2011-2012) requires the school to identify people in the community who will be responsible for preparing meals for the learners daily. According to the National Treasury (2009), the Department pays the service provider directly and pays the cooks a stipend of between R100 and R300 per month. But in many cases the grant is made directly to the school which then pays the food suppliers and cooks.

The Department of Education (2011-2012) requires the school to keep records of invoices from suppliers, payments to cooks, and the number of learners who are fed every day. They are also required to provide the facilities needed to run the nutrition programme. This involves a place to store the food, fuel, cooking utensils and cutlery. The educator appointed to the food committee

then ensures that the supplier supplies the correct quantity and quality of food to the school. The educator collects and authorises the suppliers' invoices to facilitate payment by the Department of Education. The principal or deputy principal may also be involved in quality control of the food and the administration of the programme (Department of Education, 2009). The school depends on other stakeholders such as the service providers for the delivery of foodstuffs to the school.

According to Labadarios et al. (2005:29), it is the job of the service providers to deliver food to schools. Many of the obligations and conditions placed on them to do so are contained in Service Level Agreements (SLA) or contracts they sign with the Department of Education (see Appendix E). According to the Department of Education (2009), suppliers must deliver food to schools subject to conditions stipulated by the Department of Education. The conditions include, among others, the creation of Loading Schedules (LS) which must be submitted in advance to schools and District Offices, food must be delivered to targeted schools on week days, and before 9 am. Also monthly reports must be submitted by suppliers to the steering committee and a final report must be provided by the supplier to the Department of Education. It is also required of service providers to deliver non-perishable food during normal school hours from Monday to Friday between the hours of 7.30 am to 1.30 pm. On the other hand, perishable food should be delivered daily and it should be early enough in the day to allow feeding of school children by 10:00 am (Department of Education, 2011-2012).

Another important role-payer in the implementation of the school feeding is the School Governing Body (SGB). According to SASA (1996), the major role of school governors at the school should be to promote the best interests of the school and strive to ensure its development through the provision of quality learning and facilities for all the learners at the school (SASA, Section 20 & 21). It also states clearly the differentiation between the roles and functions of school governance and management. School governance as "the body that makes decisions about how the school should be run" - means the SGB is responsible for the creation of policies and rules for the school while school management is a team that is responsible to ensure that the "day-to-day running" of the school in general and the school feeding programme in particular is effective and efficient for all its members (SASA, 1996). Although operationalising the nutrition

programme is not a function of the School Governing Body per se, in many schools, members of the School Governing Body play active roles in the nutrition programme, for example by identifying vulnerable children in the community, nominating cooks, being signatories for payments and collecting wood for cooking purposes in rural contexts. Having discussed the roles of the stakeholders in the programme, the next discussion centres on the various areas of the school feeding programme that need to be managed properly and whose responsibility that is.

3.3 Management of the school feeding programme

The role of principals in the school feeding programmes as managers is to apply principles of planning, organising, delegating, coordinating, directing and controlling in order to consciously and pro-actively perform the responsibilities attached to management roles. Several studies, both internationally (Alieg-Mielcarek, 2003:132; Bush, 2007:402; Du Four & Marzano, 2009:64; Shapiro, 2003:3; Sonja & Brigita, 2009:16) and in South Africa (Dhlamini, 2008:19; Mestry, 2006:33; Mthombeni, 2004:85; Prew, 2007:453; Van Deventer & Kruger, 2003:74) concur that such responsibilities include the day-to-day management of activities relating to school children, school finances, physical facilities and community relations in pursuit of improving learner achievement through raising the levels of nutrition and standards of living and thus ensuring humanity's freedom from hunger. Simply put, school principals have the obligation to effectively execute the financial affairs, physical facilities and community relations as discussed in the next sections.

Though the School Governing Body (SGB) has ultimate responsibility for the school finances, it is normal practice for them to delegate the daily operational financial functions to school principals. On this point, Mestry (2006:36) points out that the SGBs, by virtue of the South African Schools Act (1996) (SASA), are responsible for the financial affairs of their schools. He further highlights that SGBs may delegate such tasks to school principals, though accountability remains with them. Considering the above, principals need to efficiently manage the daily financial affairs of their schools in order to maximise school feeding, nutrition and development among South African learners.

The other critical step in managing the financial affairs is the establishment of school finance committees, which should be led by principals. In the view of Mestry (2006:37), some of the most important functions of the finance committee, in addition to developing and implementing a finance policy, are the drafting and controlling of the school budget, monitoring and approving all expenditure, and ensuring that all procurement (purchasing of goods and services) are done through correct quotations and tendering procedures. Furthermore, Mbatsana (2006:26) and Moloi (2007: 467) emphasise the importance of school budgeting by highlighting that school principals need to create budgets that provide details in terms of how the school feeding programmes will be accomplished and also how much money and other resources will be needed to accomplish such plans. The above clearly indicate that principals must exercise maximum care in drafting school budgets to ensure that the school child ultimately benefits from its implementation.

In providing a clear picture of the state of the school's finances, principals should ensure proper keeping of monthly and quarterly statements while financial books are annually audited. In addition, principals should regularly inform stakeholders, SGB, the community and the Department of Education about the financial expenditure on the school feeding programme (Mestry, 2006:91). Having discussed the managing of financial measures of the school feeding programme, it becomes necessary to pay attention to the effects of physical facilities on the effectiveness of the school as indicated in the next section in order to ensure an effective school feeding programme.

In this study, physical facilities refer to resources like school buildings and cafeteria and furniture (chairs and desks), storage facilities and cooking utensils. These facilities, according to several studies (Belle, 2007:167; Bush, 2007:7; Dhlamini, 2008:114; Van Deventer & Kruger, 2003: 6) play a crucial role in facilitating and improving the school feeding programme. The case study conducted by Dhlamini (2008:114) confirms that inadequate resources play a major role in the poor quality of teaching and learning in schools and the successful implementation of the feeding programme. Similarly, another qualitative research conducted by Belle (2007:166) found that teachers are proud to work and operate in very attractive surroundings with well-maintained facilities and impressive school infrastructure.

Consistent with these views, Van Deventer and Kruger (2003:8) maintain that sufficient and decent physical facilities create a positive environment in the distribution of food stuffs to school children. They further elaborated on how a neat and clean physical environment could influence hygiene, flexibility towards feeding, and reduce the amount of disorder during the feeding times. Similarly, Bush (2007:7) also identifies that sufficient and properly maintained infrastructure plays a key role in contributing to a better school feeding programme achievement in schools. Considering the above views, it is quite clear that principals should create a proper and effective system for managing physical facilities so that the efforts of feed programmes could be enhanced.

Regarding the routine maintenance of school buildings and cafeteria, Clarke (2007:372) and Belle (2007:165) recommend that the physical facilities committee should include parents with expertise like nutritionists and health care personnel. Belle (2007:168) further elaborates that the committee should regularly inspect the physical facilities, particularly before the budgeting process, so that they could be in a position to submit a maintenance budget that is realistic. Additionally, such a committee should make efforts to fund-raise for the acquisition and maintenance of new facilities and equipment. Having identified and explored the effects of physical resources on feeding programmes, it then became prudent also to examine the effects of managing community relations on school feeding.

Several studies (Bush, 2009:7; Mestry, 2006:32; Prew, 2007:454; Van Deventer and Kruger, 2003:255) agree that the effectiveness of the DOE's school feeding programmes not depend merely on aspects such as more resources, better curriculum programme and improved buildings, but also depends on the nature and quality of managing community relations. In this study 'community' refers to all organised stakeholders, statutory (Department of Education, SGBs) and non-statutory (parent-teacher associations [PTA] and business communities), with an interest in the school feeding programmes. It has been well documented worldwide (Bush, 2007:5; Mestry, 2006:33; Prew, 2007:454) that a positive and harmonious relationship between the schools and communities has a positive impact on every school project. The case study conducted by Mestry (2006:33) on the functioning of SGBs found that lack of a positive relationship between

principals, learners, educators and parents leads to conflict that negatively affects the efforts of learner achievement and the implementation of the school feeding programme.

3.4 Conclusion

Having identified and discussed the effects of exercising a strong leadership role and an effective management role on school feeding programmes separately, chapter three has dealt with school feeding and nutritional programme in South Africa where the literature was discussed in relation to apartheid and post-apartheid and democratic South Africa. The roles and functions of the various stakeholders such as the Department of Education, the school and the service providers in the implementation of the programme were also discussed. Chapter four will discuss the research design and methodology used in the study.

CHAPTER FOUR: RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

4.1 Introduction

This chapter presents a discussion of the research design and methodology that were used to investigate the aims and the objectives of the study. First a justification of the research design is discussed, and thereafter the research methods, including the data collection methods, sampling, data analysis, the measures to ensure validity and reliability, as well as the ethical measures are also discussed. Finally, a brief summary of the chapter is given to conclude this chapter.

4.2 Research design

In investigating the phenomenon, the researcher decided to use the mixed research methodology (qualitative-quantitative). Employing such methodology (Q² methodology), the experiences, perceptions, feelings, thoughts and emotions of participants were expressed in verbal form and in numbers (Lauer, 2006:76; McErwan & McErwan, 2003:83). This method was formally launched by Professor Ravi Kanbur of Cornell University in the United States in 2002 as a multi-disciplinary approach that uses both qualitative and quantitative methods for analysis and measurement (Kanbur, 2003).

It is highly significant to point out that the mixed method research (quantitative and qualitative) has numerous strengths among which the ability to confirm findings, test theory and obtain breadth and depth on a research topic. The major setbacks include a lengthy time to conduct the study, complexity in putting the method into practice and its cost implications. Thus proper planning and appropriate design and strategy are required to carry out the mixed method research effectively and efficiently (Johnson and Onwuegbuzie, 2004). This design enabled the researcher to collect two types of data and also gain perspectives of data derived from different paradigms through a single research project (Creswell, 2009; Tashakkori and Teddlie, 2003). Khandker et al (2010) argue that making use of the mixed method approach assists in overcoming qualitative weaknesses because the quantitative measures offer generalisability and statistical significance.

Consistent with this view, Creswell (2009) state that the use of both the quantitative and qualitative approach to research helps to look at a problem or phenomenon from multiple lenses so as to enhance and enrich the meaning and understanding of the phenomenon. Given that the main purpose of the study was not to generalise the empirical research findings except to get an in-depth, positive insight about the "potential impact of school feeding programme on learner development focussing on nutrition, enrolment and attendance and cognitive development at Magog Primary School.", the study employed a case study approach.

4.3 Qualitative Measures

Qualitative methods are instrumental in gaining critical insights into participants' perspectives of the phenomena under study. It also builds knowledge on the subjective realities faced by the participants (Brannen, 2005; Plano Clark and Wang, 2010). The main advantage of using the qualitative method is that it allows the researcher to discuss issues that are significant regarding the study. It is in this context that focus groups could be ideal for the qualitative aspect of the study. To understand the school feeding programme requires an interactive field research, calling for face-to-face interaction between the researcher and the participants. This was achieved by means of focus group interviews, which allowed for an in-depth discussion with the participants, thus enabling the researcher to collect data on how the individuals made sense of the school feeding programme (McMillan and Schumacher, 2006:36). This technique, although time-consuming, provided the researcher with the opportunity to obtain qualitative data in a manner that has the benefit of providing an overall direction and focus for the interviewer. In the same vein, it provided the interviewees with the opportunity to express their views. Additionally, the interview is not restricted only to questions that the interviewer initially intended to pose. In other words, issues that came up during the interview process and were deemed relevant were pursued by the researcher (Biggam, 2008:228).

In order to establish a framework around the interviews and to focus on specific issues regarding the school feeding programme in Magog Primary School, the interviews were semi-structured, with an interview guide containing a list of questions that needed to be covered by the interview. The questions were open-ended to encourage meaningful responses from the interviewees (see Appendix 5). Kombo and Tromp (2006:94) maintain that semi-structured interviews are flexible

and therefore advantageous if qualitative data is to be collected. The use of open-ended questions also enabled the researcher to get a complete and detailed understanding of the issues being researched. Before the start of each interview session, the researcher spent some time with participants in order to establish a positive rapport and to set them at ease (Stewards and Cash Jr, 2008:77). The overall interviews lasted for approximately four hours and forty minutes with each focus group lasting for about twenty to twenty-five minutes. After the interviews, the views and contributions of the participant learners were collated for analysis.

4.4 Quantitative measures

The quantitative study was to be carried out with the purpose of gauging the current level of participants' views on the potential impact of the school feeding programme on learner academic development in Magog Primary School. Structured questionnaires were administered by the researcher to the selected participants at the study area. Hesse-Biber (2010:102) defines a questionnaire as "a written document in a research that has a set of questions given to respondents or used by an interviewer to ask questions". In the context of this study, the advantages of the questionnaires were that they were relatively economical, standardized and ensured anonymity (McMillan and Schumacher 2006:403). The study used self-administered questionnaires because of its effectiveness and high response rate for a target population with a strong interest in the subject under study (Stewards and Cash Jr, 2008:79).

In addition to the above advantages, self-administered questionnaires were handed to the respondents, who completed them on their own, but the researcher was available in case problems were experienced. Notwithstanding, the researcher ensured that his contribution to the completion of the questionnaires was reduced to the barest minimum (Hesse-Biber, 2010:102). This follows the comment of Stewards and Cash Jr. (2008:79) that respondents should be allowed to enjoy a high degree of freedom in completing questionnaires if quality information has to be obtained from a large number of respondents within a brief period of time.

In order to avoid the problem of long questionnaires, unclear or open questions, complex questionnaires requiring in-depth thought or wrongly interpreted questions, the questionnaire of this study had closed questions. According to Maxwell (2005:106), closed questions are free

response questions which offer the respondent an opportunity to select one or more response choices from a number provided. Closed questions also are advantageous particularly when a substantial amount of information about a subject exists and the response options are relatively well known (McMillan and Schumacher, 2006:451). Considering this study, closed questions were seen as valuable in the sense that respondents understood the meaning of the questions better. Thus, questions could be answered within the same framework, and responses could consequently be compared better with one another.

4.5 Case study

According to Yin (1994:23), a case study is "an empirical inquiry that investigates a contemporary phenomenon within its real-life context when the boundaries between phenomenon and context are not clearly evident and in which multiple sources of evidence are used". It may involve an intensive investigation of a single unit or the examination of multiple variables over an extended period of time in an attempt to understand the influences of social systems on subjects' perspectives and behaviour (Miller and Brewer, 2003:32). A case study was seen to be the appropriate approach to study a single phenomenon, namely to evaluate the potential impact of a school feeding programme on learner development primarily focusing on nutrition, enrolment and attendance and cognitive development in Magog Primary School.

In choosing this strategy, the researcher considered not only its ability to explore, analyse and describe the subjective, but also its ability to describe the accurate experiences, intentions, perceptions, views, perspectives, and feelings of participants in their natural environment (Lauer, 2006:76). In addition, the study found a case study to be more befitting on account of being adaptable and flexible; more specifically towards the sampling process, data collection, and data analysis (Lauer, 2006:77). For instance, during fieldwork, the case study provided the researcher with an opportunity to ask probing questions that led to clear understanding and insight of participants' direct and conscious experiences, perceptions, feelings and understandings regarding the potential impact of the school feeding programme. Such revelations further provided the study with an opportunity to develop what Maxwell (2005:107) described as, "thick description" with regard to the topic under study.

The need to evaluate a phenomenon demands a holistic approach to uncover all dimensions of the study (Thomas, 2003:35). The case study helped the researcher to evaluate the potential impact of the school feeding programme in a manner both far and wide. It produced information that covered the whole unit and not only small aspects of it. It therefore ensured that detailed relationships and social processes were emphasised rather than restricting attention to outcomes from the participants. When a researcher makes a decision to devote all his efforts to just one case, there is obviously far greater opportunity to delve deeper into things and to discover things that might not have become more apparent through a superficial research (Denscombe, 2005:30), thus the in-depth nature of a case study research. One of the initial steps when designing a case study research is to choose a sample. Onwuegbuzie and Collins (2007:86) state briefly that the target population is the group of interest that the researcher wants to study. He maintains that the target population should be clearly defined by the researcher and its boundaries understood (Onwuegbuzie and Collins, 2007:86).

4.6 Sampling

A sample is a representation of a small and unique group of "rich informants" that would enable the study to understand a phenomenon in depth (McMillan and Schumacher, 2006). The criteria for choosing such an information-rich sample were based on participants who were knowledgeable, informative and willing to take part in the study (McMillan and Schumacher, 2006). The study applied a probability sampling method which is based on randomisation and allows the determination of what population segment will go into the sample. Probability sampling as a method was considered to be useful for the study because the study was not interested in generalising the findings, except for getting an in-depth understanding of the observable facts (McMillan and Schumacher, 2006:309).

The use of sampling provided an opportunity to thoroughly explore, analyse and describe the perspectives and views on the topic under study, which is the potential impact of the school feeding programme on learners in Magog Primary School in their natural setting. As a result, in-depth insights regarding the subject under study were made. All the participants selected from Magog Primary School were perceived to be potential and experienced participants in the school

feeding programme. Samples must be representative of the population being studied; otherwise no general observation about the population can be made from studying the sample (Goddard and Melville, 1996:35). The participants selected for the study comprised learners and teachers from Magog Primary School.

Firstly, the population in this study was a sample of learners from grades six and seven learners in Magog Primary School. The higher grades of the school, which are grades six and seven, were chosen based on their knowledge of the programme under study and their ability to express themselves. According to David and Dodd (2002:123), the basic premise in operation is that, if the sample is randomly chosen, its characteristics will approximate the characteristics of the population from which it is drawn. Again, David and Dodd (2002) say that one of the basic principles of a sample being representative is the concept of randomness. By implication, this principle survives on the premise that whatever units go into the sample must go there purely by chance, and every unit in the population must stand an equal chance of qualifying for the sample. Sampling is important as often it is neither possible nor desirable to collect data from the entire population which often may be infinite. The sample size for learners was calculated using the formula: $n = \frac{N}{1+(N \times e^2)}$ where (n) is the sample size, (N) is the total number of learners, and (e) is the accepted level of error of 0.05.

Table 4.1: Sample frame for learners

Grade	Boys	Girls	Total	Percentage	Sample size
6A	21	18	39	25%	28
6B	19	21	40	26%	29
7A	18	20	38	24%	27
7B	18	21	39	25%	28
Total number of learners	76	80	156		
Total percentage				100%	
Total sample size					112

Table 4.1 describes the grade six and seven learners in Magog Primary School which comprises both "A" and "B" in each grade. Grade six and seven had a total of 79 and 77 learners respectively. After calculations using the method stated above, the sampled size came to a total of 28, 29, 27 and 28 learners from grades 6A, 6B, 7A and 7B respectively. The sample sizes were selected by means of a simple random sampling. The researcher found this sampling method appropriate because respondents were selected by a random process in which each participant received equal probability of being selected. The names of all the learners in each grade were put in a box and the sampled size was randomly selected. Figure 4.1 below shows the sample size of learner respondents from grades six and seven.
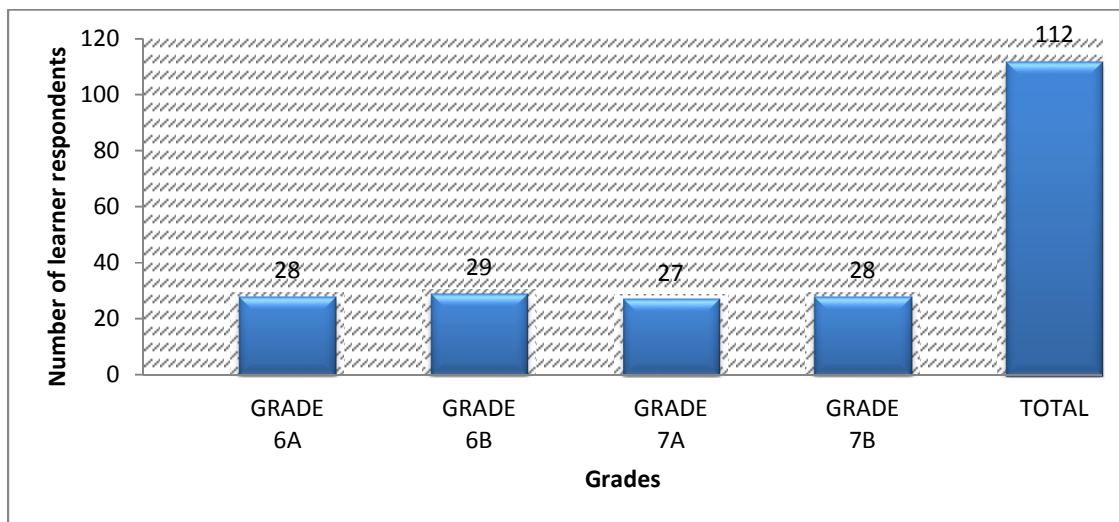
Figure 4.1: Grade distribution of learner respondents

Figure 4.1 above shows the number of learners in grades six and seven who were selected as respondents for the study. A total of fifty-seven and fifty-five learner respondents from grades six and seven respectively were selected for the study. The total sample size of learner respondents came to one hundred and twelve.

Secondly, all the educators in Magog Primary School were included in the study taking into consideration their small population and, again, to ensure that the opinions of the majority were brought to bear on the reliability of the study. The figure below shows the distribution of the sample which represents teachers from Magog Primary School who took part in the study.
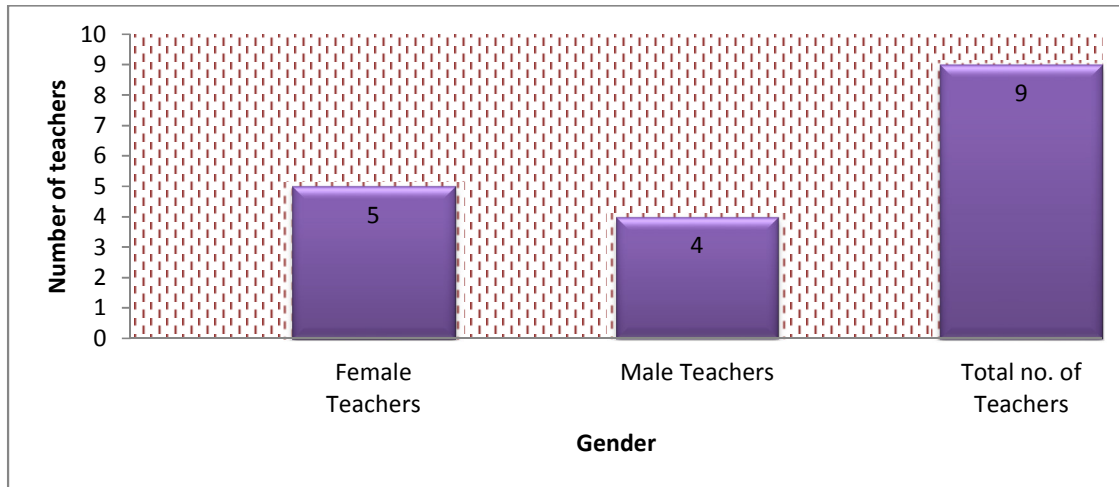
Figure 4.2: Gender distribution of the sample frame for teachers

The total number of teaching staff as shown by figure 4.2 in the Magog Primary School adds up to nine. Out of this, five of them (56%) are females and the remaining four (44%) are males. All the nine educators took part in the study.

As a pre-requisite of any focus group interview, the total sampled respondents have to be categorised into small homogeneous groups for an effective discussion. Through a simple random sampling the learner respondents were put into groups. Numbers from one to eight were written on pieces of paper and mixed up in a bowl. The learner respondents were asked to pick a number and all those who picked the same numbers were assigned into one group. Focus groups are structured small group interviews. They are "focused" in two ways. First, the persons being interviewed are similar in some way and, secondly, the purpose is to gather information about a particular topic guided by a set of focused questions. The total sampled learner respondents were put into fourteen focus groups with eight participant learners in each group taking into consideration their individual grades. The researcher ensured that participant learners in each group were from the same grade to avoid intimidation and to create an environment where participants could freely express themselves.

4.7 Data analysis

Data analysis is as significant as any other aspect of research study. Regardless of how good your study is conducted, improper analysis can lead to inappropriate research conclusions. By implication, data collected must be accurately scored and organised systematically to ensure an effective data analysis. According to Schwandt (2007), to analyse means to break down a whole into its components or constituent parts and by putting the parts together, one comes to understand clearly the entirety of the subject under study. In order to provide a "picture" of the potential impact of the school feeding programme on learner development in Magog Primary School, descriptive statistics and content analysis were used to analyse the quantitative and qualitative data respectively.

The quantitative data from this study was analysed using descriptive statistics with the help of tables, charts and graphs. According to Schwandt (2007), quantitative analysis is a technique that helps a researcher to comprehend behaviour patterns by using complex mathematical and statistical modelling, measurement and research. By assigning numerical values to variables, quantitative analysts try to reproduce the reality of a phenomenon mathematically (Schwandt, 2007). The first step of the researcher in analysing the quantitative data was to describe or summarise the data collected using descriptive analysis. This analysis included calculating and interpreting quantitative data by the assistance of tables, charts and graphs. The major types of descriptive statistics include measures of central tendencies, measures of variability, measures of relative position and measures of relationship (Hsieh and Shannon, 2005). The study found it appropriate to use measures of relationship since the researcher was interested in comparing and finding out the degree to which scores are related.

Secondly, the qualitative data collected during the study was analysed using content analysis. Hsieh and Shannon (2005) define qualitative content analysis as "a research method for the subjective interpretation of the content of text data through systematic classification process of coding and identifying themes and patterns". This implies that qualitative content analysis supersedes what Patton (2002) explains as merely counting words or mining objective content from texts to be able to understand the meaning, themes and pattern that may evolve. Patton (2002) further states that it allows researchers to understand social reality not only in a subjective

way but also in a scientific manner. The data collected was then unitized and put into categories before they were coded into themes. The coding process was checked repeatedly to ensure that the researcher was not drifting into his own whims and caprices of what the codes mean (Schilling, 2006). Conclusions were then drawn and presented in the form of text from the coded data by making sense of the themes or categories identified and their properties.

4.8 Reliability and validity of the research findings

The researcher finds it important to delve into this subject of reliability and validity to give the reader a sense of the trustworthiness of the findings. Validity and reliability of data can be enhanced in both the qualitative and quantitative paradigms using such methods as triangulation, extensive field notes of original ideas, new information discovered in the field and member checks which entail a researcher taking analysed data back to the respondents to confirm that what they said is true (Babbie and Mouton, 2006:274). Keats (2000:59) argues that reliability is premised on the notion that there is some sense of uniformity or standardisation in what is being studied, and that methods need to consistently capture what is being investigated. Leedy and Ormrod (2005:99) describe reliability as "the consistency with which a measuring instrument yields a certain result when the entity being measured has not changed", thus, the capability of a measurement mechanism to present the same answers whenever and however a research is conducted (Kirk and Miller, 1986).

A research instrument is reliable to the extent that it measures whatever it is measuring consistently. In order to increase the reliability of the research, all interviews were conducted in person by the researcher. The researcher maintained consistency in his approach by utilising the same interview structure and interview questions. The researcher again ensured that the data was reliable by operating in a systematic manner. Validity is premised on the assumption that what is being studied can be captured and it seeks to confirm the truth and accuracy of this captured data. It also seeks to show that the findings or conclusions that have been drawn are trustworthy. According to Keats, there is a clear relationship between the reality that is studied and the reality that is reported (Keats, 2000:59). Conclusions need to be justified from what was found, and what was found needs to accurately reflect what was being studied.

The researcher, to ensure that the findings of the study were valid and reliable, made sure that every view, opinion and contribution from respondents was captured and coded into themes to ensure that it measured what it seeks to measure. Again the researcher made every effort to take the analysed data back to Magog Primary School for respondents to confirm that their views, opinions and contributions had not been altered. According to Bless and Higson-Smith (1995:136), validity refers to the potential of a design or an instrument to achieve or to measure what it is supposed to achieve or measure. It is concerned with the data collection procedures and measures. In this study measures were taken to ensure that the questionnaires and interviews met the requirements for validity. Questions soliciting views, opinions and observations of participants in areas such as the implementation, potential impact and challenges were structured in such a way to evaluate the school feeding programme in Magog Primary School.

In terms of external validity, the results of the research conducted are applicable to situations beyond the immediate research and can be generalised to other contexts (Leedy and Ormrod, 2005). Since the research conducted encompassed responses from a limited number of respondents who were randomly selected, it is not possible to generalise findings; but it may be that the findings from the research will be of value and applicable to other school feeding programmes in South Africa and Africa at large which finds themselves in similar situations. Again, the research design and data results enabled the researcher to draw accurate conclusions about the cause and effect and other relationships within the data (Leedy and Ormrod, 2005). It is also the duty of the researcher to be objective in capturing answers from the questionnaire and the analysis of the data. Because of objectivity, the researcher conducted the research in a neutral manner and did not lead the respondents to answer in a specific manner.

4.9 Limitations of the research methodology

The research conducted faced a number of limitations and these include: the research was investigative in nature and only had a limited number of respondents participating in answering the questions; the methodology was limited by and to the researcher's abilities, integrity and sensitivity, so the results may be open to misinterpretation, whether intended or accidental (Leedy and Ormrod, 2005); lastly, due to the fact that the study was conducted in only one school, the findings of this study cannot be generalised to reflect the reality of the school feeding

programme in the entire country of South Africa. The researcher opted to adopt strict procedures and a customary protocol in order to reduce and overcome this limitation by applying the necessary research ethics.

4.10 Ethical considerations

The researcher ensured that the study did comply with ethical principles (Leedy and Ormrod, 2005:101). The researcher employed the following ethical measures for "the reliability and validity" of the study. In conducting this research, it was important to note that the researcher was the primary research instrument for the collection and analysis of the data. Therefore, rigorous self-scrutiny by a researcher throughout the entire research process was of paramount importance (McMillan and Schumacher, 2006:411). The researcher was conscious of any biases that might creep into the research, as this could have a negative effect on the research process and the result presented.

The researcher requested approval from the Department of Education and the principal of Magog Primary School before commencing with the study. The letter of request (see Appendix H) was written to the District Director of Education for approval. In that letter the purpose of the study, target participants and duration of the study were clearly outlined. The letter further gave assurance that the identity of participants, as well as the information that would be shared, would be treated with honesty and integrity (Keats, 2000:30). During the process of responding to the questionnaire, the approval letter (see Appendix I) was attached to the questionnaire to show the authenticity of the study. Informed consent is well articulated by Ruan (2005:21) as procedures in which participants choose to participate in an investigation after being informed of the facts that would likely influence their decision. This principle guided the researcher to inform participants of the nature of the study to be conducted and indicated that they had the choice to participate in the study or not and to stop whenever they saw fit. Again, the researcher explain to the respondents the fact that they should not be intimidated by the process but rather be honest in giving their responses because there are no wrong or right responses and any response given will not be used against them. With the approval from the school principal, participants were then given informed consent forms to read and sign (see Appendix G). In doing that, the researcher never promised participants any material benefit, except the experience of being part of the

research. The researcher was also careful in ensuring that the names of the participants were not identified in print. Instead, pseudonyms were used.

4.11 Conclusion

Chapter four presented the scope and structure of the methodology that was adopted in the research. Issues such as choice of methodology, selection of participants, and study validity and reliability were delineated. This qualitative and quantitative study was conducted in a professional and ethical manner so as to maintain the integrity associated with the research methodology which ensured that no participant was harmed in the conduct of the study. It also described the instrument used to collect and analyse data and also highlighted the efforts made to ensure its validity and reliability. In the next chapter the findings and analysis of the study will be presented.

CHAPTER FIVE: DATA FINDINGS, ANALYSIS AND INTERPRETATIONS OF THE STUDY

5.1 Introduction

In this chapter, the results are presented and discussed. The findings of this study are discussed with regard to evaluating the potential impact of the school feeding programme, focusing on school attendance, enrolment and learner academic development in Magog Primary School. This study employed the use of focus group interviews and questionnaires in order to gather the data. The qualitative data collected from the focus group interviews and the questionnaire was presented with the help of tables and graphs and analysed using content analysis.

5.2 Analysis and interpretations of findings from Magog Primary School

Magog Primary School provides admission to a number of children from Magog and its surrounding areas. The position of the school is very strategic because it makes it accessible not only to children from Magog but also those from its surrounding areas. The population in the school consists of only black South African children. The school comprises learners from grades one to seven. The following discussion and analysis gives an overview or picture of the Magog Primary School and its implication for the school feeding programme. Table 5.1 below shows the number of students in Magog Primary School from January 2011 to December 2011.

Table 5.1: Learner population of Magog Primary School in 2012

Grade	Number in grade	Percentage of learners in grade
1	22	6%
2	30	8%
3	32	9%
4	48	14%
5	62	18%
6	79	23%
7	77	22%
Total	350	100%

Grade one and two had the lowest number of learners which was 22 and 30 learners making 6% and 8% of the total population. In the higher grades enrolment was more than double that of grades one and two; grades five, six and seven had a population of 62, 79 and 77 making 18%, 23% and 22% of the total population of Magog Primary School respectively. The implementation of the programme covered all the learners at Magog Primary School and on all days that learners attend school. Secondly, an important issue which emerged from the study was the distance children have to walk to and from school every day and its impact on their energy levels. Learner respondents believe that their energy situation remains at risk when they have to walk long distances to school especially when they did not have a meal in the morning. The figure below represents the distance covered by learner respondents who walk to and from school and those who take transport.
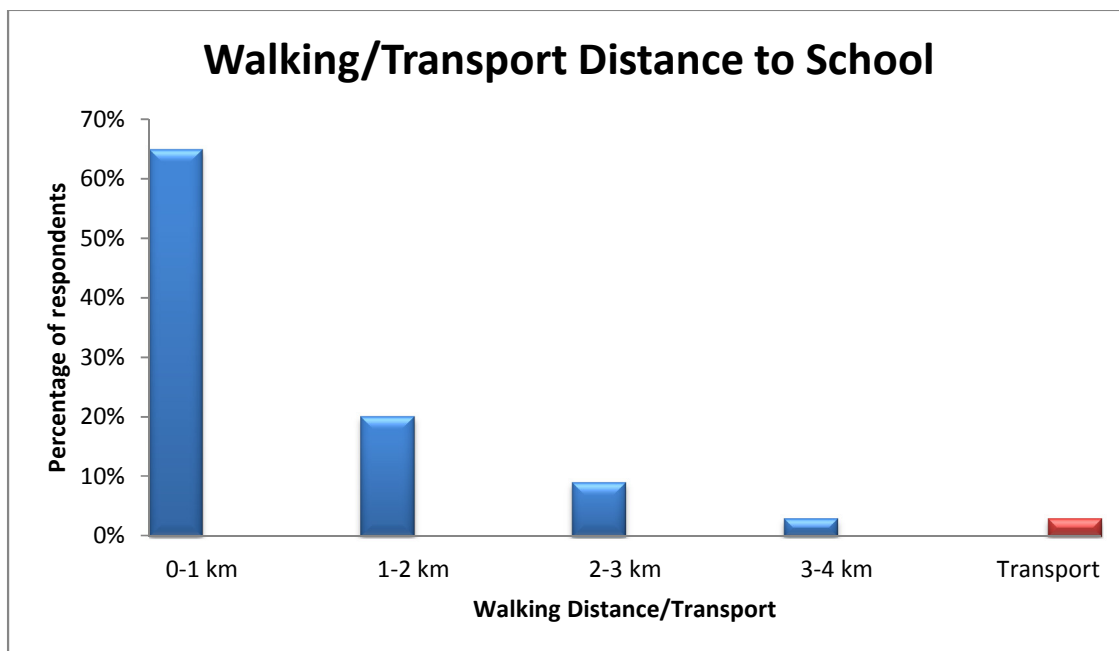
Figure 5.1: Walking Distance to school in percentage

Figure 5.1 above indicates that 3% of the respondents take transport to school while a total of 97% out of 112 learner respondents walk a significant distance to and from school every day. The socio-economic background of these learners makes it difficult for them to afford the cost of

transportation. When asked, one of the learners said, "I walk approximately four kilometres everyday". The learner respondents believed that this exercise in the morning exacerbates their hunger problem and makes it very difficult for them to concentrate at school. One of the learner respondents confirmed this by saying, "I get tired every day when I get to school".

5.2.1 Unemployment levels of child minders in Magog Primary School

The unemployment rate of parents of the learners is a contributory factor to learner hunger in schools. The learner respondents believe that because their parents are not employed, it is difficult for them to provide food for them in the morning before they go to school. We can deduce that lack of breakfast contributes significantly to learners' energy level and by extension their concentration in class. The figure below shows the distribution of learner respondents with minders who are employed and those who are unemployed.
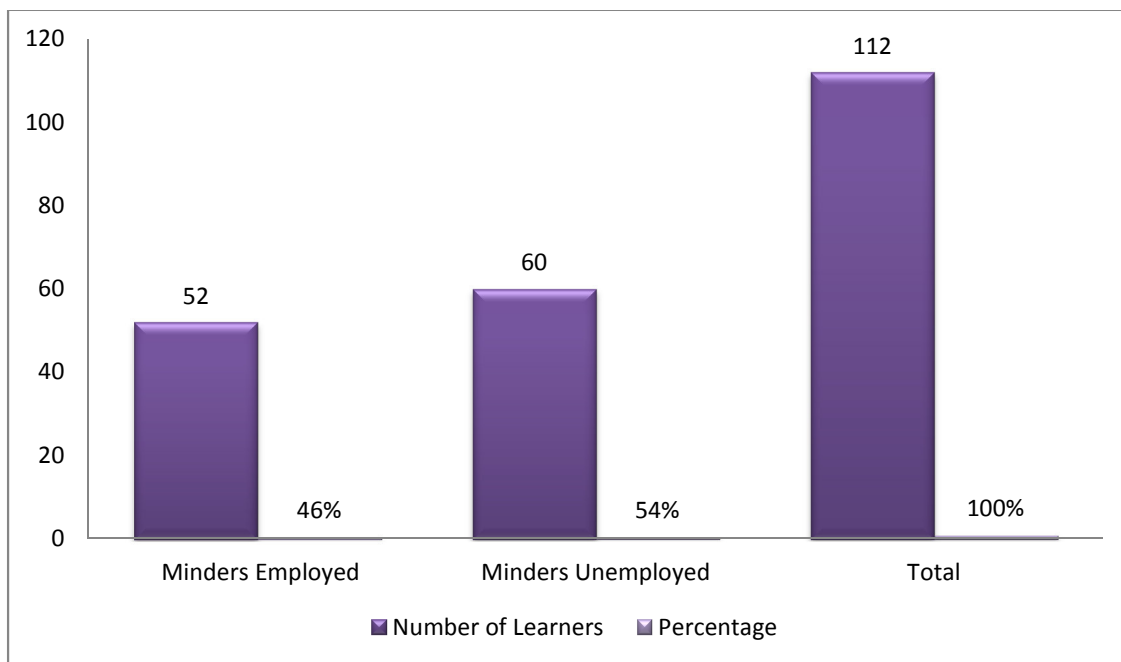
Figure 5.2: Unemployment levels of child minders in Magog Primary School

Figure 5.2 indicates that 52 learners who made up 46% of the total respondents had their parents employed. On the contrary, 54 learners making 54% of the respondents had parents who were unemployed. These unemployed parents depend on pensions and social grants for their survival.

This situation makes it difficult for parents to provide adequate and nutritious meals for their children as stated by Potterton and Dawjee (2004:24).

5.2.2 The functionality of the school feeding programme in Magog Primary School

The selection of Magog Primary School as a provider of the feeding programme was done by the Department of Education in consultation with relevant stakeholders such as wards and the District Education Office in 2006 and in addition to the criteria set by the national government. In order for Magog Primary to participate in the school feeding programme, it had to complete an Application Form and a Certificate of Enrolment of Learners to be fed (see Appendix D). The school submitted these forms to the District Office for consideration, approval and budget allocation. Magog Primary School received an official approval authorising the commencement of the feeding programme according to the prescribed calendar in 2006.

5.2.3 Procurement, delivery, and payment procedures

According to the teacher respondents, the school approaches suppliers and requests a quotation that has a validity of three months. The School Governing Body (SGB) and the selected suppliers signs a contract for six months within which prices of goods should remain fixed for the period of the contract. The contract between the SGB and the suppliers is signed on a prescribed form known as the Service Level Agreement Form (see Appendix E) after which the name of the supplier is submitted to the District Office. In accordance with the KZN-DOE Operational Plan (2001-2012), the school then is issued with a Standard Purchase Order Note which is signed by the school principal and the supplier for the goods required for the month. According to the teacher respondents, when goods are delivered to Magog Primary School, the goods are inspected by the principal and the school governing body for quality and quantity. Upon satisfaction with the delivery, a Claim Form accompanied by an original supplier's invoice and delivery note is submitted to the District Office for approval, processing and subsequent transfer of the amount into the supplier's banking account.

5.2.4 The feeding schedule

According to the school principal, the learners are fed according to the calendar and the selected menu option after considering the nutrient content as set out by the KZN-DOE Operational Plan (2001-2012). The learner and teacher respondents involved in the study confirmed the fact that the school feeding programme is being implemented in the school and learners were fed from Monday to Friday only on school days. The learners are not fed at weekends and school holidays. All the respondents involved in the study also attested to the fact that food is served during the day between the hours of 10:30 to 11:00.The menu option for Magog Primary School is shown in Table 5.2 below.

Table 5.2: Menu option for Magog Primary School

Days	Menu			
Monday	Phutu	Sugar Beans	Fruit	Spinach
Tuesday	Lentil Curry	Boiled Rice	Butternut	
Wednesday	Sugar Beans	Boiled Rice	Braised Spinach	
Thursday	Soup	Sugar Beans	Carrots	
Friday	Pilchards Stew	Bread	Boiled Cabbage	

5.3 Analysis and interpretations of the roles and responsibilities of the stakeholders in Magog Primary School

According to the teacher respondents, the implementation of the school feeding programme in Magog Primary School involves various role-players and the coordination of their responsibilities ensures its success. The role-players such as the Department of Education, the school, the school governing body and the others emerged from the focus group interview as very instrumental in ensuring that the programme meets its objective of improving learner nutrition, school attendance and enrolment and educational outcomes.

The School Governing Body in terms of the South African Schools Act. No.84 of 1996, Section 16(1) has been vested with the governance of Magog Primary School. In relation to this, the SGB played a major role in the school feeding programme. According to the school principal, the

SGB identified the suppliers with the help of the school principal; regularly monitors the process of the programme and reports accordingly. The SGB also communicates problems to the District Office and were not found to be involved in the supplying of the goods for the school. The SGB has been able to encourage a number of parents and community members to be involved in the programme in general and as cooks in particular. This achievement has been possible because the SGB works in close collaboration with the school principal.

The school principal as the head of the school is expected to perform all duties in terms of the South African Schools Act, Sect 16 (3); the Employment of Educators Act 76 of 1998, Sect 7 (1) (a) read in conjunction with PAM (Personal Administrative Measures) Section 4.2 (e) (i). According to the teacher respondents, the principal ensures that the various accounts and records of the school are properly kept and that the school makes the best use of funds for the benefit of the learners in consultation with appropriate structures. The school principal can only ensure that the feeding programme is implemented properly if the school identifies suppliers who are committed to their duty.

According to the teacher respondents, the suppliers who were selected by the SGB of Magog Primary School were found to be up to the task. They delivered goods to the school upon demand with only a few times when delays were reported. They also met the requirements of the District Office in terms of submitting the names of manufacturing firms, technical specifications and costing relating to all commodities. The suppliers purchased wood or gas for the school and paid honoraria to the SGB every month. They provided the school with delivery notes and invoices that were signed and stamped as required by the District Office. Finally, in accordance with the National Environmental Health Policy (2013), the suppliers ensured that their staffs were tidy and clean at all times.

5.4 Analysis and interpretation of the potential impact of the school feeding programme in Magog Primary School

At a quite simple level the school feeding programme is held due to a belief in a reduction of deaths by malnutrition and an overall improvement of children's health by increasing body weights and providing a more balanced diet (Branca and Ferrari, 2002). This in turn leads to an increase in vigour and concentration levels which are relevant to the educational question (Branca and Ferrari, 2002). It was found from the focus group interviews that both learner and teacher respondents believe that the school feeding programme has the potential of improving nutrition, school attendance, enrolment, concentration and educational outcomes.

On the question of whether the school feeding programme is supporting learner nutrition and health, both learner and teacher respondents believe that the programme has helped and is helping them and therefore needs to be continued. These were some of the reasons given: The learners believe that the provision of food gives them the energy to go through their daily academic tasks. They do not feel tired during class. One learner respondent stated, "I become strong when I eat the food". As said by another learner respondent, "I want the government to give us food on Saturdays and Sundays". We can thus argue that the energy provided by the school feeding programme helps learners to be more active and thus makes them more conducive to better concentration and learning. To emphasise this point, the Table below shows the number of teacher respondents who believed that school feeding improves learner nutritional levels and health and, by extension, improves learning in class.

Table 5.3: Teacher responses to whether school feeding potentially impacts on learner nutrition and health

Responses	Yes	No	Total
Number of teacher respondents	9	-	9
Percentage of teacher respondents	100%	-	100%

Table 5.3 above indicates that 100% of teacher respondents believe that the provision of food at school helps to give learners the energy to work at school and subsequently improves their

health. This confirms the study by Hall et al. (2008) that school feeding improves the nutrition and health of children.

The teacher respondents believe that the improvement of nutrition of children translates into school enrolment and attendance and learner concentration in the class. Notwithstanding the fact that there are related factors, they stated categorically that the school feeding programme has potentially influenced the enrolment of Magog Primary School over the years. According to the school principal, children want to be enrolled in the school because they think it is a place where they can supplement the food given to them at home. Learners now come to school on time with fewer cases of absenteeism. According to the teacher respondents, communication between educators and learners improves throughout the day because learners are energised after the feeding. The Table below indicates that the learner and teacher respondents support this claim that the school feeding programme relates significantly to enrolment and attendance.

Table 5.4: Teacher and learner responses to whether school feeding potentially impact on learner enrolment and attendance

Responses to enrolment and attendance	Yes	No	Total
Number of teacher respondents	8	1	9
Percentage of teacher respondents	89%	11%	100%
Number of learner respondents	99	13	112
Percentage of learner respondents	88%	22%	100%

With reference to the impact of school feeding at Magog Primary in Table 5.4 above, 89% and 88% of teacher and learner respondents respectively believe that children come to school because they are motivated by the provision of food, as compared to 11% of teacher and 22% of learner respondents who were of the view that children come to school not on the basis of the provision of food. This finding supports the view of Kazianga et al. (2009) that school feeding increases enrolment and attendance. It is difficult for learners with empty stomachs to concentrate on the process of teaching and learning as perceived by the learner and teacher

respondents. The Table below shows how teachers and learner respondents perceived learner concentration in class following the introduction of the feeding programme.

Table 5.5: Teachers and learner responses to whether school feeding potentially impact on learner concentration

Responses to learner concentration	Yes	No	Total
Number of teacher respondents	9	-	9
Percentage of teacher respondents	100%	-	100%
Number of learner respondents	85	27	112
Percentage of learner respondents	76%	24%	100%

Consistent with the views of Grantham-McGregor (2005), Table 5.5 above indicates that all the teacher respondents including 76% of the learner respondents were of the opinion that learners are able to concentrate properly when they are provided with food. One teacher respondent said, "It helps us to teach without distractions because children concentrate after being fed". The respondents also believe that increase in enrolment, attendance and proper concentration leads ultimately to improving learning outcomes. The Table below shows the number of learner and teacher respondents who believe that the provision of food at Magog Primary School improves learner outcomes.

Table 5.6: Teacher and learner responses to whether school feeding potentially impact on learner achievements

Responses	Yes	No	Total
Number of teacher respondents	9	-	9
Percentage of teacher respondents	100%	-	100%
Number of learner respondents	100	12	112
Percentage of learner respondents	89%	11%	100%

Table 5.6 shows that, all teacher respondents, and 89% of learner respondents at Magog Primary believe that the provision of food at school potentially helps to improve their learning outcomes.

As one learner respondent said, "I come to school almost every school day and I am able to listen to my teacher after the food". All the teacher respondents also confirmed that the feeding programme improves the learning outcomes of these learners because they can concentrate properly after the feeding. This is in line with the assertion of Russell and Nobuntu (2005) that when food is provided to children at school, their educational outcomes are improved.

The principal of Magog Primary School stated that there are other factors, such as increase in population and the desire for parents to send their children to school, which contributed to the increased enrolment. However, the principal alluded to the fact that the school feeding programme plays a major role in the form of an incentive for the children to be enrolled at the school. The principal said that enrolment was between 180 and 230 before the introduction of the feeding programme in 2005 with daily absenteeism hovering around 6%. This situation changed rapidly with the introduction of the feeding programme in 2006 with a rise in enrolment to the capacity of the school which is between 350 and 360 every year. This increase was evident after the introduction of the programme with a minimal rate of absenteeism or sometimes no absenteeism at all. The figure below shows the enrolment figures of Magog Primary School from 2005 to 2011.
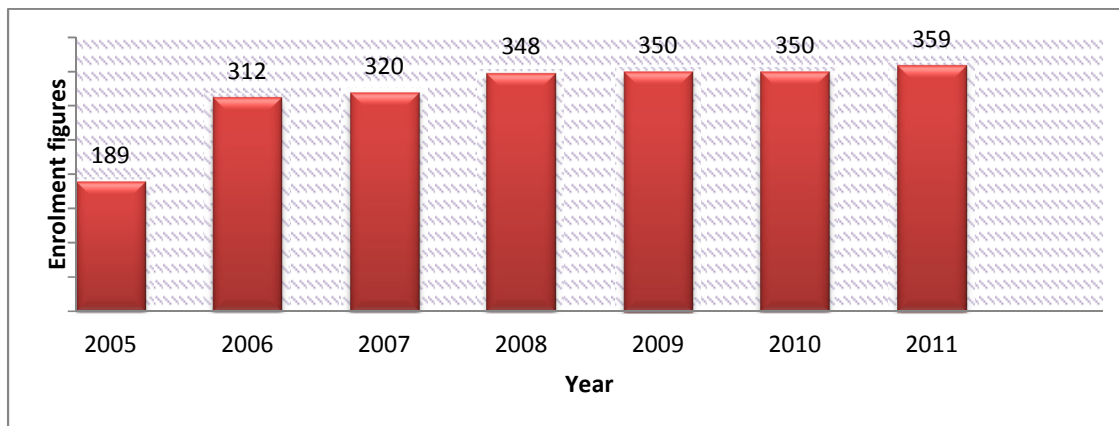
Figure 5.3: Enrolment figures of Magog Primary School from 2005 to 2011

Figure 5.3 above shows an increase in enrolment in Magog Primary school. It shows the enrolment of 189 in 2005, which rose to 312 learners in 2006 when the school feeding programme was introduced to 359 learners in 2011. Further, the Principal of Magog Primary

attested to the fact that, among other factors such good leadership, infrastructure and dedicated teachers; she is of the view that the school feeding potentially improves cognitive development thereby increasing the pass rate of the school. She confirmed that before 2006 the average pass rate of the school was around 38%. The pass rate then shot up to between 68 to 75% after the introduction of the school feeding programme in 2006. The figure below shows the average percentage pass rate of Magog Primary School from 2005 to 2011.
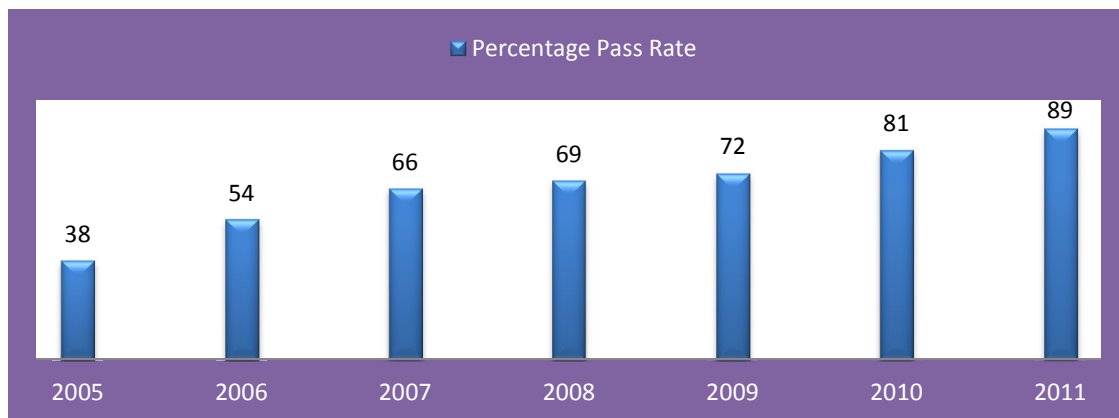
Figure 5.4: Average percentage pass rate from 2005-2011

Figure 5.4 above show an increase in the pass rate of learners in the Magog Primary School from 38% in 2005 before the inception of the school feeding programme to 54% in 2006 when the programme was introduced. The pass rate steadily increased to 89% in 2011.This shows an average increase of 67% from the inception of the programme to 2011. It is important to mention that while there could be other contributing factors to improving learner development, it is probable that the school feeding made a significant contribution to this outcome. The school feeding programme has potentially played a major role in the development of Magog Primary School in general and specifically in terms of learner development. These numerous achievements were not arrived at without bottlenecks which are discussed in the following section.

5.5 Analysis and interpretations of the challenges of school feeding programme in Magog Primary School

Notwithstanding the above mentioned positive impacts of the school feeing programme, there were some challenges that also impacted negatively on learners, the school and the implementation of the programme. These challenges, although not outweighing the benefits of the school feeding programme, need to be looked at. The challenges which emerged from the study are delays in cooking and dishing of food, readiness for class after feeding, and quantity and quality of food, among others. These are analysed as follows:

Some of the learner and teacher respondents agreed there are delays in the serving of the food on some days and attributed this to rainfall, shortage of food, late delivery of foodstuffs and absenteeism by the cooks. The Table below shows the distribution of the learner and teacher respondents in terms of the delays in the serving of the food.

Table 5.7: Responses to whether there are delays in cooking and serving food

Response to delays	Yes	No	Total
Number of teacher respondents	7	2	9
Percentage of teacher respondents	78%	22%	100%
Number of learner respondents	79	33	112
Percentage of learner respondents	71%	29%	100%

Table 5.7 indicates a challenge in the implementation of the school feeding programme at Magog Primary in terms of the time used to serve food to the learners. Seventy-eight percent of the teacher respondents and 71% of the learner respondents were of the opinion that food is delayed on some days. Some of the teacher respondents also alluded to the fact that it takes the cooks more time to dish the food which subsequently affects the learners' readiness for the next lesson. The following figure shows the amount of time used to serve and eat the food as claimed by both learner and teacher respondents.
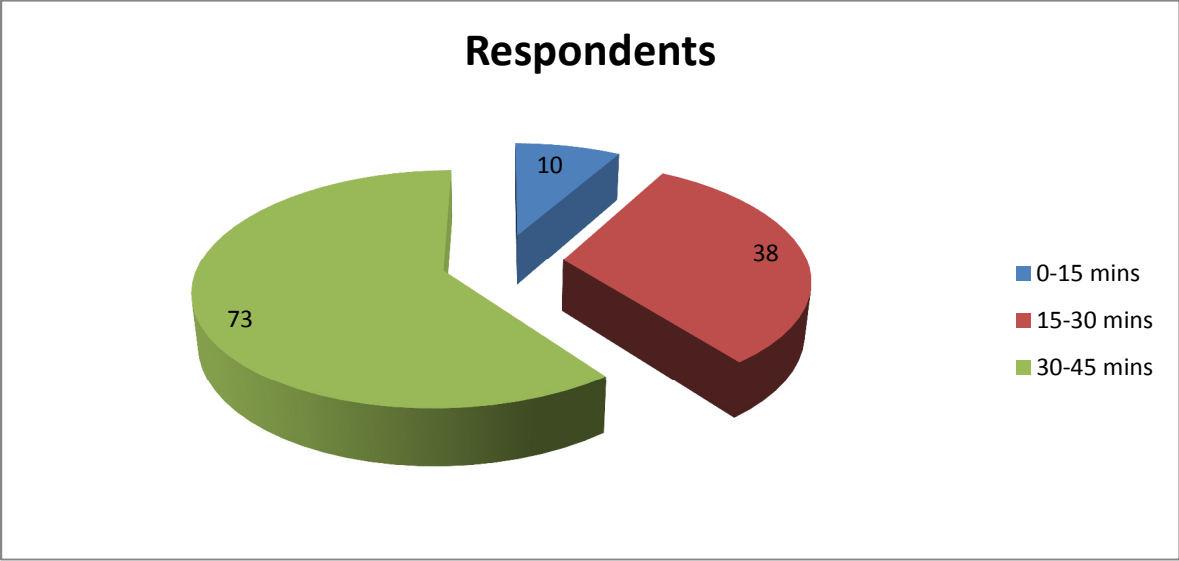
Figure 5.5: Amount of time spent on dishing and eating food

Figure 5.5 shows that 61% of the respondents are of the view that it takes between 30-45 minutes to dish and eat the food provided for the learners. This causes a delay in their preparation for the subsequent lesson. When asked whether the learners become fully prepared for the lesson after break, these were their responses of both learner and teacher respondents in the Table below.

Table 5.8: Responses of teacher and learners regarding readiness for the lesson after feeding

Responses regarding lesson after feeding	Yes	No	Total
Number of teacher respondents	2	7	9
Percentage of teacher respondents	22%	78%	100%
Number of learner respondents	22	90	112
Percentage of learner respondents	20%	80%	100%

Table 5.8 indicates that, out of a total of 121 respondents, 78 % of teacher and 80% of learner respondents believed that the programme eats into learners' instructional time making them ill-prepared for the lesson immediately after break. Instructional time is, therefore, lost due to the delays in the dishing and eating of the food provided. The quantity and quality of the food provided for the learners was also of a major concern to this study. The Table below shows how

the learner and teacher respondents at Magog Primary School perceived the quantity of the food served.

Table 5.9: Responses of teacher and learners to whether the quantity of food served is enough

Responses to quantity of food	Enough	Not enough	Total
Number of teacher respondents	9	-	9
Percentage of teacher respondents	100%	-	100%
Number of learner respondents	96	15	112
Percentage of learner respondents	86%	14%	100%

Table 5.9 above shows that all the teacher respondents and 86% of the learner respondents are of the view that the quantity of the food provided is enough to satisfy them for the period they are going to be at school. However, 14% of the learner respondents still believed that something should be done to the quantity of the food being served. The figure below shows the reaction of both learner and teacher respondents to the quality of food being prepared and served in Magog Primary School.

Table 5.10: Responses of teacher and learners to the quality of food prepared at Magog Primary School

Responses to quality of food	Very good	Good	Satisfactory	Total
Number of teacher respondents	7	2	-	9
Percentage of teacher respondents	78%	22%	-	100%
Number of learner respondents	88	16	8	112
Percentage of learner respondents	79%	14%	7%	100%

Table 5.10 above is an indication that the food served at Magog Primary School is of a good quality but 7% of the learner respondents believe that the quality of food needs to be improved. Healthy school going children is one of the objectives of the school feeding programme. The

Table below shows how the learner and teacher respondents perceived the conditions under which food is prepared and served.

Table 5.11: Responses of teacher and learners to the conditions under which food is prepared and served

Responses to the conditions	Very good	Good	Satisfactory	Total
Number of teacher respondents	2	5	2	9
Percentage of teacher respondents	22%	56%	22%	100%
Number of learner respondents	17	88	7	112
Percentage of learner respondents	15%	79%	6%	100%

Table 5.10 above indicates that majority of the respondents, which makes up 78% of teacher and 94% of learner respondents are satisfied with the conditions under which food is prepared and served. However, two teacher and seven learner respondents making 22% and 6% respectively still believe that the conditions under which food is prepared and served leaves much to be desired and has to be improved. Finally, lateness and sometimes outright absenteeism on the part of the cooks was also a challenge for the proper implementation of the programme. The Table which follows shows how often cooks come to work late or absent themselves entirely as perceived by the learner and teacher respondents.

Table 5.12: Responses of teachers and learners to how often cooks absents themselves

Response	Very often	Often	Not often	Total
Number of teacher respondents	-	2	7	9
Percentage of teacher respondents	-	22%	78%	100%
Number of learner respondents	-	11	101	112
Percentage of learner and teacher respondents	-	10%	90%	100%

From Table 5.12, two teachers and eleven learner respondents making 22% and 10% respectively were of the view that cooks have been absenting themselves quite often and therefore it is a major concern. This results in some learners and teachers being called to assist. The duties of the teachers and the responsibilities of learners in the school are compromised.

Learners complained of insufficient plates, cups and cutlery. They, therefore, have to wait for other learners to finish eating and wash their bowls so that they can collect them and take their turn. The alternative is for two learners to eat from a communal dish which will create inconvenience. They also complained of late delivery of vegetables with the quality of these vegetables sometimes questionable. This, they said, denies them the opportunity to eat healthily.

On the issue of late delivery of vegetables, the school principal said, "I sometimes have to use my personal money to buy vegetables in order for learners to have a complete meal". Again, some teacher respondents said that there have been records of theft of food items. Storage rooms are sometimes broken into by members of the community and foodstuffs stolen. This reaffirms the assertion by Zachritz (2001) that security is a challenge in the implementation of this programme. The ripple effect leads to food a shortage which means that learners have to be sometimes served with insufficient food. Finally, the school timetable is disrupted after food is served. Food is served at 10:30am, and learners have to take food to their classrooms and serve. The following activities follow: they take their time to eat, wash the bowls and then clean their classrooms. These activities disrupt learners' and educators' readiness for the lesson thereafter. Instructional time is wasted and learners lose time that should have been used for learning.

5.6 Conclusion

This chapter presented the findings and data analysis of the study. It covered sections including the operations, impact on malnutrition and cognitive development and challenges. The school feeding programme in Magog Primary School has benefited learners in many ways. The attendance, attention and cognitive development at school have probably improved due to the existence of this programme. The study also found that the nutritional and health status of the learners has reached accepted levels making it potentially possible for learners to undertake their educational responsibilities as required. It is also evident that the successes of the programme were not without bottlenecks. The programme encountered challenges including logistics, quality and quantity of food, late delivery of food items, cook absenteeism and disruptions to teaching time.

The next chapter will dwell on summary, recommendations and conclusions of this study.

CHAPTER SIX: SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

6.1 Introduction

This chapter discusses the conclusions and recommendations of the study. Firstly, it will provide a brief summary of the research literature review. Secondly, it will summarise the findings and analysis including the recommendations of the study. Investing in nutrition is critical and cannot be over-emphasised. School feeding potentially helps to achieve not only academic results but also creates employment opportunities thereby alleviating poverty.

6.2 Summary

In a nutshell, the school feeding programme as operated by the Department of Education, in collaboration with various stakeholders has proved to be an important component of school children in Magog Primary School. It is evident from the study that the community, teachers and the Department of Education should work hand-in-gloves to ensure the successful implementation of the school feeding programme. Among other factors, the school feeding programme plays a major role in the health, attendance and academic achievement of the school children. Notwithstanding the achievements, there are challenges such as delays in cooking, cook absenteeism and disruption of instructional time among others that should be contended with to achieve the objectives of this noble programme.

6.3 Conclusion

The following conclusions can be drawn from this study:

The introduction and implementation of the school feeding can be seen as an absolute necessity at Magog Primary School. This is evidenced from the study where 97% of the learner respondents reported that they walked a long distance every day to school and 54% of these learner respondents have their parents unemployed. These learners rely on the food provided at Magog Primary School as an important component of their daily nutrition.

Eighty-seven percent of the learner respondents reported that the felt energised after being fed, thus study recognises that good nutrition is fundamental to children's current and future health, as well as their growth and learning, as supported by Branca and Ferrari (2002:8). The benefits of developing healthy dietary and lifestyle patterns from an early age onwards can positively impact on people's nutrition and wellness throughout their adult lives, and enhance the productivity of individuals and nations. The study determined that the school feeding programme could have improved tremendously the level of nutrition and health of these learners in the Magog Primary School.

Also, the evidence of 89% of respondents from this study also suggests that the school feeding programme has the potential to contribute to the improvement of enrolment and attendance at school as well as the performance of disadvantaged learners, which is in alignment with the study conducted by Ahmed (2004:32). The study also pointed out that school feeding potentially helps to improve learner concentration in class. This is shown with 78% of both learner and teacher respondents justifying that they believe school feeding improves their concentration in class.

As evidenced from the study, the impact of the school feeding programme in terms of increase in enrolment, attendance and concentration translates to improved academic achievements. This was shown from the study when 90% of learner and teacher respondents supported this assertion. The school feeding programme has also significantly contributed to the local communities in which the participating school is located as advocated by Fumbar (2007). Local people are hired to serve as food suppliers and food handlers. This appointment of local people creates an employment opportunity and income generation for local people in the community of Magog.

In a nutshell, the learners who benefited from the programme seemed to have their health improved, their level of attendance and participation enhanced and their performance in class increased. Both the learners and other significant stakeholders such as the principal, teacher coordinators and members of the School Governing Body shared a common understanding and appreciation of the value of the programme and the impact of the programme on the lives of children in Magog Primary School and the community.

Notwithstanding the positive impacts of the school feeding programme as discussed above, there were a number of bottlenecks that beset the implementation of the programme at the Magog Primary School. The results of the study indicated that equipment such as plates and cutlery, refrigerators and some kitchen fittings were found not to be sufficient, which supports the work done by Afoakwa (2008:2) suggesting that the school feeding programme is successful but with challenges. Suppliers were also found to be unreliable in terms of the time that foodstuffs have to be delivered and the quality of these foodstuffs which confirms the study by Babu (2001).

The survey also identified absenteeism of cooks as a major challenge. The cooks were found to be absenting themselves from their work as reported by 17% of both learner and teacher respondents. This meant that teachers have to stop teaching and cook for learners. This is in agreement with the study by Bastia (2007) which stated that workers sometimes absent themselves, leaving children without food on these days.

Lastly, this study identified security as a challenge of the school feeding programme; this study has shown that secured storage for foodstuffs was also not available, leading to foodstuffs being stolen by members of the community. This creates a shortage of food, thereby resulting in learners not been supplied with food for some days. This is an affirmation of the work done by Zachritz (2004:1).

6.4 Recommendations

Under-nutrition has the potential to erode the human capacity through irreversible and intergenerational effects on cognitive and physical development (Chambers, 1995:5). Several strategies may be implemented to address the persistent under-nutrition problem, and all these have their own advantages and disadvantages. The following recommendations were made in this field:

The Department of Education must advocate for the integration of nutrition education into the school curriculum for all age groups following the intended aim of this programme stipulated in the Education Policy (1996). Likewise, it must promote the integration of nutrition training into the course curriculum of teachers and encourage the establishment of school gardens as an

integral part of the school nutrition programme. This will empower both the teachers and learners to understand the demand for the nutrition programme such as the school feeding programme and how it should be implemented. Furthermore, school vegetable gardens can also be used to supplement the feeding programme.

As already proposed by Hines (1998:23), the government must utilise a multi-disciplinary and multi-stakeholder holistic approach to support effective school-based nutrition programmes and policies at national and local levels. This will help promote the active involvement of parents, communities and local government in the development and implementation of school nutrition programmes. Furthermore, in support of the study conducted by the Child Health Unit (1997), plans must be made to create and provide adequate infrastructure such as refrigerators, kitchens, storage space and security to facilitate the implementation of the school feeding programme.

There should be concerted efforts in both provinces and at national level to actively involve local communities in the provision and supply of food at the schools that are participating in the programme. This initiative will significantly contribute to local economic development. However, there were also concerns about the capacity of the local food suppliers such as late delivery and poor quality of food. It is therefore recommended that local food handlers and suppliers should be capacitated by the provincial Departments of Education to carry out their tasks effectively and efficiently as stipulated by the Education Policy (1996) and suggested by Mbebetho and Wilderman (2005:3).

The provincial departments of education are the custodians of the programme and are well informed as to how the programme should be implemented. Some of the food handlers and food suppliers have indicated that they have received adequate training at the beginning of the programme, but it seems as if regular training and induction is needed to deepen the quality of the programme. This study also highlights evidence of late deliveries and poor quality of food delivered, a view already established by Jack (2005:10).Several cases of non-delivery, delays in delivery and delivery of wrong or poor quality of food were reported in Magog Primary School. It is important that a tight system is put in place to monitor the supply of food. Without such a

system, suppliers may fraudulently invoice the Department as if they have supplied the required quantity and quality of food to the contracted schools.

The Departments of Education could be paying the suppliers money for services not rendered satisfactorily. The respective departments can only know and stop unnecessary payment to the food suppliers if correct information is supplied to them. Therefore, an adequate system should be developed and put in place to ensure that there are regular quality checks and controls in place during the delivery of food at the respective schools. The study recommends that the school feeding programme should operate on a daily basis including Saturdays and Sundays, and must be extended to include all learners wherever possible. Furthermore, monitoring and evaluation should be strengthened to ensure that appropriate menus indicated by the District Office are used to meet the nutritional needs of the learners.

Finally, the study found that there are not enough studies done on the monitoring and evaluation of the programme. The study, therefore, recommends that further studies should be directed to this area to allow the Department of Education and other stakeholders to have a complete overview of the progress of the programme. These recommendations will go a long way to help attain the set objectives of the feeding programme such as improving nutrition and health, enrolment, attendance and cognitive development, not forgetting the unintended benefits of poverty alleviation through empowerment and capacity building.

6.4 Conclusion

Extensive research has proved that under-nutrition affects the chances that a child will go to school, and stay in school and perform well. Therefore, direct action, such as establishing school feeding programmes, should be taken to improve nutrition for school children and their educational outcomes in general. The study was limited to the evaluation of the school feeding programme in Magog Primary school. This minimises the generalisation of the findings to all South African schools where school feeding is being implemented. However, the findings of the study have thrown more light on the implementation, impact on learner development and poverty alleviation, and the challenges of the school feeding programme.

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Appendices

Questionnaire for Learners

Biographical information

1. Grade:

2. Group Number:

3. Total Number in the Group:

4. Average age of boys:

5. Average age of girls:

6. Race:

African: Coloured: Indian   White:

7. How many students in this group have their parents employed?

8. How many students in this group have their parents not employed?

9. How many students in this group walk to school everyday?

10. How many students in this group take transport to school everyday?

11. Is the school feeding programme implemented in your school?

Yes

No

12. Is food served everyday of the week?

Yes

No

13. When is food served during the day?

Before school

During school

After school

14. Is food enough for everyone?

Yes

No

15. Food is prepared under which of the following conditions?

Bad   [   ]

Satisfactory   [   ]

Very good   [   ]

16. Do you always receive food on time?

Yes   [   ]

No   [   ]

17. How long does it take for all learners to be served with food?

0-15mins   [   ]

15-30mins   [   ]

30-45mins   [   ]

18. Do learners sometimes have to play any role in the preparation of the food?

Yes   [   ]   No   [   ]

19. What role do they sometimes play--

20. Does the school provide learners with plates, spoons and cups?

Yes   [   ]   No   [   ]

21a. Is the food enough every day for all the learners?   Yes [   ]   No [   ]

21b. How do learners eat if the plates, spoons and cups are not enough?----------------------------
----

22. Do you think the programme should be stopped or continued?

Stopped   [   ]

 Continue   [   ]

23. If you think it must be stopped, why?--

----

24. If you think it must be continued, why?--

Appendix B

1. Questionnaire for Educators:

2. Biographical Information

3. Subject Area:

4. Gender: Female [   ] Male [   ]

5. Race:

   African: [   ] Coloured: [   ] Indian: [   ] White: [   ]

6. Age

   Below 20: [   ] 21-30: [   ] 31-40: [   ] 41-50: [   ] 51+ [   ]

7. No. of years taught in this school: [   ]

   To unpack and understand how the school feeding programme operates:

8. Is food prepared in your school every day?

   Yes [   ] No [   ]

9. What type of food is prepared for learners?--
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10. When is food served to learners in the day?

Before school [   ] During school [   ] After school [   ]

11. What is/are the role(s) of an educator in implementing the programme? ------------------
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12. What is/are the role(s) of learners in implementing the programme?

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13. What is/are the role(s) of the community in implementing the programme?------------------
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14. The potential impact of the school feeding programme---
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15. What are the advantages of the school feeding programme on:

Learners:--

Educators:--

Community (parents):--

<u>Challenges of the school feeding programme</u>

16. What are some the challenges facing the school in terms of this programme in areas such
as:

Implementation:--

Funding:--

Supply and storage:---

Quantity and Quality:---

Equipment (bowls, plates, spoons):--

School (contact time):---

----

17. Does the school have a team to monitor and evaluate the implementation and success of
the programme?

Yes   [＿＿＿＿]   No   [＿＿＿＿]

18. Recommendations

What are some of the areas of the programme that you would like it to be improved or changed
and how?--

Appendix C

KWAZULU-NATAL DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION

APPLICATION FORM- (NATIONAL SCHOOL NUTRITION PROGRAMME)

(Period: 1 April 2009-31 March 2010) (Primary and Combined Schools Only)

Name of the School   :…………………………………..District:………………………..

EMIS Number   :…………………………………..Circuit:………………………..

Type of School (e.g Rural/Farm)…………………………….Ward:………………………...

Quintile Number   :……………………………………”Fee” or “No Fee”:…………

CERTIFIED ENROLMENT FIGURE FOR 2010 (as per Snap Survey)……… (NB: The Department reserves the right to change the figure if it is discovered that a wrong figure was given). Note: No school can start feeding without an Approval Letter

The following members on the SBG shall constitute an SGB sub-committee responsible for NSNP:

No	Full Name	Position	Identity No	Signature	Telephone No
1		Chairperson(SGB)			
2		Vice Chairperson (SGB)			
3		Treasurer(SGB)			
4		Secretary(SGB)			
5		Principal			
6		Educator(SGB)			
7		Additional Member of SGB			

Menu items to be served must be selected by the SGB from the Menu Options (Appendix E) and must be listed below

Monday   : Menu Option No……………….Thursday : Menu Option No…………..

Tuesday   : Menu Option No……………….Friday   : Menu Option No………….

Wednesday   : Menu Option No…………………

SCHOOL STAMP

Appendix D

2. KWAZULU-NATAL DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION

CERTIFICATION OF LEARNERS TO BE FED

Name of School……………………………………………Year……………….…

EMIS No………………………………………………...…District:…………………

Snap Survey Total Enrolment…………………………..…Circuit………………..

1. NUMBER OF LEARNERS TO BE FED

Official Enrolment	Grade R	Grade 1	Grade 2	Grade 3	Grade 4	Grade 5	Grade 6	Grade 7	Total
2009/10									
Grade 8	Grade 9	Grade 10	Grade 11	Grade 12					

2. NATURE OF SCHOOL (Tick whichever is applicable to your school)

Farm School	Rural School	School Serving Informal Settlement	Urban School	Grade R
PHASE	PRIMARY	COMBINED	SECONDARY	SPECIAL

We the undersigned certify that the above information is correct

……………………………   ……………………… ……………….

Principal's Initial and Surname   Signature   Date

……………………………   ……………….… …………….

Chairperson of SGB's Initial and Surname   Signature   Date

……………………………   ……………………… …………….

Ward S.E.M's Initial and Surname   Signature   Date

……………………………   ……………………. …………….

District CES-SDSS/Assistant Manager-NSNP   Signature   Date

School Stamp

	Ward/Circuit Stamp	District Stamp

Appendix E

SERVICE LEVEL AGREEMENT FORM

The Service Provider: … …………………………………………………………………...

<div align="center">and</div>

The SGB of: ……………………………………………………………………………….

(HEREINAFTER REFERRED TO AS THE PARTIES)

Whereas the supplier acknowledge that he/she has understood the contents of the standard quotation form and the operational guidelines from the National School Nutrition Programme as issued in April 2004.The parties therefore agree as follows:

1. PLACE OF DELIVERY

The service provider shall deliver the supplies at the school or at a place designated in writing to the service provider by the governing body seven days before the date of delivery of supplies.

2. TIME OF DELIVERY

The governing body shall, in writing, and before seven days before the date of delivery, inform the supplier of the time of delivery of supplies.

3. QUALITY AND QUANTITY OF SUPPLIES

The suppliers shall deliver food quantities and quality as laid down by the Department as reflected in the guidelines

4. PAYMENT

4.1 The governing body shall not pay the supplier for services rendered. Instead the Department of Education (Head Office) will transfer funds into the service providers authorised bank account for valid claims received.

4.2 The service provider must provide an Honorarium of R500 per 500 learners and part of this payment must be made by the supplier irrespective of payment by the Department of Education.

4.3 The service provider must provide gas or wood whichever is applicable to an amount of R600 per 500 learners.

5. BREACH OF THE TERMS OF THIS AGREEMENT

5.1 In the event of any breach of the agreement and operational guidelines, the innocent party shall have the right to:

5.1.1 Cancel the agreement, or

5.1.2 Claim specific performance, and

5.1.3 Damages after giving the guilty party 15 days written notice of the breach, calling upon the party concern to remedy the breach.

5.2 The notice referred to in 5.1 shall be delivered by hand or posted by pre-paid registered post to the address chosen by parties as the address for service of any notice and processes.

5.3 should the breach involve the failure by the supplier to provide supplies to the school on the date and time as directed by the governing body, the governing body shall write a letter to the supplier cancelling the agreement. The date of cancellation shall be the date of the letter to the supplier

6. PERIOD OF THE AGREEMENT: 1 April 2010-30 September 2010

GENERAL PROVISIONS

7.1 The parties agree to the following addresses as their respective addresses where they will accept service of notice or process in terms of this agreement.

7.2 No indulgences shown by any party to the other may be regarded as a waiver of the rights in terms of this agreement.

--------------------------------   ------------------------------------

Chairperson of SGB   Service Provider

Signed at ---------------------------------------on the --------------------day of -----------------------
2010

SCHOOLS MUST KEEP COPIES OF THIS AGREEMENT AND HAND COPIES OF THE SAME TO THE SERVICE PROVIDER

Appendix F

SERIAL NUMBER:

KWAZULU-NATAL DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION

CLAIM FORM (PSNP)

NAME OF SCHOOL-----------------------------------EMIS NUMBER------------------------

We the undersigned declare that feeding has taken place for the month of ------------at the above mentioned school. We further declare that-------------number of children benefited in terms of the signed contractual agreement between the SGB and the Service Provider.

We claim an amount of ------------- which was utilised for this purpose. All supporting documentations are safely kept in the school for audit purposes.

---------------------------------   -------------------------   --------------

SIGNATURE OF PRINCIPAL   PRINT NAME   DATE

---------------------------------   -------------------------   --------------

SIGNATURE OF CHAIRPERSON   PRINT NAME   DATE

---------------------------------   -------------------------   --------------

SIGNATURE OF SGB MEMBER   PRINT NAME   DATE

---------------------------------   -------------------------   --------------

SIGNATURE OF EDUCATOR   PRINT NAME   DATE

SCHOOL STAMP

Appendix G

PARTICIPANTS' CONSENT FORM

Full Title of Project   :   An Evaluation of the School feeding programme:
A Case Study of Magog Primary School

Name   :   Frederick Acheampong Dei

Contact address of Researcher   :   Margate Middle School O Box 1901, Margate
4275.

Please Initial Box

I confirm that I have read and understand the information sheet for
the above study and have had the opportunity to ask questions.

☐

I understand that my participation is voluntary and that I
am free to withdraw at any time, without giving reason.

☐

3.   I agree to take part in the above study.

☐

_____   _____   _____

Name of Participant   Date   Signature

Appendix H

Margate Middle School

P O Box 1901

Margate ext.3

4275

The district Director

Department of Education

Port Shepstone

4240

Dear Sir,

REQUSET FOR APPROVAL TO CONDUCT RESEARCH AT MAGOG PRIMARY SCHOOL

I write to request for approval to conduct a research study at Magog Primary School. The objectives of this study are as follows:

- ❖ To explore the school feeding programme as it is understood and applied.
- ❖ To determine the role and function of government and other stakeholders in the school feeding programme at Magog Primary School.
- ❖ To determine the relationship between school feeding and learner academic performance.
- ❖ To identify the challenges of the school feeding programme particularly at Magog Primary School.

I would like to assure the Department that the necessary ethical considerations will be followed to ensure the safety of participants.

Yours faithfully

FA Dei

Annexure I

Enquires: Mr. WM Sibiya   **Reference:** Research-Magog Pr Sch-FA Dei   **Date:** 17 January 2011

Attention: Mr. Frederick Acheampong Dei
C/o Margate Middle School
P.O.BOX 1901
Margate Ext 3
4275

Mr. Dei

Re: Application for permission to do a research study in Magog Primary School.

Further to your letter dated 21-12-2010 which has reference.

Permission is hereby granted to you to do your research at the above-mentioned school, subject to the following conditions:-

1. The principal, educators and learners are under no obligation to assist you in your research.
2. The principal, educators and the learners should not be identifiable in any way from your research.
3. You are to make all the arrangements concerning your research.
4. Educator programmes are not to be interrupted.
5. The research is to be conducted from February 2011 to November 2011.
6. Your research will be limited to the above-mentioned school.
7. A copy of this correspondence is submitted to the Circuit Manger and the principal of Magog Primary School.
8. A brief summary of the content of your research to be provided to this office.
9. Your research is not to be conducted during the time of writing examinations in the school.

The District Office wishes you success and fully supports your commitment to research.

Thank you for your co-operation.

District Director
Mr. WM Sibiya

Date

PROVINCE OF KWAZULU-NATAL
UMNYANGO WEMFUNDO
DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION
DEPARTEMENT VAN ONDERWYS

2011 -03- 0 3

ISIKHWAMA SEPOSI
PRIVATE BAG/PRIVAAT SAK
PORT SHEPSTONE, 4240
UGU DISTRICT OFFICE

X860

...dedicated to service and performance
beyond the call of duty.