SCHOOL CHOICE AND COMMUTING IN LADYBRAND, FREE STATE: A SOCIO-ECONOMIC ANALYSIS

by

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ABSTRACT

This study explored school choice and school commuting in the town of Ladybrand in the Free State Province. A mixed research method (survey and qualitative interviews) was used. Grade 8 parents from all three public secondary schools in Ladybrand were surveyed. Members of the School Governing Bodies (SGB) and School Management Teams (SMT) were also interviewed. The study found that all three schools are dominated by Black African children, although Ladybrand High (a fee-charging, former Model C, whites-only school), had a multiracial learner profile. Most Black African learners in Ladybrand High came from lower to middle-class working homes in the neighbouring township. Lesotho nationals were also enrolled in this school. Most Ladybrand High learners had parents who are married, financially resourced, educated, and working in skilled or professional jobs. In terms of Lereng Secondary and Sehlabeng Secondary School (both no-fee township schools), most learners hail from poorly educated, single-parent homes, where the parents are either working in semi-skilled or unskilled jobs or are unemployed. None were from Lesotho. Their financial status is weak. These parents said they selected the school based on proximity and low cost, whereas quality of education drove enrolment in Ladybrand High. Thus, the schools in the Ladybrand area demonstrate that class segregation has replaced apartheid race segregation. Learners from Ladybrand High commute using a variety of transport modes, while learners in township schools either use a subsidised government bus or walk – in some cases long distances if they live on neighbouring farms. The township schools complained of poor learner discipline and feeling unsafe due to local gang activities, both of which negatively impact on the functioning of the schools. This was not the case with Ladybrand High. While all the schools offer extra lessons, the two township schools hold extensive extra-lesson sessions and matriculation study camps.

Key words: school segregation, racial segregation, learners' mobility, school choice, township school, quality education, no-fee schools

DECLARATION

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Title: **SCHOOL CHOICE AND COMMUTING IN LADYBRAND, FREE STATE: A SOCIO-ECONOMIC ANALYSIS**

I declare that "**SCHOOL CHOICE AND COMMUTING IN LADYBRAND, FREE STATE: A SOCIO-ECONOMIC ANALYSIS**", is my own work, and that all the sources that I have used or quoted have been indicated and acknowledged by means of complete references.
I further declare that I submitted the dissertation to originality checking software, and that it falls within the accepted requirements for originality.

I further declare that I have not previously submitted this work, or part of it, for examination at Unisa for another qualification or at any other higher education institution.'

P.S. Mnguni **20 August 2020**

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LIST OF ABBREVATIONS

DBE – Department of Basic Education

HOD – Head of Department

LF – Learning Facilitator

LOLT – Language of Learning and Teaching

LRC – Learner Representative Council

NCLB Act – No Child Left Behind Act

NEPA – National Education Policy Act

SASA – South African School Act

SBST – School-Based Support Team

SECUFE – Sehlabeng Cultural Festival

SES – Socio-economic Status

SGB – School Governing Body

SMT – School Management Team

UK – United Kingdom

UNISA – University of South Africa

USA – United States of America

TABLE OF CONTENTS **PAGE**

CHAPTER 4: Findings: Parental questionnaire

CHAPTER 5: Findings: School Management Team and School Governing Body Interviews

LIST OF TABLES

LIST OF FIGURES

LIST OF APPENDICES

CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION

1.1 Introduction

In South Africa the apartheid regime created a situation whereby people of colour had extremely limited opportunities to access quality education (Languille, 2016; Zoch, 2017; McKay, Mafanya & Horn, 2018). Apartheid education, in fact, purposely created social and economic separation of races by providing fewer resources to schools for people of colour, preventing upward social mobility for such people, with Black African people the most severely affected (Fleisch 2008; Hill, 2016). White learners had access to well-resourced public schools with many well qualified teachers, and these schools were in areas designated as white space. Black African learners were placed in racially separate schools – a situation which arose due to residential segregation (Msila, 2009). Thus, under apartheid, poor Black African households generally had little choice, other than to let their children enter poor-quality township or rural schools, although there were a few privately run mission schools catering for Black Africans (Chisholm, 2017; Wiener, 2017). A few parents of all races enrolled their children in private schools, although for Black African people this was significantly limited due to the cost (Machard & McKay, 2015). In the post-apartheid era many of the former 'whites only' public schools have been able to hold on to their relative privilege, and more affluent families of all races are now accessing them (De Kadt, Norris, Fleisch, Richter & Alvanides, 2014).

Unfortunately, in the post-apartheid era, township schools continue to be racially segregated, and their infrastructural backlog is mostly intact (Pienaar & McKay, 2014; McKay, 2015). Consequently, now that Black African parents have a legal right to choose in which school to enrol their children, many are enrolling their children in schools that are found in the former white areas, resulting in the rise of a school commute, as learners reside in townships but travel to be educated in schools located in the former 'white only' areas (Msila, 2005; 2009; Bell & McKay, 2011; De Kadt et al., 2014; Ndimande & Neville, 2018). Thus, many Black African learners have a highly mobile daily routine, characterised by an extended school commute (Lancaster, 2011). It has been argued, however, that this commute is economically, socially and environmentally unsustainable (Kenworthy, 2006; Machard, 2014). This is especially true when learners are using a quasi-public minibus taxi system that is neither cheap nor safe (McKay, 2020). Thus, it is important to look at the journeys undertaken by learners from their locations to their schools (Machard & McKay, 2015). As Elias and Katoshevski-Cavari (2014) state, there is a lack of studies on children's travelling behaviour. It is only in recent years that

interest has grown in studying this issue. This study thus seeks to contribute to this research area. On this basis, this study sought to understand whether the school choice and school commute in South Africa, noted in other studies (see Machard, 2014; Hunter, 2017; Wiener, 2017; De Kadt, Van Heerden, Richter & Alvanides, 2019), are also occurring in the Free State. As the author had close ties to the village of Ladybrand, this urban settlement was selected as a case study. Notably, Ladybrand as the study area is under researched in terms of school choice and school commuting. Ladybrand is also a closed area with small community and all the public high schools could be included in the research which is not be the case with bigger study areas.

1.2 Problem Statement

Ladybrand, like most South African urban areas, has a spatial geography strongly influenced by apartheid spatial policies. There is an historically white area near the town centre and historically Black areas on the periphery. The three public high schools follow this racial geographic pattern. There are no private schools in Ladybrand. Importantly, Ladybrand's educational geography is in line with those described in other parts of the country (De Kadt et al., 2019). This apartheid urban design, forces township children wishing to access the former white schools to either move to the former white areas or travel from the periphery to the town centre (Weiner, 2017). For much of South Africa, the option Black African parents have chosen is to remain living in the township and paying for their children to commute to schools outside of the township (Lancaster, 2011; McKay, 2019). This study sought to answer various questions connected to the school choice and school commuting occurring within Ladybrand. It contributes to one's understanding of school commuting and choice, as the current literature is dominated by work conducted in the Western Cape, Gauteng and, to a lesser degree, KwaZulu-Natal and the Eastern Cape (Pienaar & McKay, 2014; McKay, 2020). One of the consequences of commuting to school is its effect on the schools themselves, as some experience over-enrolment while others have suffer from under-enrolment (Maile, 2004). In Port Elizabeth and Soweto, Johannesburg, for example, many township schools have closed due to dwindling enrolment (Bisschoff & Koebe, 2005; Msila, 2009; McKay, 2019).

1.3 Rationale/Justification for the study

Hofmeyr and Lee (2002) noted that there is an unusual pattern of children commuting to school in South Africa. Most of these school commuters are Black Africans (Futoshi, 2011). It is posited that the commute is a result of the gap that still exists in the quality of education

provided by the schools previously designed for Black Africans, compared to former white designated schools. Although wealthy parents can afford residential mobility (moving to be close to a 'good' school), less-financially advantaged parents remain in apartheid-designed residential areas and elect to have their children commute to better schools (Selod & Zenou, 2001; 2003; Hill, 2016; Hunter, 2017; Zoch, 2017). Black African parents who are willing and able to incur transportation and school fees, enrol their children to schools perceived to offer better quality education, while disadvantaged learners remain enrolled in poor performing schools (De Kadt et al., 2019). That said, school commuting is experienced the world over (De Kadt et al., 2019). Additionally, commuting is not only a cost issue (Weber, 2002; Lemon, 2004; Gibbons & Machin, 2008). Travelling long distances to and from school can have a negative impact on learners, especially if the journey is unsafe (Bell, 2007; De Kadt et al., 2019). They often arrive at school tired, and struggle to concentrate in class. They face a long day at school and long journey home (Weiner, 2017). Long commutes can impact on the learner's academic performance (Du Toit, 2008).

1.4 Aims and objectives

This study sought to examine school choice and school commuting undertaken by learners in all three public high schools in Ladybrand, with a focus on time, cost and mode, as well as the reasons for the school choice. The following objectives were set out for the study:

- Determine the demographic and socio-economic profile of learners enrolled in all three public high schools in Ladybrand.
- Determine the extent to which the public high schools in Ladybrand are racially, socially and economically integrated.
- Determine the extent, causes and consequences of school choice and commuting in all three public high schools in Ladybrand.
- Determine the costs, distance and time associated with school choice and school commuting in Ladybrand.

1.5 Research Questions

In order to achieve the objectives, the study sought to answer several research questions relating to school choice and school commuting, namely:

Research Question 1: What is the demographic and socio-economic profile of learners enrolled in all three public high schools found in Ladybrand?

Research Question 2: What influences parental school choice and commuting with respect to high school?

Research Question 3: By what means, at what cost and how long does the daily commute take to school?

Research Question 4: What impact does school choice and commuting have on the functioning of the three high schools in Ladybrand?

1.6 Research Design/Methodology Overview

This study was conducted by means of the case study research method and all three public schools in Ladybrand, Free State formed the population. There are no private schools in the settlement. The case study method allows the researcher to focus on wider phenomena being studied. It also enables the researcher to study various research locations at the same time – thus be able to access individuals and multiple sources of data, simultaneously. The researcher is also able to answer 'how' and 'why' questions relating to the phenomenon being studied (Zucker, 2009). Through a case study, deeper perceptions and experiences of the research population are taken into consideration, in order to give explanations to everyday encounters (Radebe, 2015). The case study method was applicable, as each high school can be individually scrutinised, but also allow for a unified analysis that can relate to all the high schools in Ladybrand. The study followed a mixed method approach. This was a parental questionnaire survey and interviews with each School Governing Body (SGB) and School Management Team (SMT). Creswell (2014) believes that combining the element of each research method to provide descriptive data, reduces the weakness of each method (Venkatesh, Brown & Bala, 2013).

Ethical guidelines outlined by UNISA were followed. Permission to conduct the research was granted by UNISA, the Free State Department of Education, school principals, SGBs and SMTs. Participants were informed that participation was voluntary, and they could drop out of the study at any time. Purposive sampling was utilised to select the grades to participate in the study. Data collected was analysed by a statistician and coding adopted from Makoelle (2011) and Palahicky (2017), a guideline developed by Strauss and Corbin (1990).

1.7 Description of the Study Site

Ladybrand is one of the five towns that form the Mantsopa Local Municipality, in the Free State province. It was founded in 1867, and its economy is centred on agricultural activities. It is located on the Maloti Drakensberg Route and is very close to Lesotho. Many of its residents are daily commuters from Lesotho. The town is considered as the gateway for Lesotho residents to enter South Africa. The population of Ladybrand is roughly 4 218 (Statistics South Africa, 2011; De Klerk, 2019). In terms of age, Ladybrand has about 22.9% of inhabitants aged between 0-14 years, 69.8% aged between 15-64 years, and 7.3% over 65 years of age. In terms of race, Ladybrand has a majority white population (41.2%), followed by Black Africans (37.2%), Coloureds (13.1%), Indians/Asians (4.7%) and other (3.7%). The dominant language spoken in the area is Afrikaans (40.9%), followed by Sesotho (31.1%) and English (20.4%) (De Klerk, 2019).

In terms of marital status, the majority recorded their status as never married (45.6%), followed by married (41.1%), living together (5.3%) and widowed (5.0%). The ratio of male to female is unequal, with females at 51%, typical of most of South Africa. About 32% of households are female headed, slightly less than the national average of 37.9% (Statistics South Africa, 2011). The rate of unemployment in the Free State in general is a serious challenge, higher than the national average (of 29.1%). Thabo Mofutsanyane district, with Mantsopa municipality, has a formal unemployment rate of 35.1% (Statistics South Africa, 2011). Most Black African people in the area are poor. White people typically earn much more than the other population groups.

In terms of the schools that formed part of the study, Ladybrand High School is a former Model C whites only school situated near the town centre. Lereng Secondary and Sehlabeng Secondary Schools are found in the peripheral Black African township and previously designed as Black African schools (see Figure 1.1).

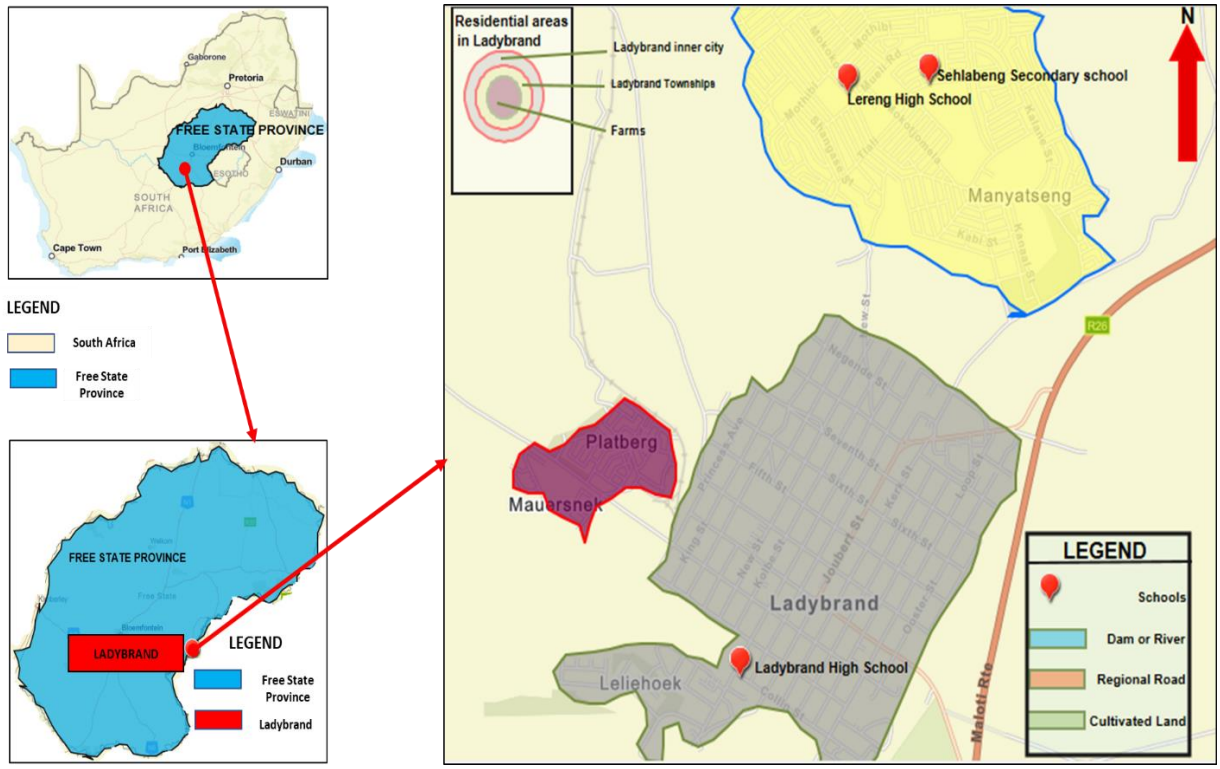

Figure 1.1: Ladybrand Public Secondary Schools. (**Source**: Own).

Ladybrand has three public high schools: Ladybrand High School, Lereng Secondary School and Sehlabeng Secondary School. Ladybrand High School is located at Collin street, Ladybrand. It is a Section 21 (non-profit) school and classified as a Quintile 5 school, dependent mostly on school fees. In the year 2016, the school had 430 learners served by 21 teachers, with a learner teacher ratio of 21:1. Ladybrand High's academic performance has been consistent in the past two years. In 2017, the school obtained a 100% matric pass rate (72 learners). In 2018 they also obtained a 100% matric pass rate (71 learners).

Lereng Secondary School is in Matleleng Street, Manyatseng, Ladybrand. It is a Section 21 school and classified as a no-fee school. In 2016, the school had 1212 learners served by 42 teachers, with a learner teacher ratio of 29:1. In terms of school performance, in 2017 the school obtained a 100% matric pass rate (131 learners), and in 2018, the school obtained a 93.3% matric pass rate (165 learners, of whom 154 passed).

Sehlabeng Secondary School is located at M357, Manyatseng, Ladybrand. It is a Section 21 school and classified as a no-fee school. In 2016, the school had 738 learners served by 27 teachers, with a student teacher ratio of 28:1. In terms of school performance, the matric pass rate was 80.9% in 2017 (115 learners of whom 93 passed) and in 2018, the matric pass rate was 63.6% (88 learners of whom 55 passed) (see Table 1.1):

Table 1.1: Comparison of Ladybrand High Schools. (**Source**: Own).

School	**Quintile Level**	**No. of Matric Learners**		**Matric Pass rate**	
		2017	**2018**	**2017**	**2018**
Ladybrand High School	Level 5	72	71	100%	100%
Lereng Secondary School	Level 2	131	165	100%	93.3%
Sehlabeng Secondary School	Level 2	155	88	80.9%	63.6%

1.8 Chapter outline

CHAPTER 1 introduced the study undertaken, and discusses the problem statement, the rationale of the study, the aims and the objectives, research questions, methodology undertaken and the description of the study area.

CHAPTER 2 discusses international literature on the topics of school choice and school segregation and covers South African literature on the education system of South Africa in both the pre- and post-apartheid eras, school choice and school commuting.

CHAPTER 3 gives a full overview of the research methodology, ethics and ethical issues followed, research question and consistency matrix, data collection methods, data analysis and objectivity, reliability, validity of the research, limitations of the study and research cost.

CHAPTER 4 discusses the findings of the parental questionnaire.

CHAPTER 5 discusses the findings from the SGB and SMT interviews.

CHAPTER 6 focuses on the discussion of the research results of the parental questionnaire, as well as those of the SGB and SMT interviews.

CHAPTER 7 summarises the study and makes recommends for further research.

1.9 Conclusion

Chapter 1 introduced the study being undertaken, by focusing on the research problem, the rationale to conduct the study, the aims and the objectives, research questions, methodology used, and a description of the study area. The following chapter, Chapter 2, will focus on the literature review of the study. The literature will be reviewed with a global perspective, to understand school choice and school segregation, and then reviewed within the South African

context, in order to understand educational issues in South Africa, the extent to which school choice has been exercised, and learner mobility (school commuting) that is on the rise.

CHAPTER 2: LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1. Introduction

School choice and school commuting has been studied both globally and in South Africa. The philosophical debate on school choice has often focused on whether choice contributes to improved quality of education and better life opportunities, or not. Prior to the rise of school choice, both globally and locally, learners usually attended their nearest schools and so mirrored the communities in which they were located (Ayscue, Siegel-Hawley, Kucsera & Woodward, 2018; Owens, 2018). Therefore, poor learners residing in poor neighbourhoods, often ended up in poorly performing schools. With the introduction of school choice in South Africa, by policies such as the South African Schools Act (SASA) No. 84 of 1996, there was an increase in the number of South African learners not attending schools closest to their homes (De Kadt et al., 2019). This has been taken to extremes in South Africa, with an unusually extended learner mobility pattern, resulting in many using transportation for school commuting (McKay, 2019). Black African learners began to exercise their right to school choice by exiting the township schools for suburban, former white schools (Msila, 2011). This was due to township schools being viewed as substandard by many township parents. This chapter starts by discussing literature relating to school choice and school commuting from a global perspective, and then focuses on the South African context.

2.2. International School Choice

There is international debate around school choice, as to whether it is effective in reducing inequality and improves learner performance, or if it encourages free market education and its associated financial challenges (Yang, Abbott, & Schlossberg, 2012). Unequal access to school choice opportunities can have unplanned consequences. Some education activists believe that school choice can expand educational opportunities for children from poor families (Elacqua, 2012; Brandén & Bygren, 2018). From the critics' view, school choice favours those with money and time, thus widening the gap between advantaged and disadvantaged families (Burgess & Briggs, 2010; Sahlgren, 2013; Monarrez, Kisida & Chingos, 2019).

Phillips, Larsen and Hausman (2015) indicate that there are obstacles faced by disadvantaged parents to fully engage in school choice. The obstacles identified include the following:

- Weak finances of families of low-income parents
- Lack of transportation for commuting learners

- Limited access to information regarding school choices

Kelly (2007) believes that parents and learners are active shoppers for education, looking for schools that best meet their educational expectations and social needs. This is supported by Stein (2015) and Erickson (2017), who agree that when there is a variety of schools available, parents will shop around for the best one (Berends, Springer, Ballou & Walberg, 2009; Bunar & Ambrose, 2016). The same trend was identified by Stein (2015) in a study of charter schools in Indianapolis, where it was noted that parents exercised their choice and searched for the schools that best meet their needs, specifically selecting charter schools. According to Bosetti and Pyryt (2007), parents used the following factors to select schools: class size, proximity to home, common values and beliefs, high standards of learning/teaching and good academic reputation. Thelin and Niedomysl (2015) found that in Sweden, 63 percent of parents considered a good academic reputation/knowledge as the most important factor influencing their choice of school. Overall, when selecting a school, parents seem to use information gathered on the curriculum, sports, class size and other services, to select the best school (Stein, 2015; DeAngelis & Erickson, 2018).

The liberation model assumes that if all learners engage in school choice, racial and class segregation will decrease, as all learners are eager to attend high-performing schools (Bifulco, Ladd & Ross, 2009). The following preconditions need to be in place in order to ensure that school choice reduces segregation:

- All participants are involved in the school choice process (Frankenberg, Kotok, Schafft & Mann, 2017).
- There are a variety of schools to choose from (Bunar & Ambrose, 2016; Frankenberg et al., 2017).
- All children have an equal chance of being accepted in any school, as discrimination of learners might lead to monopoly-like conditions, resulting in a lack of competition (Lindbom, 2010).
- Detailed information about the schools is available to all parents (Erickson, 2017; Frankenberg et al., 2017).
- Parents are focused on their children's educational future. Competition and choice options need to be continuous, since there are constant changes in the needs and experience of parents and learners (Phillips et al., 2015).

Opponents of school choice strongly believe that school choice increases school segregation patterns. Even if school choice extends choice opportunities available to parents, not all parents have the similar time, social capital and income to engage in the school choice process (Rowe & Lubienski, 2017). School choice may enable opportunities for parents with the social and financial capital to gain access to the best schools. According to Chubb and Moe (2011) and Brandén and Bygren (2018), parents prefer the best school in terms of quality education. Where the school in the catchment area does not meet the needs of the parents, children will be sent to schools outside their neighbourhood (Machin & Salvanes, 2010; Bunar & Ambrose, 2016; DeAngelis & Erickson, 2018).

According to Loeb, Valant and Kasman (2011) and Wilson and Bridge (2019), the most commonly known kinds of school choice relate to residential school choice, meaning that parents can relocate to residential areas close to their desired school. These movements do not only occur across the neighbourhoods, but also within them, as families choose to live within school regions linked to desirable neighbourhood public schools (Sahlgren, 2013). Thus, upper- and middle-class families have always had opportunities to exercise school choice through residential sorting (Wilson & Bridge, 2019). Poor parents can seldom select housing based on preferred school location (Owens, 2018). Various studies indicate that the majority of middle- and upper-class families are active consumers of school choice, while the low income, poor parents are not fully able to make use of school choice policies (Bifulco, Ladd & Ross, 2009). This is despite the *No Child Left Behind* Act of 2001 in the United States of America (USA), which permitted choice of different schools by parents when the nearest schools did not meet the required performance result (McDonald, 2010; Yang et al., 2012; Pearman & Swain, 2017).

According to Phillips et al. (2015), school choice theory follows the principles underpinned by educational market and competition. Wealthy parents can exercise school choice through changing their residential area or by commuting (DeLuca & Rosenblatt, 2010; Lindbom, 2010; Phillips et al., 2014; Wilson & Bridge, 2019). School choice activists, however, maintain that poor minorities can exercise school choice through an exodus from poor performing schools to better performing schools, allowing disadvantaged families educational choices not restricted by geographical boundaries (Berends et al., 2009; Elacqua, 2012; Epple, Romano & Urquiola, 2017; Frankenberg et al., 2017).School choice opponents argue that school choice intensifies race and socio-economic injustices, resulting in greater school segregation (Lankford &

Wyckoff, 2005; DeLuca & Rosenblatt, 2010; Loeb et al., 2011; Bunar & Ambrose, 2016). Such critics are concerned that less educated or poor parents do not have enough access to information to make knowledgeable decisions, often only selecting schools based on proximity to home (Carrasco & San Martin, 2012; Erickson, 2017). This can result in such learners enrolling in dysfunctional local schools (Sahlgren, 2013). It is also posited that good schools abuse school choice policies by creaming good learners off from weaker schools (Gazmuri, 2017). Schools want high-performing learners as they need fewer resources and are much easier to teach than poorly performing learners (Elacqua, 2012; Allen & Burgess, 2010). For example, in the USA, school choice has resulted in the rise of 'magnet schools', neighbourhood schools in the district, or public schools outside the school district that attract many applicants (Brandén & Bygren, 2018).

Some learners in the USA attend private schools which are partly publicly funded or financially boosted by vouchers and tax credit (Wilson, Marshall, Wilson & Krizek, 2010). Lindbom (2010), Epple et al. (2017) and Brandén and Bygren (2018) argue that the voucher system sorts learners along income or ability lines; that is, it may enable private schools, with the assistance of the teachers, to 'cream' wealthy and well-motivated learners away from public schools, while the worst students remain in public schools. They found that in Washington, DC, for example, public schools with voucher programmes were dominated by low-performing learners as private schools had creamed off the performing learners. Learners left in the public schools with poor academic performance and violence.

In the USA, school choice has historical attachments to various social agendas arising from issues such as racial segregation, school funding and administrative reform. In the 1980s, in the USA and the UK, justification for school choice came in the form of arguing that it allowed for the 'free market' to 'fix' education (Yang et al., 2012). The intended objective was for parents to have control over their children's education and, thereby, improve school quality as parents would 'vote with their feet' and support quality schools over the rest. This notion is supported by Berends et al. (2009), Bravo, Mukhopadhyay and Todd (2010), Lindbom (2010), Carrasco and San Martin (2012), Bunar and Ambrose (2016) and Frankenberg et al. (2017), who all believe that competition for learners would encourage schools to operate professionally and maintain high educational standards, with efficient schools building a good reputation and attracting learners.

The parents' right to choose quality education for their children is recognised by different national policies and exists in countries worldwide, although policy mechanisms differs from country to country (Yang et al., 2012). Such policies include Chile's national voucher programme in 1980 and the UK Education Reform Act of 1988. The Chile voucher programme assumed that vouchers would increase educational opportunities for disadvantaged families. Elacqua (2012) and Gazmuri (2017), however, maintain that the unrestricted flat rate per pupil voucher programme in Chile led to increased class segregation between public and private schools. They found that public schools are more likely to cater for poor learners. In England, the Education Reform Act of 1998 introduced choice into the schooling system. Those against choice argued that school choice increased school segregation and reduced fairness; that is, parents with financial resources, who are also well informed, would choose to isolate their children from their disadvantaged or lower aptitude peers, while some parents may prefer familiar schools, regardless of quality.

2.3. International School Segregation

In the USA, over the last 20 years, researchers have found that children living in areas stricken by impoverishment are likely to be exposed to diminished life outcomes (Owens, 2017). In particular, the educational achievement of African American learners in poor areas is behind their white peers in other communities. Some argue that the greater gap in achievement between the Black and white learners can be explained by differences in family resources that result in accessing differences in school quality due to neighbourhood characteristics (DeLuca & Rosenblatt, 2010; Owens, 2018).

To determine if choice led to school segregation in England, Allen (2007) studied schools who controlled their admissions geographically, against those who enrolled as a result of the Education Reform Act of 1988, which allowed parents to choose any school for their children (Bunar & Ambrose, 2016). Along with Burgess, McConnell, Propper and Wilson (2007), as well as Rowe and Lubienski (2017), all found that giving parents more options increases school segregation. Sahlgren (2013) focused on the Swedish educational market, to determine whether school segregation results from using geographical areas to determine school allocation. The analysis revealed that residential segregation was the closest explanation for ethnic and social class school segregation. Further, it can be said that in Sweden class segregation depends entirely on residential sorting.

Östh, Andersson, and Malmberg (2013) focused on data collected from 2000 and 2006. They found that achievement gaps between schools could be reduced if learners enrolled in their local schools (that is, no school choice). Similar trends were noted in North Carolina (Bifulco et al., 2009; Sahlgren, 2013). This relates to both ethnic and class segregation. Internationally, some parents are so concerned about their children receiving quality education such that they will even move to a new house to live within the school of choice catchment area. Evidence shows that parents may be willing to pay a great deal of money to buy a house in a geographical zone of top schools (Wilson & Bridge, 2019). Housing sales in Norway and New Zealand are impacted by the geographical zoning of Grade 1-7 school enrolment policies (Machin & Salvanes, 2010).

2.4. Education System of South Africa in Pre- and Post-Apartheid Era

Under the apartheid regime, 'white supremacy' established itself in different forms, one of which was through the education system (Fleisch, 2008; Johnson, 2017). The African majority had limited education opportunities (Lemon & Battersby, 2009). This was in part due to a geographic zoning policy whereby South Africa children had to attend a neighbouring school (Bell & McKay, 2011). As residential areas were racially segregated, in the post-apartheid era, residential segregation has made school integration only possible if people move to a new house/home or are prepared to commute to school (Fataar, 2009; De Kadt et al., 2014; Pienaar & McKay, 2014; Hunter, 2017). Under the apartheid education system, African schools had a shortage of teachers, and some teachers were under- or unqualified (Fiske & Ladd, 2006; McKay et al., 2018). In addition, fewer resources were allocated to such schools, which also suffered from poor leadership and management, as well as an inferior curriculum (Fiske & Ladd, 2006; Fataar, 2008; 2009; Johnson, 2017). This unequal distribution of resources resulted in Black African township schools being operationally dysfunctional (Johnson, 2017; Wills, 2017).

In the post-apartheid era, policies requiring segregation were abolished and SASA (No. 84 of 1996) and the National Education Policy Act No. 27 of 1996 (NEPA) allowed learners to attend any public school of their choice (Lemon & Battersby, 2009; Amsterdam, Nkomo & Weber, 2012; Zoch, 2017). It was no shock that post-1994 former white schools attracted many children from historically disadvantaged population groups (Ndimande, 2009; Ndimande & Neville, 2018). Although the Black or township schools are better resourced now than before 1994, they still suffer from the apartheid system resource backlog (Zoch, 2017; McKay, 2019).

Some of them continue to produce poor matriculation results (Machard & McKay, 2015; McKay, 2020). When the apartheid regime came to an end, and democracy allowed racial integration, schools that were historically designed for Black African learners continue to be racially segregated (Fiske & Ladd, 2006; Parry & Van Eeden, 2015).

During the post-apartheid era, SASA and national education policy gave learners the right to access any public school. But there is still a type of geographical zoning in the post-apartheid era. NEPA, however, states that school admission should prioritise learners living within the feeder zones. Parents can apply to other geographical school zones outside their geographical area, although admission is not be guaranteed. In Cape Town, Fataar (2009) confirmed that the schooling system uses a "soft zoning" policy, whereby preference is given to individuals who reside within five kilometres from the school zone. In Gauteng, Bell and McKay (2011) point out that geographical catchment zoning is still used as a tool to manage school admissions. Thus, if a learner does not live near a good school, then gaining access to one is difficult, and involves a commute and the ability to pay school fees (this is despite the fee waiver system, which does not work all that well in practice), as most good schools charge fees, while most weak schools do not (McKay, 2019). School fees are a factor contributing to good matriculation results (Soudien, 2007; Pienaar & McKay, 2014). So, it can be concluded that those who can afford to live near good schools will access good education, otherwise they need to afford the commute – both of which are financial challenges for poor families (Msila, 2011; Hunter, 2017; Miller, 2018).

2.5 School Choice in South Africa

Enabling school choice has been perceived as a practice designed to ensure transformation in the education of South Africans, by providing each parent with the democratic right to select schools for their children (Msila, 2005). How choices are made, however, has been subject to debate. Msila (2005) and Miller (2018) both use Hirschman's (1970) theory of *exit, voice and loyalty* to assess the school choice patterns evolving in South Africa. In terms of the theory, parents are regarded as customers seeking quality education, dissatisfied with the quality of the education in townships. They then often select ones in former white areas. This is deemed taking the *exit option,* due to parents of Black learners selecting former Model C (former white) and private schools to meet their needs for quality education. The *voice option* allows parents to get involved in schooling to make a difference, instead of removing the children from township schools. It appears that this is less likely the case in South Africa. The *loyalty option*

seems to be common *if* parents lack the finances to remove their children from township schools. This, however, needs further investigation.

Various studies conducted in South Africa indicate an increasing trend in which parents 'shop around' for the best schools that can provide quality education for their children (Maile, 2004; Johnson, 2017; Miller, 2018). Many researchers maintain the difference in the quality of education between former white and former Black African schools is driving the school commute (Woolman & Fleisch, 2006). The only learners who enjoy equal and quality education are those from homes which are financially stable and can afford the school commute (Evans & Cleghorn, 2014). De Kadt et al. (2014; 2019) found that in Soweto, Johannesburg, 60 percent of primary-age children attend schools distant from where they live, while only 18 percent attend a school nearer to home. From this information, two patterns of school choice can be observed: (1) one pattern involves learners travelling long distances; and (2) the second pattern involves an intra-township school commute. This finding is supported by the work of Fataar (2009) and Msila (2009). Thus, former white public schools are mostly now racially integrated, with township schools still racially homogeneous (McKay et al., 2018). The study by Ntshoe (2017) indicates that white learners are exiting the public-school system for private education, although this is less so in schools where Afrikaans is the language of teaching and learning.

Affordability also plays an important role in school choice, and parents who are unable to send their children to Model C schools tend to search for quality schools within the township (Msila, 2011). Fataar (2009) points out that township schools are impacted by poverty, poor health, language of instruction challenges and poor financial provision, resulting in poor academic performance. Teachers spend less time on teaching and learning (Adewumi & Adu, 2019). Although South Africa is now in the post-apartheid era, township schools are not financed to the extent to which white schools were subsidised during the apartheid era (Machard & McKay, 2015; McKay, 2015). As a result, township schools still suffer from a lack of resources such as a shortage of classrooms and desks, insufficient textbooks, few computers – and toilets in a poor condition (McKay, 2019). Furthermore, some educators are underqualified or weak and there is a shortage of teachers to teach certain subjects (Fataar, 2008; McKay et al., 2018). The poor performance of township schools is exacerbated by poor management, which plays a role in school performance and quality of education (Msila, 2009). Miller (2018) supports this, stating schools become ineffective as a result of managerial problems. Thus, the strengthening of school management is necessary, if a better learning environment is to be created. Mthiyane,

Bengu and Bayeni (2014) agree that a lack of effective leadership is a key cause of school decline. Thus, the social, economic and educational damage caused by apartheid are still evident.

2.6. School Commuting and Costs in South Africa

In South Africa, despite the dismantling of the Group Areas Act of 1950, the majority of Black Africans still reside in townships initially created during the era of racial segregation, as they cannot afford houses in the former white areas (Amsterdam et al., 2012; Parry & Van Eeden, 2015; Hunter, 2017). These parents are, however, willing to let their children commute to former Model C schools, including former Coloured and Indian schools, to get a better education (Fataar, 2009; Amsterdam et al., 2012; Hunter, 2017; De Kadt et al., 2019; McKay, 2019). The change in the education patterns and the diverse learner population attracted by schools has become a focus area for research, because of the commuting patterns involved. There is also a trend of middle- and high-income parents increasingly using their private vehicles to take their children to school, due to weak or unreliable public transport, or concerns over traffic or crime if children walk or cycle (Weiner, 2017; McKay, 2020).

The sacrifices are not only financial (Gibbons & Machin, 2008). For example, the long daily commute often affects learners negatively (Bell, 2007). Learners often arrive at school late, tired and unable to concentrate (Du Toit, 2008). De Kadt et al. (2014) found that 24.9 percent of learners in South Africa were travelling to schools that are more than 10 km from their homes. Along with the commute has been a substantial increase in the cost of schooling (De Kadt et al., 2019). Over the past decade, former Model C schools have increased their tuition fees substantially (McKay, 2019). Wiener (2017) found that some schools charge fees higher than some universities; for example, parents spent approximately R41 000 a year at Westville Boys, R40 700 at Grey High and R39 900 at Parktown's Boys High. McKay et al. (2018) found that many private schools in Johannesburg charge more than R50 000 per year. Many parents are thus making sizeable financial sacrifices for the sake of their children's education.

2.7 Conclusion

This chapter focused on school choice and school segregation internationally, and locally on school choice, pre- and post-apartheid era, and school commute, as well as the costs associated with it. The literature review from a global perspective, and in the South African context, indicates that parents can play an active role in searching for the best school for their children.

When given information about the schools, parents will be able to make an informed choice. Some researchers, however, believe that poor parents are unable to make informed choices. Resourced parents base their choice on academics, but poor parents are less likely to do so. Financially resourced parents are more able to exercise their right to school choice through residential mobility or opting for commuting. The following chapter will discuss, in detail, the methodology followed in the study.

CHAPTER THREE: METHODOLOGY

3.1 Introduction

This chapter outlines the research process carried out in the dissertation, through detailed reference to the applicability of the case study, within a mixed methods framework. It also presents the research design with details of the following research processes: Data collection methods (in-depth interviews with SGB and SMT as well as a parental questionnaire, and how the data was analysed and interpreted. It also explains how objectivity, validity and reliability were achieved, how ethical issues were addressed during the research, as well as the research limitations and research costs.

3.2 Research Design

This study was conducted as a case study using all three secondary schools (Lereng High, Sehlabeng Secondary and Ladybrand High School) in Ladybrand, Free State. Zucker (2009, p. 2) defines a case study as a "*systematic inquiry into an event or a set of related events which aims to describe and explain the phenomenon of interest*". Makoelle (2011, p. 131) defines a case study as "*the situation, individual, group, organisation or whatever it is that we are interested in*". Thus, case study research does not follow a specific individual or circumstances but places the research within a set of circumstances such that lessons can be drawn from the results (Zucker, 2009). This means that the participant's experiences and perceptions are considered, in order to give comprehensive explanations of the occurrences encountered in an everyday environment (Radebe, 2015). With the case study approach, the researcher can scrutinise data within a specific environment – that is, a small geographical area or small population. Overall, the case study approach is useful towards achieving a rounded, in-depth view of the phenomenon studied (Zainal, 2007). Thus, the case study approach was deemed suitable for the all three secondary schools in Ladybrand, whereby they could be investigated individually, but also analysed in an interrelated way such that it could paint a picture of secondary schools in Ladybrand. All secondary schools are public schools.

The advantages of the case study have been summarised by Kothari (2009):

- It may allow for the roots of the phenomenon studied to be determined and relate this back to other social issues.
- Relevant assumptions can be made from the data.
- A social phenomenon can be studied in-depth.

- It supports a mixed method approach.
- It represents a real record of personal experiences.

There are nevertheless some limitations in using a case study method:

- Case circumstances are rarely similar, and information gathered is often not similar.
- Generalisability is not possible.
- Case data may be so site specific that it is not useful.
- Case study is not possible for bigger units.

Although generalisability is a problem, there are benefits, such as easy access to multiple sources of data, research participants, and chances to enable a better understanding of the context (Yang et al., 2012).

3.3 Methodology

The mixed method approach was used, as both interviews (qualitative) and the parental questionnaire (quantitative) were used. For Creswell and Plano Clark (2011), mixed methods is an approach that directs the path for data gathering and scrutiny. As a method, it gathers and scrutinises information from both methods (qualitative and quantitative) in a single study or sequence of studies (Venkatesh et al., 2013). Cresswell (2014) argues that both methods provide diverse sets of data (open-ended in the instance of qualitative and closed-ended in the instance of quantitative). As each method has both advantages and disadvantages, combining the advantages of each method enable the researcher to understand the research problem deeply; therefore, integrating data from both methods gives a more in-depth explanation of the research problem than either by itself.

According to Cresswell (2009), the difference between these methods is that a qualitative study is in-depth, develops sense from natural existences, and understands sensations in their natural situation. Quantitative research is inferential, relies on numerical data, and defines fundamental relations among variables. Although some regard quantitative and qualitative research methods as opposing methods, Redelinghuys (2017) mentions the following strengths of mixed method research:

- The researcher is not restricted to a single method.

- The power of one method (qualitative or quantitative) can overcome the weakness of the other.
- Merging and corroboration of findings can provide stronger evidence for conclusion, and a broader inquiry of the research problem.
- Perceptions and understanding which can be missed when using one method are included in the mixed method.
- The mixed method approach increases the generalisability of the research results.

Redelinghuys (2017) nevertheless notes the following weaknesses of the mixed method:

- There are high costs associated with mixed method research. Assistance from individuals or other people may be required for the collection of data.
- It takes a lot of time to collect data, as both qualitative and quantitative data are collected at different times.

By merging quantitative methods – which use statistical methods, and qualitative methods – which use word-based data, a more holistic picture can be painted (Redelinghuys, 2017). According to Onwuegbuzie, Johnson and Turner (2007), mixed methods is a research approach where the researcher combines fundamentals of both the quantitative and qualitative approach to reach in-depth understanding and collaboration of findings. It gives understanding of different aspects of the phenomenon studied, in a way that only conducting research using either qualitative or quantitative methods, would not (Venkatesh et al., 2013). Thus, mixed method research enables the strengths of both qualitative and quantitative to be combined, thus limiting the weaknesses of both methods (Cresswell, 2013; Venkatesh et al., 2013).

Several reasons justify the researcher's choice of integrating qualitative and quantitative research (Almalki, 2016; Redelinghuys, 2017). The first is triangulation, which scrutinises the reliability the results obtained from research instruments such as interviews and surveys. Triangulation ensures that threats to interpretations are controlled. The second is complementarity, which utilises quantitative and qualitative data outcomes to evaluate corresponding but separate features of the occurrence under study. The third is development, where the outcomes from one method might influence succeeding methods. The fourth is initiation, where outcomes of each research method might challenge the results of the other method. The last is expansion, which may simplify results or enhance riches to the results.

3.4 Ethics and Ethical Issues

The study method, which includes human beings, might at times cause ethical problems. To conduct research ethically, means that all individuals participating in the research must be safe, not harmed in any way and they must participate in the research process willingly, without pressure or threat (Redelinghuys, 2017). Makoelle (2011, p. 152) identifies three key ethical issues, namely that there must be (a) confidentiality of information, (b) transparency of results, and (c) third-party involvement. Anonymity of subjects must be guaranteed, and results must be presented in a way that privacy remains intact. Thus, Makoelle (2011, p. 152) proposes the following measures in addressing the ethical issues:

- All information collected must be kept private to ensure confidentiality.
- The researcher must be transparent while adhering to ethical principles.
- Third parties such as school authorities must not be involved in the process of data collection, in order to ensure that they do not try to influence the results.

Permission was obtained from the Free State Provincial Department of Education to conduct the study in Ladybrand (see Appendix 1). Additional written permission was also received from the three schools (Ladybrand, Lereng and Sehlabeng) (see Appendices 2-4). Thereafter, arrangements were made with the principals regarding the venue and the schedule of the research process. In addition, all participants gave informed consent**.** The researcher, as a student of the University of South Africa (UNISA), followed the ethical guidelines outlined by the institution (UNISA, 2013) (see Appendix 5). In terms of this, participants were informed that participation was voluntary, and they could drop out of the study at any time.

3.5 Research Questions and the Consistency Matrix

The study sought to answer several questions relating to school choice and school commuting, as follows:

Research Question 1: What is the demographic and socio-economic profile of learners enrolled in all the public high schools found in Ladybrand?

A parental questionnaire was used to determine the demographic and socio-economic profiles of learners. The data was analysed both quantitatively and qualitatively.

Research Question 2: What influences parental school choice and commuting?

Parental questionnaires were used to determine the reasons influencing parents to choose a school. The data was analysed both quantitatively and qualitatively.

Research Question 3: By what means, at what cost and how long does the daily commuting take?

A parental questionnaire and interview questions were used to determine the costs associated with school choice and school commuting. The data was analysed by means of qualitative and quantitative research tools.

Research Question 4: What impacts do school choice and commuting have on the functioning of the schools?

Interviews were used to determine what impacts on the functioning of the school. The data was analysed by means of qualitative research tools.

3.6 Data collection

3.6.1 Population and sampling

The Ladybrand area was selected for the study, as it is under-researched in terms of school choice and school commuting. It is also a small community, and all the public schools can be included in the research, while it will not be the case with bigger study areas. There are three public secondary schools in Ladybrand, and all of them were selected as the population for this study. Lereng Secondary and Sehlabeng Secondary schools are situated in the township, and mainly serve low-income families with high levels of poverty. Ladybrand High School is situated near the town centre and mainly serves families from the low to middle income group. Neuman (2006) defines that 'population' is many cases from which samples are done for the researcher to get results which then can be generalised.

The targeted sample for the research was all the Grade 8 learner parents/guardians, SMT and SGB from Lereng, Sehlabeng and Ladybrand high schools in Ladybrand, Free State. Purposive sampling was utilised in selection of secondary schools for the research. Since the study was to include participants from different socio-economic backgrounds, this sampling method was considered appropriate (Du Toit, 2008). Kothari (2009) states that purposive sampling enables

the researcher to access well-informed people or people who have in-depth knowledge about the issue being studied.

3.6.2 In-depth interview questions with the SGB and SMT

Data was collected using in-depth interviews with the school SGB and SMT members (see Appendices 6 & 7). The in-depth interviews had open-ended questions, a method used by other education researchers such as Bisschoff and Koebe (2005). In-depth interviews were conducted with three SGB members from Sehlabeng Secondary School and four SGB members from Lereng Secondary school. The SGB members from Ladybrand High School were unavailable to participate, due to other commitments. The unavailability of one SGB member from Sehlabeng Secondary and all SGB members from Ladybrand High might have implications for the results, as their responses are not included in the research results. In-depth interviews were also conducted with four SMT members from each of the three schools. During the interviews, formulation of questions was done in a way to assist the participant to understand the question(s), in order to increase reliability. According to Creswell (2013) the researcher asked each participant broad, open-ended questions, and recorded their answers. A voice recorder was used with the consent of the subjects during the interviews with the SGB and the SMT. A voice recorder was used to capture all the interviews, in accordance with the procedures set out by Creswell (2013) and Redelinghuys (2017):

- An appropriate device was used for the interviews.
- A suitable place was used for conducting the interviews – for example, the principal's office and Head of Department's (HOD) office, to minimise noise and distractions.
- Permission was given by the participants to record the interview process.
- The interview schedule was followed, although, where clarity was needed, the researcher posed additional prompts for the participants' further understanding.

The purpose of the voice recorder was to maintain a record of the interviews conducted, as well as to ensure reliability of the data collected, and help the researcher to pay attention to the communication with the subject, instead of writing notes (Radebe, 2015).

3.6.3 Survey questionnaire with parents

A parental questionnaire for the parents/guardians was sent to all Grade 8 learners attending all three schools (see Appendix 8). A questionnaire is a commonly used, suitable tool for gathering data (Makoelle, 2011). The survey was then distributed by Grade 8 classroom teachers to all learners in their respective classes. Learners then took them home for their parents to complete, and later returned them to the teacher. A total of 398 questionnaires were given to learners for parents to complete: 114 for Ladybrand High, 134 for Sehlabeng, and 150 for Lereng Secondary school. A total of 219 questionnaires were returned by parents, 38 from Ladybrand High School, 78 from Sehlabeng Secondary School and 103 from Lereng Secondary School. The researcher then collected the surveys from the teachers and school administrator. The questionnaire response rate was low from Ladybrand High and Sehlabeng Secondary and might hold implications for the responses provided for the schools. The questionnaire survey included questions based on the socio-economic and demographic profiles of parents and learners, modes of transport used to get to school, transport costs incurred, travel time, reasons for choice of modes, and reasons for the school choice.

3.7 Data analysis

According to Makoelle (2011, p. 145), the purpose of data analysis is "*to understand the components of data and determine the relationship between variables, patterns and themes*". Data collected through a parental questionnaire was sent to a professional UNISA-approved statistician for analysis. Data collected from the interviews was analysed using techniques by Makoelle (2011, p. 145) and Palahicky (2017, p. 60), a guideline developed by Strauss and Corbin (1990, p. 24). The following steps were followed in the process of analysing data:

Step 1: Going through collected data several times for better understanding. Revisiting the collected data numerous times enables the researcher to have a better understanding of the data collected.

Step 2: Arranging collected data into different themes. After re-reading the data, the data was categorised into different themes, the process referred to as "coding", described by Makoelle (2011) as tags assigned to parts of data collected.

Step 3: Revisiting the collected data to confirm the codes assigned to pieces of meaning. Going through data again enables the researcher to confirm if the interpretations given are relevant.

Step 4: Make notes and quotations and link them to themes. Give notes and quotations themes as you read the data.
Step 5: Study all the different categories of themes and interpret them. Make reasonable decisions from meaning attached to the explanations of themes.

3.8 Objectivity, Reliability and Validity

According to Bisschoff and Koebe (2005), the research values both internal and external reliability; it must be strengthened by the information in the research and it must not be conflicting to prevailing information. Internal reliability is subject to how reliable and organised internal study procedures are. Member checking and data triangulation can be used to carry such procedures. External reliability occurs when the study can be reassigned to alternative settings. This can be attained when in-depth explanations of procedures are given to back up selections and choices regarding the process, tool and involvement (Makoelle, 2011).

Makoelle (2011, p. 148) defines objectivity as "*the results of the regimented, impartial or unbiased and value-free way in which it [the research] is conducted*". Objectivity is achieved when identical techniques are used, usually from a distance. To achieve objectivity for the research, the same questionnaire was given to all Grade 8 parents in the absence of the researcher, to avoid interpretation of the questionnaire, and the interview questions were the same for all participants. The participants' responses to questions during interviews were not influenced by the researcher's opinion or knowledge.

Reliability refers to the degree in which the apparatus, when used several times, can give the same findings to the research (Bisschoff & Koebe, 2005; Anderson, 2010). Quantitative research focuses on the accuracy, solidity and uniformity of the research. In quantitative research, reliability is interrelated to the quality of measurement. An instrument is regarded as reliable if the same finding is produced several times (Venkatesh et al., 2013). By contrast, qualitative researchers are more interested in internal reliability, how reliable and organised internal study procedures are, and external reliability – capacity of the research to be transmitted to a different setting (Makoelle, 2011). Reliability of the research was achieved by ensuring that the interview questions were clear and meant the same to all the respondents. The

questionnaire was given to learners in the absence of the researcher, to ensure that there was no influence on responses.

Quantitative research, on the one hand, creates a causal link between variables and qualitative research; on the other hand, it determines the validity of the research by examining how "*methodical the process was by way of specialized methods and techniques*" (Makoelle, 2011, p. 149). Validity referrers to the accuracy of a measure. Validation in mixed methods enquiry is fundamentally used "*to assessing the quality of findings and/or inference from all of the data (both quantitative and qualitative) in the research inquiry, therefore inference quality has to be assessed on the overall findings from mixed methods research"* (Venkatesh et al., 2013, p. 40). Kothari (2009, p. 73) defines validity as the most critical criterion and indicates the "*degree to which an instrument measures what it is supposed to measure"*. Anderson (2010) posits that the validity of research results denotes the degree to which the results are a precise demonstration of the sensations they are anticipated to symbolise. The researcher used suitable methods and techniques to ensure validity in the study.

3.9 Cost for the research study

The researcher used different tools to conduct, analyse and present the findings of the study. The cost involved registration, travelling, printing, purchasing the research equipment and other tools, to ensure that the results were reliable and valid. The breakdown of the costs is presented in Appendix 9.

3.10 Conclusion

This chapter provided an overview of the research methodology used in this study, by explaining why both the qualitative and quantitative methods were chosen, and why these methods were applicable to the study. A brief overview of the case study method was given, and how it is relevant to the study conducted. Adherence to ethical issues was discussed briefly. The chapter furthermore defined and discussed research questions, the consistency matrix, and the concepts of population and sampling. The chapter also highlighted the choice of data-collection techniques and data-analysis methods used, and clarified how the objectivity, validity and reliability in this research were maintained. The chapter concluded with the limitations of the study. The following chapter, Chapter 4, will discuss the findings of the

parental questionnaire that was distributed to Grade 8 for parents to complete. Each school's findings are discussed separately.

CHAPTER 4: FINDINGS: PARENTAL QUESTIONNAIRE

4.1 Introduction

The parental questionnaire was distributed to three public secondary schools in Ladybrand. The questionnaire sought to collect data from the parents of learners attending these three schools. Questions included the demographic profile of learners, their socio-economic status, reasons for choosing the school, by what means they get to school, the cost and distance of the daily school commute, as well as the overall costs of schooling. The results of the questionnaire are detailed in the following sections: firstly, the findings for Ladybrand High School, then followed by Lereng Secondary School, and lastly, Sehlabeng Secondary School. The number of questionnaires distributed and returned from each school are described in Table 4.1, below.

Table 4.1: Number of questionnaires per school. (**Source**: Own).

School	***No of questionnaires distributed***	***No of questionnaires returned***
Ladybrand High	114	38
Lereng Secondary	134	103
Sehlabeng Secondary	150	78

4.2 Ladybrand High School

4.2.1. Findings: The demographic profile of learners

According to data supplied by the parents, most learners enrolled in Ladybrand High School were Black Africans, at 29 (76%) learners, seven (7) (18%) were white, and two (5%) were Coloured. No parents identified themselves as either Indian or Asian. The majority (30 or 79%) of learners spoke Sesotho at home, followed by Afrikaans (7 or 18%). One (3%) parent said they spoke IsiZulu. Thus, in terms of race and home language, the school is homogenous but there is some racial diversity.

Geographically, most learners (15 or 40%) come from different sections of the townships that surround Ladybrand. These are Thusanong, Metampelong, Mekokong, Lusaka, Vukuzenzele, Thabong, Flamingo, Homes, Mauersnek, Masakeng and Mandela Park, as well as Ladybrand itself (13 or 34%). One (3%) learner came from a neighbouring farm. Of the remaining learners,

four (11%) came from Lesotho (20 km to and from Ladybrand); one (3%) from Marseilles (27 km to and from Ladybrand); one (3%) from Clocolan (41 km to and from Ladybrand); one (3%) from Tweespruit (53 km to and from Ladybrand) one (3%) from Hobhouse (55 km to and from Ladybrand); and one (3%) from Thaba Nchu (73 km to and from Ladybrand). Thus, most of the learners are locals but some travel a long way to school each day.

4.2.2. Findings: Socio-economic profile of learners

In terms of socio-economic profile, some 24 (63%) learners lived with both parents, nine (24%) lived with their mothers, three (8%) lived with their grandparents, one (3%) lived with their father and one (3%) lived with other relatives. In terms of race, living with both parents, 16 (42%) of the Black Africans did, six (16%) of the white learners did, and two (5%) of the Coloured learners did. It was only Black African learners who lived with their mothers (9 or 24%) and three (8%) Black African learners lived with their grandparents. One (3%) white learner lived with their father. Thus, most lived with both parents, although Black African learners were also likely to live with a single mother or grandparent.

There was a significant overlap between who the learners were living with and the relationship status of the learners' parents: some 24 (63%) were married, five (13%) were single parents, three (8%) were living together, three (8%) were widowed, two (5%) were remarried, and one (3%) was divorced. In terms of race, for married parents 16 (42%) of the Black African learners had parents who were married to each other, six (16%) of the white learners did, and two (5%) of the Coloured learners did. Only Black Africans learners lived with single parents or had parents who were living together but not married. This was also true for widowed parents and remarried parents. One of the white learners had a divorced parent. Thus, the school is dominated by learners who come from homes where the parents are married and living together.

Overall, in terms of occupation, some eight (21%) parents said they had professional jobs, 16 (42%) said they had managerial or technical jobs, seven (18%) worked in non-manual skilled jobs, five (13%) worked in unskilled jobs and two (5%) worked in partly skilled jobs. There were no parents who did not work or were stay-at-home parents (see Figure 4.1). In terms of occupation by race, for the professional occupations some five (13%) were Black African and three (8%) white. No Coloured parent reported holding a professional job. In terms of managerial or technical jobs, some 13 (34%) of the Black Africans parents said they had this kind of occupation, while only two (5%) of the white parents said they did. Only one (3%)

Coloured parent said they did. In terms of non-manual skilled jobs, Black Africans dominated at four (11 %), followed by white parents at two (5%), with one (3%) Coloured having such a job type. Only Black African parents worked in unskilled jobs, where five (13%) reported this and two (5%) reported that they had partly skilled jobs. Most parents were in some sort of skilled job, with only Black African parents reporting that they were not.

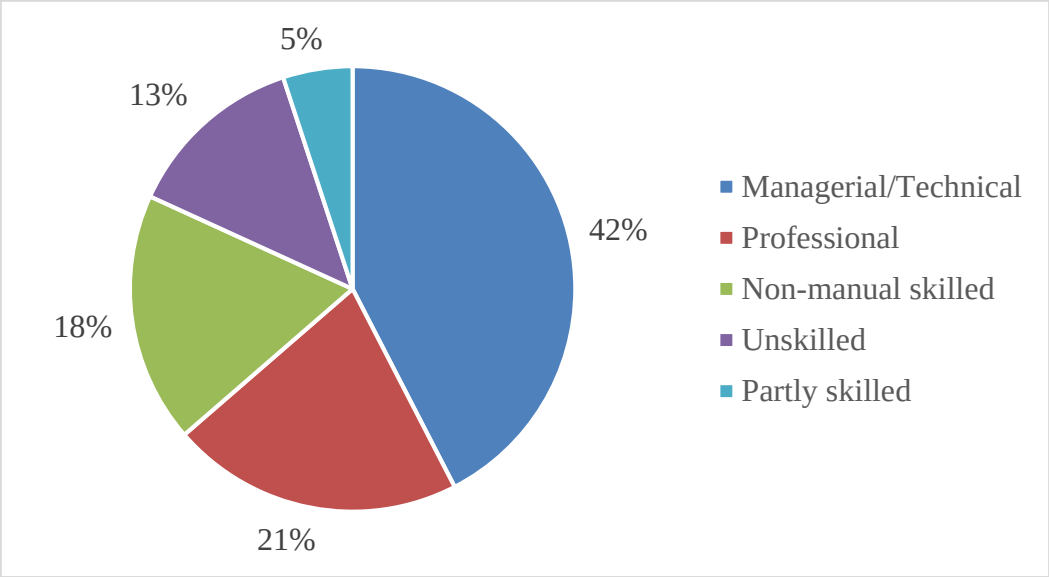

Figure 4.1: Occupation of parents of learners enrolled in Ladybrand High (in percentage). (**Source**: Own).

In terms of educational level, the questionnaire differentiated between mothers and fathers. When looking at the educational level of the mothers, the majority of 18 (47%) had completed Grade 12. About 11 (29%) had an undergraduate diploma or degree, four (11%) Grade 9, four (11%) an honours degree, and one (3%) masters or PhD degree. In terms of race, most of the mothers with Grade 12 were Black Africans (12 or 32%), four (11%) were whites and two (5%) were Coloured. Of those mothers with an undergraduate degree or diploma, three were Black Africans and three were white. Only Black African mothers reported as having a Grade 9 education, an honours degree, masters or PhD degree. Thus, the Black African mother population of the sample was hugely diverse in terms of education levels. All mothers had completed at least Grade 9.

For fathers, most (15 or 40 %) had completed Grade 12. Five (13%) had an undergraduate diploma or degree, three (8%) a masters or PhD degree, one (3%) had an honours degree, and one (3%) Grade 9. In terms of race, most fathers who had completed Grade 9 were Black Africans and five (13%) were white people. For undergraduate diploma or degree and honours,

it was only Black Africans. For masters or PhD degree, two were Black African and one was white. There were no Coloureds in the category. Only a Coloured father reported a Grade 9 education. Some 13 (34%) did not report on the level of father's education, which may be an indication of an absentee father where the father is relatively unknown to the family. This category was racially diverse, with 11 (29%) Black Africans, one white and one Coloured reporting in the category. Thus, diversity in absence of a father cut across all races. Most fathers were less likely to only have a Grade 9, and far more likely to have their education status unknown to their family. All fathers, like the mothers, had completed at least Grade 9.

In terms of lifestyle indicators of parents, the majority 37 (97%) owned a TV and a DVD player, 34 (90%) had a fridge in the home, 34 (90%) a microwave oven and 33 (87%) an electric stove. Furthermore, a good number of respondents 29 (76%) had an M-Net or DSTV subscription, and 27 (71%) owned a smartphone (see Table 4.2). TV and/DVD players, fridges, an electric stove and microwave ovens were the most dominant features of these households. This indicates that most learners were from homes with disposable incomes that made these items affordable.

Table 4.2: Lifestyle indicators. (**Source**: Own).

Lifestyle item	**Percentage**
TV and/DVD player	97%
Fridge	90%
Microwave oven	90%
Electric stove	87%
Washing machine	82%
M-Net/DSTV Subscription	76%
Smartphone	71%
Vacuum cleaner/floor polisher	53%
Computer/Laptop	50%
Gates and a wall around my home	40%
iPad/tablet	40%
Dishwashing machine	24%
Tumble drier	18%
Home security service	18%

In addition, most (37 or 97%), reported having access to basic services such as electricity. They also had a flushing toilet in the house (25 or 66%), a motor vehicle (25 or 66%%), to be living in a proper house (24 or 63%) and having a geyser for hot water (22 or 58%). The majority (26 or 68%), however, have no Internet in the household, and only 11 (29%) have a domestic

servant and gardener working for them (see Table 4.3). Thus, based on self-reported occupational category and household assets, it seems that most learners reside in middle-income or -class homes, with some exceptions; especially those who must rely on public healthcare and government grants are more likely to be working class.

Table 4.3: Access to basic services. (**Source**: Own).

Basic services item	**Households who have these services**
I have electricity in my home	97%
There is no Internet in my household	68%
Flushing toilet	66%
Motor vehicle	66%
I live in a house	63%
A geyser for hot water	58%
I make use of public hospitals	53%
I seldom go on holiday	40%
There are no pets in my household	34%
We have a domestic worker/gardener	29%
Someone collects government grant	21%
Everyone who wants to work has a job	16%

4.2.3 Findings: Why is the child enrolled in the school?

Based on the analysis, about 28 (74%) of parents chose the school because of its good academic results. Some 16 (42%) based their choice on the school being well managed, with good discipline. Some 12 (32%) selected the school because it has good, qualified teachers who have a good reputation on academics. Being close to home or work was also a factor (see Table 4.4).

Table 4.4: Factors determining why parents selected the school. (**Source**: Own).

Factors driving enrolment into the school	**Parents who selected this reason**
The school produces good academic results	74%
The school has good discipline	42%
The school employs good teachers	32%
The school is close to home	24%
This is the school my child chose	18%
The school has good academic facilities, e.g. library	18%
The language of instruction suited me	18%
The school is close to my place of work	18%
The school's management team is strong	16%
The school has good sports facilities	16%
The school has a good teacher-to-learner ratio (small class size)	13%
The school offers value for money	11%
A sibling/s is at the school	11%

4.2.4 Findings: By what means, at what cost and how long does the daily school commute take?

With regard to the distance between home and school, about 21 (55%) of parents indicated that the school is not the closest to their residence, while only 17 (45%) said the school is close to their home. Most learners (22 or 58%) use private transport to get to school in the morning. Of the remainder, eight (21%) use the minibus taxi, four (11%) use private school transport vehicle, and four (11%) walk to school. The analyses indicate that learners use the same mode of transport to go to school and return home after school. Thus, even when the school is close to home, most learners undertake a passive commute using vehicle transport. The typical commute time was short but increased with distance from the school.

In terms of short and long time travelled, seven (18%) take less than 15 minutes to get to school, 24 (63%) take up to 30 minutes to get to school, four (11%) take between 31 and 45 minutes, two (5%) take between 46 and 60 minutes and one (3%) takes between 1½ and 2 hours to get to school. In terms of kilometres, about seven (18%) travel less than 2 km, nine (24%) travel up to 4 km, eight (21%) travel up to 8 km, two (5%) travel up to 12 km, four (11%) travel up to 20 km, four (11%) travel up to 30 km, and four (11%) travel more than 30 km. Learners who travel more than 30 km comes from areas such as Thaba Nchu, Tweespruit, Hobhouse and the neighbouring country of Lesotho. Most, therefore, take up to 30 minutes to get to school, but some have a long commute in both time and distance.

The average cost for school transportation is R500 per month per child, about 22 (58%) of parents reporting pay this fee. Some 11 (29%) spend between R500 and R1000 per month and one (3%) spends between R1000 and R1500 per month on transport fees. Four learners (11%) do not spend money on transport because they are within walking distance of the school. If parents pay R500 for roughly nine months of the year (taking school holidays into account), this is R4 500 annually.

4.2.5 Findings: What are the costs of schooling for these learners?

The study found that about 25 learners (66%) are paying school fees with an average between R9 000 and R12 000 per year and 13 (34%) pay between R 7 000 and R 9 000 per year. In addition to school fees paid, 31 (82%) parents bought school uniforms, 21 (71%) stationery, 21 (71%) school books and about 25 (66%) spend money on school lunch money/tuckshop money (see Table 4.5). About 20 (43%) parents have children that are involved in sports activities and they pay money for sport events, while about 8 (17%) pay for extracurricular activities and excursions taking place in the school. A further 5 (11%) parents indicated that they pay money for extra lessons for their children. Only 14 (30%) made donations to the school (see Table 4.4).

Table 4.5: Additional school fees. (**Source**: Own).

Items paid for in addition to fees	**Percentage of parents who paid for these items**
Uniforms (such as blazers, shoes and the like)	82%
Stationery (pens, pencils and the like)	71%
School books (Exercise books)	71%
School lunch money/tuckshop money	66%
School sports activities (include uniforms and transport)	43%
Textbooks	40%
Donations to the school (cash)	30%
Extracurricular activities and excursions (e.g. art, drama, school outings, choir)	17%
Extra lessons (e.g. maths, English)	11%

Other than school fees, the study showed that there are additional educational costs that parents pay. About 6 (16%) spend more or less R500 per year, 17 (45%) spend between R500 and R1 500 per year, 10 (26) spend between R1 500 and R3 000 per year, 4 (11%) spend between R3 000 and R5 000 per year, and the highest 1 (3%) spends between R5 000 and R8 000 per year.

4.3 Lereng Secondary School

4.3.1 Findings: The demographic and profile of learners

According to data supplied by the parents, of the 103 learners, the majority (101 or 98%) of learners enrolled in Lereng Secondary School are Black Africans. Two (2%) were Coloured. No parents identified themselves as either white, Asian or Indian. All learners spoke Sesotho at home (103 or 100%). Thus, in terms of race and home language, the school is homogenous as there is little racial diversity. Geographically, most learners (102 or 99%) come from different sections in the townships that surround Ladybrand, namely Thusanong, Metampelong, Mekokong, Lusaka, Vukuzenzele, Thabong, Flamingo, Homes, Mauersnek, Masakeng and Mandela Park, and one (1%) from Platberg (10 km away from Ladybrand). Thus, most of the learners are locals.

4.3.2 Findings: Socio-economic profile of learners

In terms of socio-economic profile, some 50 (49%) lived with their mothers as single parents, 28 (27%) lived with both parents, 14 (14%) lived with their grandparents, three (3%) lived with other relatives, and two (2%) with their fathers. Thus, although roughly one third lived with both parents, the majority lived with single mothers, grandparents, or their fathers. There was a significant overlap between who the learners were living with, and the relationship status of the learners' parents. Of some 50 (49%) single parents, 23 (22%) were married, 13 (13%) were living together, 10 (10%) were widowed, three (3%) were divorced, three (3%) were remarried, and one (1%) was separated. Thus, the school is dominated by learners who come from homes with single parents or have one primary caregiver.

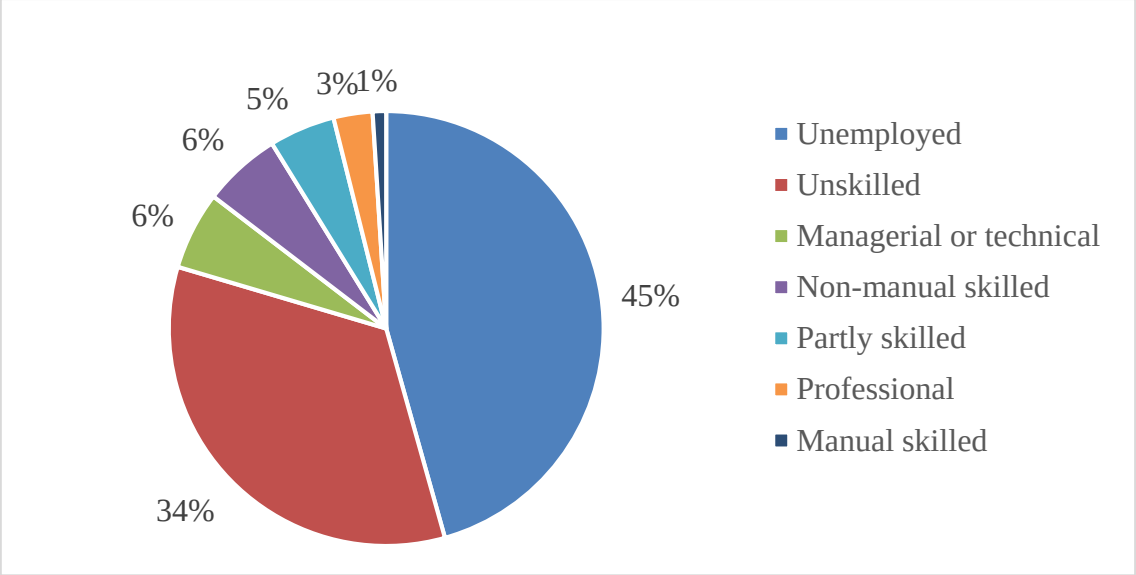

Figure 4.2: Occupation of parents of learners enrolled in Lereng Secondary (in percentage). (**Source**: Own).

Overall, in terms of occupation, some 47 (46%) parents said they are unemployed, either as pensioner or a stay-at-home parent. About 35 (34%) parents worked in unskilled jobs, six (6%) said they worked in managerial technical jobs, six (6%) said they worked in non-manual skilled jobs, five (5%) said they worked in partly skilled jobs, three (3%) said they worked in professional jobs, and one (1%) said they worked in manual skilled jobs (see Figure 4.2). In general, caregivers are either not working, or working in unskilled or partly skilled jobs. Only a minority had jobs that were managerial, technical or professional.

In terms of educational levels, the questionnaire differentiated between mothers and fathers. When looking at the educational level of mothers, the majority 51 (52%) had completed Grade 12 or matric. About 25 (25%) said they had a Grade 9 education, 13 (13%) had completed primary school, nine (9%) had an undergraduate degree/diploma, and one (1%) had an honours degree. No mothers had a masters or PhD degree. The vast majority either had some high school education or had completed high school. Only ten percent (10%) had a postgraduate qualification of some sort.

For fathers, the majority 21 (20%) had completed Grade 12 or matric. About 11 (11%) said they have a Grade 9 education, six (6%) had completed primary school, five (5%) an undergraduate degree/diploma, three (3%) an honours degree, and one (1%) a master's degree or PhD degree. Like with the mothers, most fathers had some high school education or had completed high school. Fewer had only primary school, and fewer had postgraduate

qualifications. The majority of 56 (54%) learners did not indicate the level of education for their fathers. Thus, many had fathers whose education status was unknown to their family.

In terms of lifestyle indicators of parents, the majority 99 (96%) owned a TV and a DVD player, 95 (92%) had a fridge in the home, 89 (86%) had an electric stove, and 86 (84%) a microwave oven. Furthermore, a good number of respondents had a washing machine 49 (48%), smartphone (48 or 47%) and an M-Net or DSTV subscription (48 or 47%) (see Table 4.6). TV and/or DVD players, fridges, electric stoves and microwave ovens were the most dominant features of these households. This indicates that most learners are from homes with disposable incomes that make these items affordable.

Table 4.6: Lifestyle indicators. (**Source**: Own).

Lifestyle item	**Percentage**
TV and/DVD player	96%
Fridge	92%
Electric stove	86%
Microwave oven	84%
Washing machine	48%
Smartphone	47%
M-Net/DSTV subscription	47%
Gates and a wall around my home	23%
Vacuum cleaner/floor polisher	18%
Computer/laptop	15%
iPad/tablet	10%
Tumble drier	5%
Dishwashing machine	2%
Home security service	2%

In addition, most (88 or 85%) reported having access to basic services such as electricity. They also make use of the public hospitals (75 or 73%). They also have someone in their homes that collects a government grant (57 or 55%). Only 19 (19%) had a motor vehicle, and three (3%) a domestic or a gardener in their home (see Table 4.7). Thus, based on self-reported occupational category and household assets, it seems that most learners reside in lower middle-income homes, with some exceptions, especially those who have to rely on public healthcare and government grants, and who are more likely to be working class or even an underclass.

Table 4.7: Access to basic services. (**Source**: Own).

Basic services item	**Percentage of households who have these services**
I have electricity in my house	85%
I make use of public hospitals	73%
There is no Internet in my household	77%
In my home, someone collects a government grant	55%
Flushing toilet	33%
I live in a house	32%
There are no pets in my household	26%
Motor vehicle in the household	19%
I seldom go on holiday	14%
A geyser for hot water	12%
Everyone who wants to work have a job	9%
Domestic worker/gardener	3%

4.3.3 Findings: Why is the child enrolled in the school?

Based on the analysis, about 86 (84%) parents said they chose the school because of good academic results and the matric pass rate. This was the most dominant reason across all the parents. Some 56 (54%) selected the school because it has good qualified teachers who have a good reputation on academics, 44 (43%) were attracted by good discipline in the school, 42 (41%) chose the school because it was nearby, and 28 (26%) based their choice on the fact that the child wanted to enrol in the school. Factors such as good sport, affordability and strong SMT were chosen by some parents (see Table 4.8).

Table 4.8: Factors determining why parents selected the school. (**Source**: Own).

Factors driving enrolment in the school	**Parents who selected this as a reason**
The school produces good academic results	84%
Good teachers	54%
The school has good discipline	43%
It is close to my home	41%
My child wanted to enrol in the school/my child chose it	26%
Good facilities in general, e.g. classrooms, toilets, library	23%
Good sports	22%
The school management is strong	21%
This is a school I can afford	19%
I wanted my child to learn in a specific language of instruction	16%
Another one of my children was already enrolled in the school	12%
Previous generation attended the school	12%
Small class size	3%
It is close to where I work	2%
The school offers value for money	1%

4.3.4 Findings: By what means, at what cost and how long does the daily school commute take?

Regarding the distance between home and school, about 94 (91%) indicated that the school is close to their residence, while only 9 (9%) indicated that the school is not the closest one to their residence. All the sampled parents said their children walk to school and back. The typical commute time was short but increased with distance from the school. In terms of this, some 64 (62%) take less than 15 minutes to get to school, and 32 (31%) take up to 30 minutes to get to school. Some do walk for longer, with 7 (7%) taking between 31 and 45 minutes to get to school. In terms of kilometres, about 63 (61.8%) travel less than 2 km per day, 32 (31%) travel up to 4 km per day, and 7 (7%) travel up to 8 km per day.

4.3.5 Findings: What are the costs of schooling for these learners?

The study found that no parent paid school fees, and, by walking to school, none had to pay for transport either. There were additional fees that parents payed, however: some 48 (47%) parents bought school uniforms, 32 (31%) made donations to the school, 26 (25%) bought school stationery and 25 (24%) spent money on school lunch money/tuckshop money (see Table 4.9). In total, about 69 (67%) parents spend approximately R500 per year, 21 (20%)

between R500 and R1500 per year, 9 (9%) between R1500 and R3000 per year, and two (2%) spend between R3000 and R5000 per year.

Table 4.9: Additional school costs**.** (**Source**: Own).

Basic services item	**Percentage of parents who pay this**
Uniforms (such as blazers, shoes and the like)	47%
Donations to the school (cash)	31%
Stationery (pens, pencils and the like)	25%
School lunch money/tuckshop money	24%
School sports activities (include uniforms and transport)	13%
School books (exercise books)	10%
Extracurricular activities and excursions (e.g. art, drama, school outings, choir)	10%
Textbooks	5%
Extra lessons, e.g. maths, English	3%

4.4 Sehlabeng Secondary School

4.4.1 Findings: The demographic profile of learners

According to data supplied by the parents, most learners enrolled in Sehlabeng Secondary School are Black Africans, at 76 (97%). One (1%) was Coloured, and one (1%) declared themselves as either Indian or Asian. Most learners (76 or 99%) spoke Sesotho at home, and one (1%) said they spoke IsiZulu. Thus, in terms of race and home language, the school is homogenous with almost no racial diversity. Geographically, many learners (68 or 87%) came from different sections of the townships that surround Ladybrand, namely Thusanong, Metampelong, Mekokong, Lusaka, Vukuzenzele, Thabong, Flamingo, Homes, Mauersnek, Masakeng and Mandela Park. Seven (9%) came from Platberg, two (3%) from farms, and one (1%) from Ficksburg.

4.4.2 Findings: The socio-economic profile of learners

In terms of socio-economic profile, some 29 (37%) of learners lived with their mothers, 24 (31%) lived with both parents, 12 (15%) lived with their grandparents, 11 (15%) lived with their uncle/aunt/sister/brother/relatives, and two (3%) lived with their father. The majority did not live with both parents. There was an overlap between who the learners were living with and the relationship status of learners' parents: some 33 (42%) were single parents, 17 (22%) were married, 13 (17%) were living together, six (8%) were widows/widowers, four (5%) were

remarried, three (4%) were divorced, and two (3%) were being raised by family members. Thus, the school is dominated by learners who come from homes with one primary caregiver.

Overall, in terms of occupation, some 43 (55%) said they were unemployed, either as stay-home parents or pensioners, 27 (35%) said they worked in unskilled jobs, three (4%) said they worked in partly skilled jobs, two (3%) said they worked in non-manual skilled jobs, two (3%) said they worked in professional jobs, and one (1%) said they worked in a managerial/technical job (see Figure 4.3). Most of the parents either did not work or had unskilled jobs.

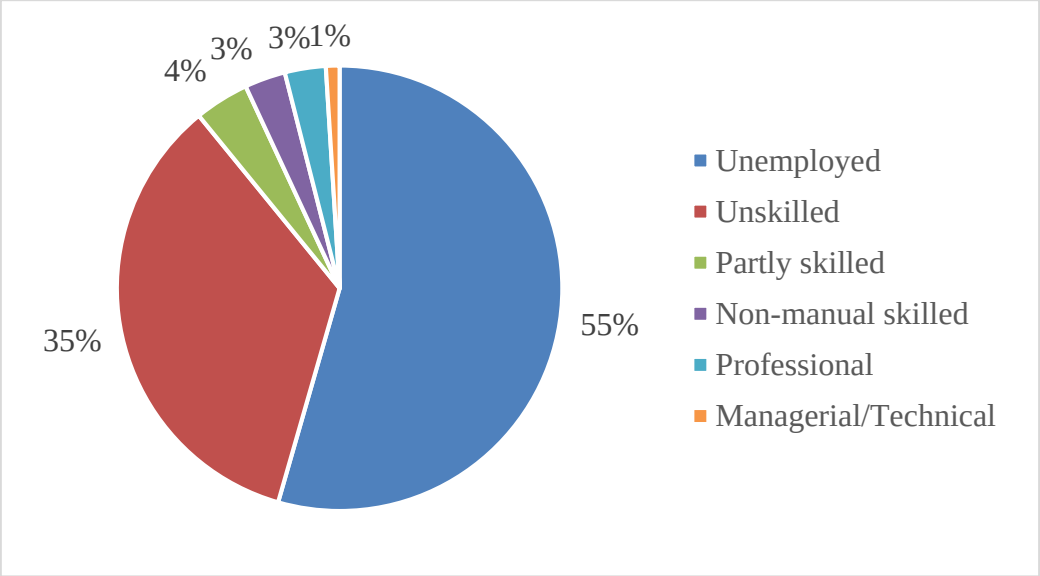

Figure 4.3: Occupation of parents of learners enrolled in Sehlabeng Secondary (in percentage). (**Source**: Own).

In terms of educational levels, the questionnaire differentiated between mothers and fathers. When looking at the educational level of mothers, the majority 27 (35%) had completed Grade 12 or matric. About 25 (32%) said they had Grade 9 education, 21 (27%) had completed primary school, two (5%) had an undergraduate degree/diploma. There were no mothers with any postgraduate qualifications. Thus, the majority had completed some high school education or high school. For fathers, the majority 17 (53%) had completed Grade 12 or matric. Ten (31%) said they had a Grade 9 education, four (13%) had completed primary school, and one (3%) had an undergraduate degree/diploma. There were no fathers with postgraduate qualifications. Thus, most fathers had completed high school or some high school and were generally more educated than the mothers. However, 46 (59%) did not know the education status of their fathers.

In terms of lifestyle indicators of parents, the majority (72 or 92%) owned a TV and DVD player, 63 (81%) had a fridge in their homes, 63 (81%) had electric stoves, and 44 (56%) had a microwave oven. Furthermore, a good number of respondents owned a smartphone (42 or 54%) and had an M-Net or DSTV subscription (24 or 31%) (see Table 4.10). TV and DVD players, fridges and an electric stove are the most dominant features of these households. This indicates that most learners are from homes with disposable incomes that make these items affordable.

Table 4.10: Lifestyle indicators. (**Source**: Own).

Lifestyle item	**Percentage**
TV and DVD players	92%
Fridge	81%
Electric stove	81%
Microwave oven	56%
Smart phone	54%
DSTV/M-Net	31%
Gates and wall around my house	31%
Washing machine	25%
Vacuum cleaner	18%
Computer/laptop	13%
iPad/tablet	6%
Tumble drier	4%
Home security service	4%
Dishwashing machine	3%

In addition, most (63 or 81%), reported having access to basic services such as electricity. About 61 (78%) made use of public hospitals, 60 (77%) did not have Internet in their household, and 47 (60%) had someone in their home that collects a government grant. Only 10 (13%) had a motor vehicle, and no parent had a domestic worker or a gardener in their home. Thus, statistically based on self-reported occupational category and household assets, it seems that most learners reside in lower income homes, with some exceptions, especially those who must rely on public healthcare and government grants, who may be underclass (see Table 4.11).

Table 4.11: Access to basic services. (**Source**: Own).

Basic services item	**Percentage of households who have these services**
I have electricity in my house	81%
I make use of public hospitals	78%
There is no Internet in my household	77%
In my home, someone collects a government grant	60%
There are no pets in my household	35%
Flushing toilet	29%
I live in a house	21%
I seldom go on holiday	15%
Motor vehicle in the household	13%
A geyser for hot water	9%
Everyone who wants to work has a job	9%
Domestic worker/gardener	0%

4.4.3 Findings: Why is the child enrolled in the school?

Based on the analysis, about 51 (65%) of parents chose the school because of good discipline, 49 (63%) for academic results and the matric pass rate, and 44 (56%) because of good teachers. Some 33 (42%) chose it because the school is close to their home, and 26 (33%) chose it based on it being affordable (See Table 4.12).

Table 4.12: Factors determining why parents selected the school. (**Source**: Own).

Factors driving enrolment in the school	**Percentage who selected this as a reason**
The school has good discipline	65%
The school produces good academic results	63%
Good teachers	56%
It is close to my home	42%
This is a school I can afford	33%
Good sports	28%
I wanted my child to learn in a specific language of instruction	28%
The school management is strong	27%
My child wanted to enrol in the school, my child chose it	22%
Good facilities in general, e.g. classrooms, toilets, library	21%
Another one of my children was already enrolled in the school	17%
I chose this school for religious reasons	13%
Small class size	10%
The school offers value for money	9%
It is close to where I work	5%
Previous generation attended the school	5%

4.4.4 Findings: By what means, at what cost and how long does the daily school commute take?

Regarding the distance between home and school, about 62 (80%) indicated that the school is close to their residence, while only 16 (21%) indicated that the school is not closest to their residence. This is an indication that most learners chose the school because is closer to where they live. The study found that all learners who were sampled in the study walk to school and back. The typical commute time was short and increased with distance from the school. Some 35 (45%) took less than 15 minutes to get to school, 32 (41%) took up to 30 minutes to get to school. Four (5%) took between 31 and 45 minutes, one (1%) took between 46 and 60 minutes, four (5%) took between 60 to 90 minutes, and two (3%) took between 1½ hours to 2 hours. In terms of kilometres, about 35 (45%) travel less than 2 km per day, 32 (41%) travel up to 4 km per day, five (6.4%) travel up to 8 km per day, two (2.6%) travel up to 12 km per day, and four (5%) travel up to 20 km per day.

4.4.5 Findings: What are the costs of schooling?

The study found that no parent paid fees, as this as a no-fee school. Parents do pay for other educational costs, however. Some 45 (58%) made donations to the school, 37 (47%) bought school uniforms, 32 (41%) spent money on school lunch money/tuckshop money and 25 (or 32%) bought school stationery (see Table 4.13). Thus, the total education costs ranged from 56 (72%) spending more or less than R500 per year, 20 (26%) spending between R500 and R1500 per year, and the highest two (3%) spending between R1500 and R3000 per year.

Table 4.13: Additional cost of schooling for learners. (**Source**: Own).

School items	**Percentage purchasing these items**
Donations	58%
School uniforms	47%
School lunch money	41%
Stationery	32%
Textbooks	17%
Extracurricular activities	14%
School books (exercise books)	13%
Extra lessons	13%
School sports activities	12%

4.5 Conclusion

This chapter focused on school choice and school commuting. It discussed the demographic profile of learners, the socio-economic profile of learners, the reason for enrolling in the school, and the means, cost and length of the daily school commute. Based on the self-reported data, there were commonalities across all three schools. Firstly, most learners that are enrolled in all three schools are Black African. Secondly, the majority speak Sesotho at home. Thirdly, most hail from the different sections of the townships that surround the town of Ladybrand; these are Thusanong, Metampelong, Mekokong, Lusaka, Vukuzenzele, Thabong, Flamingo, Homes, Mauersnek, Masakeng and Mandela Park. Fourthly, in terms of educational status of parents in all three schools, most mothers and fathers have completed Grade 12. Fifthly, most households across all three schools have electricity, TVs or DVDs, electric stoves, fridges and entertainment items such as DSTV/M-NET. Sixthly, the most commonly purchased school-related item was school uniforms. In this regard, all parents spent roughly R500 a year on their child's education, although the actual items paid for and the total cost, varied. Finally, most parents said they chose the school because of good academic results and good discipline in the

school – a strong indicator of what is important to parents when it comes to school choice. The following chapter discusses the findings of the SMT and SGB Interviews. It starts by presenting the findings from the SMT then the SGB.

CHAPTER 5: FINDINGS: SCHOOL MANAGEMENT TEAM AND SCHOOL GOVERNING BODY INTERVIEWS

5.1. Introduction

In addition to the parental survey, SMT and SGB interviews were conducted. The SMT interviews focused on the day-to-day running of the school. The interviews included questions on school revenues, extra lessons for learners, resources needed by the school and learners' discipline. There was a focus on support provided by the parents and the DBE to the school. The SGB interviews were based on school governance issues – how the SGB assists the school with respect to discipline, improvement programmes, fund raising and hiring of educators. The interview also looked at the support that the SGB receives from the DBE. The number of interviews conducted per school are described in Table 5.1. The chapter starts by discussing the results of the SMT interviews per schools, and then moves on to discuss the SGB interviews for each school.

Table 5.1: Number of SMT and SGB interviews per school. (**Source**: Own).

School	***No of SMT interviewed***	***No of SGB interviewed***
Ladybrand High	4	0
Lereng Secondary	4	4
Sehlabeng Secondary	4	3

5.2 School Management Team Ladybrand High School Interview Results

5.2.1. School fees and additional revenue streams

At the time of the study, school fees were R9 250 per year. Parents can pay over a period of 11 months at R840 per month (no interest is charged). However, if the parents pay the full amount within the first term, a one-month instalment discount is offered (9% discount). There is a fee waiver. This fee waiver relies on a sliding scale, using the formula used by the DBE. Thus, the fee waiver depends on the income of the parents. "*We also have learners that do not afford to pay school fees as they come from poor family backgrounds with unemployed parents, as the school we have no choice but to exempt them from paying fees"* [Respondent 4]. For learners who are orphans, no school fees are levied. The school is mostly dependent on school fees for some of its functions such as paying educators in SGB posts, clerks, cleaners and maintenance of the school. Additional fees levied depend on learner subject choice. For example, learners

who choose Graphics and Design and Computer Application Technology must pay additional fees. Graphic Design learners also must buy their own drawing resources. Learners also pay for the sports tours, which can cost up to R3 000 per trip – for example, *"this year we have planned a trip for our learners to Mossel Bay and our learners are showing much interest"* [Respondent 2]. They also pay for athletics tours if they are going to participate in sport at provincial level. The amount for this is R10.00 to R20.00 for the registration fee. They also undertake some outdoor education, with a learners' camp where they are taught about the biophysical environment. For the camp, learners pay up to R900. Matric learners pay for the matric farewell. Additional income is generated when learners pay for 'civvies day', which is between R3.50 and R5.00 per event. Learners are given sponsor forms or donation forms to obtain financial support from community and business owners. Donations help to close the gap between costs and income. These gaps may include paying SGB educators, clerks and cleaners, as well as administration salaries, which often accounts for most of the school expenses, facility maintenance and school operations.

5.2.2. Admission policies

Ladybrand High is the only dual medium school in the Mantsopa district; therefore, there are many applications for admission to the school. The school has two feeder schools: Ladybrand Primary School and Hermana Primary School. Learners from these two schools are accommodated first. If there is space, then learners from the Clocolan, Tweespruit, Hobhouse and Thaba Nchu areas are offered a place at the school. Lesotho citizens are the last to be offered a place, and usually only if possible.

5.2.3 Transport and access

Ladybrand High School and Ladybrand Primary School work together to manage the transportation of learners. Ladybrand High provides a school bus that all learners from Clocolan can use. Ladybrand Primary provides transport for primary and high school learners travelling from Tweespruit and Hobhouse. Such learners travel more than 50 km per day. They make use of the library while waiting for the bus. *"We are saving costs and it would impossible for the bus to collect learners from Clocolan and Tweespruit on the same morning"* [Respondent 1]. Both schools own these buses and learners pay a transportation fee. There is a type of transport subsidy, as the schools pay for maintenance of the buses and the salaries of the drivers. The school would like to provide more transport for learners. Learners from Lesotho use minibuses taxis to get to school, as do learners from township areas such as

Thusanong, Metampelong, Mekokong, Lusaka, Vukuzenzele, Thabong, Flamingo, Homes, Mauersnek, Masakeng and Mandela Park. Learners also use minibus taxis to come to school. Some parents use their own private cars drop off learners. A few walk to school.

The school has a problem with learners coming late. "*We have learners that are dropped by their parents early in the morning (before the schools start) and then these learners loiter around the town and end up coming late to the school"* [Respondent 3]. The school tries to engage parents to reduce the late coming. Thus, they have a system where parents of learners who travel by bus and minibus taxis usually notify the school if there is problem or if learners will be late. Learners from Lesotho are often late due to border issues, but the drivers do notify the school if this is the case.

5.2.4. Support services for learners

The school reported multiple support services for learners. These includes food, extra lessons, a library service and extra-mural activities.

5.2.4.1. Subsidised lunch

The school does not have an official feeding scheme, but for learners who cannot afford lunch, the teachers give them money daily to buy food. "*We are regarded as a wealthy school and the DBE forget that we have learners that do not have anything to eat during lunch. We as teachers use our own money to buy food for those learners as we see they are hungry"* [Respondent 2]. Thus, there is no support from the State for such impoverished learners.

5.2.4.2. Extra lessons

The school offers extra classes. For Grade 12s, there is maths, science, languages and accounting. These lessons are offered immediately after school from Monday to Friday. *"If you can look at our Matric results for the past five years you will see that the school prepare their matric learners very well and that is noticeable even by the DBE. We are the school with absolutely outstanding academic record. Monday to Friday we are there to support our Grade 12 learners after schools"* [Respondent 1]. For the other grades, the focus is on learners who struggle. In these cases, teachers stay behind and assist with reading and other school-related work. "*The teacher that need extra lessons with lower grades makes arrangement to have them after school. We try to push learners that have difficulties not to be left behind and it help them*

to be on the same understanding with other classmates and makes our work easy" [Respondent 4].

5.2.4.3. Extracurricular activities

The school has a computer centre to help learners with Internet access. The school has cultural activities such as youth activities, debates, drama, public speaking, a school newspaper, an agricultural team and a youth exhibition. The sports include cross-country athletics, rugby, soccer, cricket, hockey and netball.

Despite the above activities, the school does not have sports grounds for rugby, hockey and soccer. There is a sports ground near the school that belongs to the municipality. The school pays to use this venue and must also upgrade/maintain it as the municipality does not do so. "*As the school, we pay money to utilise a municipal ground but each and every time we have to clean the ground before we play. There is trash and glass bottles everywhere and the area looks like a dump, toilets are unusable. It is a total disaster"* [Respondent 2].

5.2.5 Stakeholder involvement

5.2.5.1. Teachers

Most teachers come from areas around Ladybrand. The school claimed it has good teachers and does not struggle keep them, but the school does struggle to hire new teachers. Teachers are reluctant to relocate to Ladybrand, as they claim the cost of living in Ladybrand is high. For example, a post-level 1 teacher cannot afford to buy a house, pay for water and electricity, as well as support their family. Part of the problem is that there is no hostel where educators can be accommodated. The school feels that it does not have enough teachers at school, making SGB posts essential. Unfortunately, the SGB posts do not pay as much as a DBE post, so it is difficult to get new people to fill SGB posts.

5.2.5.2. Parental involvement

There is only minimal parental involvement in the school. The school tries to engage parents by writing to them to invite them to come and check on their children's progress. "*You will be surprise by parents, the only time you will see a parents in the schools is when their children is in trouble and have to be disciplined. Parents do not support us at all. We deal with their children alone"* [Respondent 1]. Usually, only a tiny minority of parents comes to the school

to check the progress of their children. This is true even for sports activities on Saturdays. Sometimes the school will phone parents to ask them to come to the school.

5.2.5.3. Involvement of the Department of Basic Education

The DBE supports the school by providing funds, although the funds do not match the overall financial needs of the school. The school is designated as a Quintile 5 and is *"regarded as a rich school"* [Respondent 1]. Thus, the school receives about R98 000 a year from the DBE. This equals to R200-R220 per learner per year. Of the money, one percent is set aside for school maintenance, and between 20 and 30 percent is for water and electricity. The rest is spent on textbooks (usually R40 000 to R50 000, which is not enough, respondents said). Thus, learners must buy their own stationery, and the school uses the school fees for maintenance.

In terms of academic support, Learning Facilitators (LF) do occasionally come to the school. However, for some learning areas, the LF only comes to the school once every three years or so. Most teachers therefore must travel 140 km to Bloemfontein to see their subject LF. *"I do not have any support from my LF, I haven't seen my LF for years now, just because my subject has been obtaining 100% in Grade 12 results my LF does not come anymore because we are regarded as a performing school*" [Respondent 4]. Carrying the costs of travelling is difficult for the school.

5.2.5.4. Municipal involvement

While there is not much support from the local municipality, sometimes the municipality does help to clean the school premises. As already indicated, the municipal sports facility that is utilised by the school is not properly maintained, and there is no proper sanitation and water at the facility. Although there is a new sports centre in Manyatseng, the schools are not allowed to use it. "*The municipality is unable to help us with the playing grounds, we went to ask them to allow us to use one of their new ground in the township but they denied access. They only allowed us to use nearby ground that is filthy and has no proper sanitation and water supply"* [Respondent 3].

5.2.6 Managing discipline in the school

The school has a system of 'slips' or forms for when learners are ill-disciplined – for example, if learners do not complete their schoolwork. If a learner accumulates more than three of these, they must stay in on Friday for three hours of detention at school. "*We also have a good tool to monitor discipline in the school, there are cameras around the school and they help with ensuring that learners behave inside the school premises"* [Respondent 2].
There are also internal hearings held by teachers. These hearings deal with minor offences. The SGB deals with major cases such as fighting at school or theft. The Learner Representative Council (LRC) also helps with discipline; they patrol the school during breaks and the teachers do ground duties every break, to help maintain discipline.

5.2.7 Challenges facing the school

One of the challenges facing the school is finances. There is not enough money to pay for SGB posts. The school is currently paying about 17 staff members from SGB funds. Of these, 12 posts are for cleaners, the secretary and the financial clerk. The rest (5) are temporary teachers. Another problem is the ablution facilities. The ratio of learners to toilet is around 45:1, instead of the 20:1 that the DBE says is the norm and standard. The school would like to upgrade the ablution block.

The school also lacks a physical science laboratory and a life science laboratory. The school is also dual medium, but the demand for English medium is such that there are 50 learners in the English class. Unfortunately, more classrooms cannot be easily built, as the school buildings are heritage buildings, and so special permission must be granted to expand the school. The school has been promised mobile classrooms, but these have not yet been delivered. The classroom shortage has meant that the school no longer has a library, as the library (as well as the home economics classroom) is now an ordinary classroom. "*There have been a significant increase in the number of learners in the school, so the school decided to use the library venue as classroom to avoid overcrowding of learners in one classroom. We still have shortage of classrooms, for example, some English classes are still overcrowded. The issue of shortage of classrooms is really frustrating to teachers"* [Respondent 3].

Learners do use the library in town, although it cannot accommodate many of them. "*We were promised a new building for a library, but five years has passed since then. Our learners do*

not have extra books to study besides the school textbooks" [Respondent 1]. The library in town does not has enough resources for learners; for example, there are only two computers available. Thus, the school would like to have additional classrooms and have a laboratory for life sciences and physical science. Additionally, they would like to fix or improve the administration block and have a tearoom for the SGB members. as the current room they use is small, and the building they are using is in poor condition.

5.3 School Management Team Lereng Secondary School Interview Results

5.3.1. School fees and additional revenue streams

The learners in the school do not pay any school fees. The school is designated as a Quintile 1-3 school and so parents are exempted from paying school fees. *"We have learners that comes from poor background families and they cannot even afford that school fee. I am glad for that otherwise we were going to have a big challenge"* [Respondent 4]. The DBE provides the school with funds for their daily operational expenses, although the funds are insufficient. Parents do pay for beauty contests, entertainment and school trips. The school, further, has an annual programme for raising funds. This includes setting aside specific calendar days for activities, such as a fresher's ball, civvies days, beauty contests/competitions and Valentine's Day. Money is raised by charging learners to participate in these events.

5.3.2. Admission policies

The school does not use geographical boundaries in terms of admission. The school admits learners from feeder schools; thereafter, they try to accommodate other learners. Admission of learners depends on available places. *"We admit all learners in our school as long as we have space for them, we have learners that comes from Clocolan, Platberg, farms and Lesotho areas"* [Respondent 4]. There are learners from Lesotho who are admitted if they have the relevant documents such as a passport and a study permit.

5.3.3 Transport and access

Most learners walk to school. Some walk 10 km per day to and from the school from areas such Platberg and surrounding farms. *"It is very painful to see learners especially from the farms coming to school by foot and they are tired in the classroom and still need to go back after school. Some even don't come to school when it's raining because they can't cross the river"* [Respondent 1]. For those who stay in the township itself, the furthest they have to walk is 2 km per day to and from the school. Learners from Lesotho travel about 20 km per day or

more, to and from the school. Learners from Lesotho use minibus taxis. Learners residing at the hostel are subsidised in the form of a government bus for their daily commute to school, but there is no subsidy for learners using minibuses to get to school. Long-distance travelling especially by foot has a huge impact on learners. They get to school tired and this affects their academic performance, although not for all of them. "*But there are those learners that travel long distance, but they are still performing good in the academics, I think it depends on the intellectual level of individuals"* [Respondent 3]. Absenteeism was another problem. They have to travel far, and some of them are absent on rainy days. "*They miss a day a day or two and it's difficult for them to catch up"* [Respondent 1]. Accommodating learners in a hostel was a step undertaken by the State to ensure that all learners have access to quality teaching and learning. The criteria for admission to the hostel includes the following: (1) learners who travel 10 km and more to the nearest school; (2) learners whose family backgrounds were not conducive to accessing quality education, such as orphans, or learners separated from their families. There are no fees for accommodation, food and other services.

5.3.4 Support services for learners

The school reported that they have several support services for learners. These include a feeding scheme, extra lessons and extra-mural activities.

5.3.4.1. A feeding scheme

The school provides a feeding scheme for all learners attending the school. The DBE provides the school with the funds for the feeding scheme. Learners are provided with meals during the lunch break. There are also personnel employed to cook for the learners.

5.3.4.2. Extra lessons

The school has the programme for extra classes. Grade 12s have extra classes in the morning from 6:00 am until 7:00 am and afternoon classes from 2:30 pm until 4:30 pm. They also have classes during the weekend and the school holidays. For the lower grades, there are afternoon extra classes during the week. There was a library in the school, but it is not functional. "*It does not have necessary resources"* [Respondent 1]. The textbook materials that are stored in the library are outdated; however, there is a library nearby the school which the learners utilise.

5.3.4.3 Extracurricular activities

The school has different sporting codes, such as chess, soccer and lady's soccer, hockey, tennis, choir and netball. "*We often have visitors from other schools to come and play with our*

learners" [Respondent 2]. The problem is that they do not have the proper grounds for some of the sporting codes.

5.3.5 Stakeholder involvement

5.3.5.1. Teachers

"I cannot say that we struggle to find good teachers because we do have good teachers and we do keep them" [Respondent 3]. The school believes in headhunting. For instance, when they know that there is a good teacher at a school, they talk to the teacher concerned and bring them on board, where possible. Promotion also takes place within the school itself, so they do not have a situation whereby teachers leave the school. Good teachers only leave the school for promotional or personal reasons. "*Sometimes some of the schools want them and they have to leave under such conditions, if they are promoted, we can't keep them"* [Respondent 1].

5.3.5.2. Parental involvement

"Parents are not that much involved in the school like in the former Model C schools whereby you will be called for anything involving your child. Parents do not even care about the classwork's and homework of their children, they do not even assist. They are only involved when the school requires some money, but some do not even contribute" [Respondent 3]. "*Sometimes when you call parents to the school they do not come. They do not know anything that happens between teachers and learners"* [Respondent 1]. Despite this, some parents assist the school with the cleaning of the hall and the school premises. When there are school camps, some parents volunteer to help the school in terms of providing security services, and they assist with cooking for learners.

5.3.5.3. Involvement of the Department of Basic Education

There are various programmes that the Learning Facilitators hold in an attempt to support educators. For instance, sometimes workshops are held on the school premise, and neighbouring schools are invited. "*There is enough resources that come from the department"* [Respondent 4]. They also send emails in terms of what is expected of the teachers; however, the resources the school receives from the department are not enough. *They say they support us, but I don't see that happening except giving us money"* [Respondent 4].

5.3.5.4. Municipal involvement

"The local municipality does not support the school, the only support that I know of is when we had three learners that performed well in Grade 12 final result. They invited those learners

and gave them R5000 each" [Respondent 2]. The municipality does assist the school when there is a shortage of water in the school.

5.3.6 Managing discipline in the school

The school has a disciplinary committee that deals with the discipline of learners. In cases where a learner falls foul of the school code of conduct, they will be given a letter to the parent and the parent will be expected to come to the school. "*We write down everything that was communicated with the parent as evidence for future cases"* [Respondent 4]. The committee will meet with the parent and try to resolve the issue at hand. "*We have noticed a change in the behaviour of learners if the parent was called into the school"* [Respondent 1]. One of the punishments involves making the learners clean the toilets and collect litter from around the school yard.

5.3.7 Challenges facing the school

Parents are not adequately involved in the education of the learners. When the school requests them to come for Grade meetings, the turnout is poor. The school also has the problem of teenage pregnancy. Learners are falling pregnant and drop out of school. Those falling pregnant while in Grade 12 tend to have a poor academic performance, which reflects negatively on the school. "*Some are affected by challenges such as losing the child and it affects them academically"* [Respondent 2]. There was also a challenge of gangsterism. Many of the learners are part of the gangster groupings in the township, so the fights will even take place within the premises of the school. "*Very often we will call the police and classes would be disrupted"* [Respondent 2]. Discipline is also a problem. Learners in the school are ill-disciplined and it is difficult to discipline them. The school needs more support from the parents in terms of discipline.

They would like to upgrade the computer centre and science laboratories. The school does have a computer laboratory, but it is not functional. "*If the computers are maintained I think it will benefit us and we can install programmes for maths and learners can do research"* [Respondent 3]. They also need a library with functional resources, as the school has a library building, but the resources that are kept in the library are old and not useful. They need a boardroom; if the school has official visitors, there is no proper meeting place. *"We take them to the very same library, if the library becomes functional, there wouldn't be a place where the visitors can stay and work* [Respondent 4]. *I would upgrade a kitchen for feeding scheme because it's too small and learners often misbehave during the eating break"* [Respondent 2].

5.4 School Management Team Sehlabeng Secondary School Interview Results

5.4.1. School fees and additional revenue streams

All the SMT representatives indicated that the school was a no-fee school, as it is a Quintile 1-3 school. *"This is a no fee-paying school, so learners do not pay anything. On the Grade 12 we only ask parents to pay for school camps nothing more than that"* [Respondent 1]. Parents pay for activities like raffles, donations and civvies. "*Last year we raffled a microwave, fridge and a washing machine. Learners pay R50 to enter the raffle competition"* [Respondent 2]. They also pay for activities such as Mr and Mrs Sehlabeng, cultural activities and Valentine's Day. If the school has vacation camps, all interested learners pay for the trip.

5.4.2. Admission policies

There are no geographical boundaries in terms of admission of learners to the school. The school will first admit learners from the feeder primary school, and only then other learners. There are learners from Lesotho, Clocolan, Platberg and surrounding farm areas. "*We have no boundaries because we also admit learners from Lesotho as long as they have a study permit and all the necessary documents"* [Respondent 2].

5.4.3 Transport and access

Most learners walk to school. There are learners travelling 10 km per day to and from the school from areas such as Platberg and surrounding farms in Ladybrand. Learners staying in the township (which is not far from the school) travel up to 2 km to and from the school. Learners from Lesotho travel about 20 km or more, per day, to and from the school. Learners from Platberg, farms and townships travel on foot, but Lesotho learners use minibus taxis. Learners residing in the hostel are subsidised in the form of a government bus for their daily commute to school. There is no subsidy provided for learners using minibus taxis to travel to school.

Daily school commuting has an impact on academic performance in the learners based at the hostel; they travel by bus to and from the school. "*Learners from the hostel do not stay after school for extra classes, they do not stay behind because there is no other means to travel back to the hostel"* [Respondent 4]. On rainy days teachers struggle, because learners who walk often do not come to school. "*Some of the learners come to school already tired and they have to go back again and sometimes it's raining, they have to cross the river and some of them don't come to school when it's raining"* [Respondent 1].

5.4.4. Support services for learners

The school reported several support services for learners. These include a feeding scheme, extra lessons and extramural activities.

5.4.4.1. A feeding scheme

Learners are provided with meals at school, although recently there were some challenges and the learners have not been fed. The school was still waiting for the funds from the DBE for the feeding scheme. The school has a kitchen for the feeding scheme. The school employs parents to cook for the learners, and they are paid by the DBE.

5.4.4.2. Extra lessons

The school has extra lessons organised by teachers for maths in Grade 9 and accounting in Grade 10. For the other subjects, teachers organise extra classes if there is additional work that they need to do with learners. Grade 11 has compulsory afternoon classes from 2:30pm until 4 pm from Monday to Thursday. Grade 12 has extra lessons every day in the morning from 6 am and in the evening from 2:30 until 5 pm, and they also attend during the weekends and school holidays. "*We have extra classes for Grade 12 throughout the year"* [Respondent 3]. The school currently does not have a library, but they use the local one that is nearby.

5.4.4.3. Extracurricular activities

The sports activities that the school offers include athletics, soccer, public speaking, chess, netball, choir and indigenous games. The school currently does not have the sports ground for learners to participate in some sports activities. The school is currently using temporary structures – that is, mobile containers, but there is not enough space for playing grounds such as soccer and netball. *Currently we don't have the grounds for soccer and netball at the school and we are unable to practice these sports"* [Respondent 4].

5.4.5 Stakeholder involvement

5.4.5.1. Teachers

The school does struggle to find good teachers. There is a post for HOD of mathematics that has not been filled for more than five years, as they cannot find a suitable candidate to fill that post. Keeping the good teachers was also a struggle, because the DBE often declares the school as being in excess in terms of learner-teacher ratio and some teachers have to leave school. "*We struggle because at the end of the year, the department will say that we are in excess and many teachers will have to go. If the number of learners is decreasing, they will take off the teacher*

especially those that are temporary or those that are many in one subject" [Respondent 2]. "*Some of us stayed longer in the school because we were born here, and our homes are here so we will not go anywhere"* [Respondent 3]. This affects mostly temporary teachers and teachers that are many in one stream. Most of the teachers do not stay long, because they are appointed temporarily for a period of time and they need to find a permanent post.

5.4.5.2. Parental involvement

Parents do not support the school the way the school wished they did. The majority of parents are not actively involved. The parents who are most involved are the Grade 12 parents. They help with cooking for learners during weekends and school camps. There are those parents that help with camps for learners. Some parents attend the meetings when they are invited, but others never show up. The school does have SGB parents who are involved in each committee of the school. "*SGB sign our cheques and they are invited in the teachers interviews"* [Respondent 1].

5.4.5.3. Involvement of the Department of Basic Education

The DBE provides funds for the school, the feeding scheme for learners is subsidised by the DBE, and the parents who work for the feeding scheme are paid by the DBE. School materials that are needed in subjects such as science are provided by the DBE. They send LFs to visit the school to support the teachers, but the resources the school receives from the Department are not enough. "*The DBE help us by providing LFs to help teachers and gives teachers documents that they need"* [Respondent 4].

5.4.5.4. Municipal involvement

The municipality sometimes comes to the school to motivate learners to obtain good results, especially in Grade 12. The mayor also bought shoes for learners in need at the school. "*But there is not much that the local municipality do for the school"* [Respondent 1]. "*I am not sure whether they help us or not"* [Respondent 2].

5.4.6 Managing discipline in the school

Discipline was managed by all educators, and there was also an LRC that helps to control learners, especially in the morning with gate control. Teachers do ground duties during break, and they maintain discipline in the classroom. There are class rules in every classroom, and learners must abide by the rules. "*Sometimes we give ill-disciplined learners extra work like collecting papers around the school yard and cleaning toilets* "[Respondent 1]. If it's more

serious, a parent will be called to the school. They also have a learners' affairs committee which deals with discipline of learners.

5.4.7 Challenges facing the school

"The biggest problem facing the schools is lack of funds and also the buildings" [Respondent 2]. The school is in a temporary structure (mobile containers), and leaks on rainy days. The school does not have a library or science laboratories, there are no proper grounds and no hall. There is no proper staff room, and the HODs share a single office which is near the toilets. *"Currently all HODs we are in one office and we are unable to discuss some issues with the educators"* [Respondent 2]. The mobile containers are too cold in winter and too hot in summer, so the environment is not conducive to teaching and learning.

"Currently they are busy upgrading the school and I think most of the resources and facilities that we need will be there" [Respondent 3]. Learners who travel more than 10 km per day on foot also cross a river. When it is raining, they do not come to school. Learners in the school come from poor family backgrounds, and therefore struggle to buy school uniforms and stationery that the department does not provide. "*They can't buy stuff like calculators and dictionaries"* [Respondent 2]. Gangsters are a problem, since some learners in the school are members of gangs. *"The gangsters from the community often come and attacks the gangster learners at the school, so it's not safe for other learners and teachers"* [Respondent 1].

5.5 School Governing Body Lereng Secondary School Interview Results

5.5.1. School fees and additional revenue streams

The SGB members are part of the school committees, such as the entertainment committee, whose main task is to raise funds for the school. They raise the funds because they realised that learners struggle and there were financial problems at the school. "*We have seen that our learners are going to struggle with finance for the feeding scheme as there are financial strains experienced by the school so we see that raising funds will boost the school finances"* [Respondent 1]. Although the DBE contributes money to the school, it is not enough to meet all the needs of the school. "*As the SGB we have the rights to raise school funds so that we can increase the school money"* [Respondent 4]**.** The entertainment committee hosts activities such as raffles and hiring out the school hall. They also have a traditional dance called *Ditolobonya* and other activities such as a beauty contest, fresher's ball, Miss and Mr Lereng, all which charge entry fees which then produce funds for the school.

5.5.2. Admission policies

The school does not have any geographical boundaries for admission of learners to the school. The admission of the learners to the school starts with the local feeder schools which are: Ladybrand Public School, Manyatseng Primary, Leru Primary and Saint Benedict Primary. Learners from other places such as Clocolan, Botshabelo, Maseru and Welkom and Platberg will be considered thereafter. The school also admits learners from Lesotho if they have the required study permit and there is still space in the school.

5.5.3 Transport and access

The school does not provide any help for the learners travelling long distances on foot or by vehicle. "*We are currently aware that there are learners that travel long distance by foot to come to school but currently we do not have any means or finances to help them with transport"* [Respondent 4]. Parents arrange and pay transport for learners who come from areas far from the school. The school has learners walking from Platberg, which is about 10 km per day to and from the school. There are also learners who stay in the hostel, and they are subsidised with a bus by the DBE. Learners who stay nearby also walk to the school.

5.5.4 Support services for learners

The SGB reported several support services for learners. These included a school environment improvement project, extra lessons and extramural activities.

5.5.4.1. School environment improvement project and library

The paving of the school and the refurbishment of the school playing grounds was one of the programmes of the SGB, although they have not been implemented yet. "*Our grounds are not in a good state and we are in the process of fixing those"* [Respondent 2]. The camping of learners in the school during the school holidays was also an initiative of the SGB, and they also ensure that it is implemented by coming to the school and assisting with monitoring of learners. "*As the SGB we sit down and try to come up with plans that can improve the school environment and teaching of learners"* [Respondent 3]. The SGB looks after the property of the school, and they ensure that the school furniture is not left outside after school hours or broken. "*We have personnel that work in the school to ensure that the school always looks clean"* [Respondent 1]. The SGB also encourage learners to clean their classrooms. The school has a library, but it is not functional, and has old books that learners do not use. "*The library is*

just full of old books that are packed but the learners are not using it" [Respondent 2]. They use the community library, and the one found in town, to access information and to have Internet access.

5.5.4.2. Language of learning and teaching

Teachers are using English in the classroom, and learners are getting used to the language. Some of the learners' performance has thereby improved in English as a subject. "*It help our learners to get used to the language and not to become shy when they have to express themselves"* [Respondent 4]. The challenge that the school has is that learners only use English inside the classroom and use their home language when they are outside the classroom.

5.5.4.3 Extracurricular activities

In the school they have football, tennis, netball, chess, athletics, debate and indigenous games. "*We would like our learners to be actively involved in all sports activities, but our school does not have the grounds for other sports activities"* [Respondent 3].

5.5.5 Stakeholder involvement

The school also reported several stakeholders' support in the school. This included teachers, parents, SGB and the DBE.

5.5.5.1. Teachers

When there is a teacher vacancy, the school advertises, shortlists, interviews and selects the best candidate for the post. "*It's very difficult to see a good teacher during the interview, it's only when the teacher is appointed in the school that we see their hard work"* [Respondent 2]. They said they do not have a problem of teachers wanting to leave the school. If the school recognises that the teacher was a hard worker and there was a post available, they make sure that the teacher does not leave the school, especially those that are temporary.

5.5.5.2. Parental involvement

During parent meetings, the SGB pleads with parents to come to the school to support their children when there are activities such as sports. They encourage parents to come to Grade meetings to check on their children's progress. "*Even when we are out of school, at home, we talk to parents and encourage them to come to the school meetings"* [Respondent 1]. The

school also encourages parents to check the children's schoolbooks and sign them as an indication that they have checked them. Encouraging teachers, learners and parents to work together was a key theme.

5.5.5.3. SGB support

During camps at the school, learners are provided with food, and the SGB assists with cooking for learners, and makes sure that learners come to school from 9 am to 4 pm in school holidays. "*We support the teachers, we support the learners during school camps. We came to the school and ensure that learners do not misbehave during the school camp"* [Respondent 2]. During parents' meetings, the SGB encourages parents to check learners' schoolwork, and to encourage learners to read. They also encourage parents to make sure that their children go to school, since some working parents leave early for work, and their children end up not going to school. The SGB also comes to the school during the week and walks around the premises to check if teaching and learning are taking place in the school.

5.5.5.4. Involvement of the Department of Basic Education

The school receives support from the DBE, especially with finances. The SGB was invited to the workshops where they are educated about their roles and responsibilities. "*The DBE invites us when there are celebrations for learners' performance, learners who have performed well during the Grade 12 year end results are given prices as a form of appreciation"* [Respondent 2].

5.5.6 Managing discipline in the school

"The discipline of learners in the school is the complex issue" [Respondent 3]. If there is misconduct on the part of a learner, the learner will be given a letter requesting a parent to come to school. "*We do not take any disciplinary measure against the learner without a parent"* [Respondent 4]. The parent will come to the school, and the learner's issues will be discussed with the parent. The outcome of the meeting can result in a learner being disciplined, or suspended, depending on the degree of misconduct. If it's for the first time, a learner will be given a written warning, then five days' suspension if it continues, but, after the five days suspension, if the learner continues, it will lead to a learner receiving a final warning and being suspended from school.

The SGB members also come to the school in the mornings to help teachers with gate control and monitoring of late coming. The SGB members talk to the learners who arrive late at school. "*The problem with the learners is that they leave early from the homes and start in the local shops where they loiter and smoke in groups and by the time they finished they are already late for school and the gates needs to be closed for safety of the other learners in the school"* [Respondent 2]. Such learner can only gain access to the school during break time. The problem is mostly with male learners, but there are some female learners also coming late.

5.5.7 Challenges facing the school

The playing grounds for soccer need grass, for netball paving is needed, and the chess club does not have a playing area. Only the tennis court is in good condition. The consumer class also needs to be upgraded, as the stoves and equipment used are too old. The school needs a science laboratory, and a new feeding scheme kitchen. The school would also like more people working in the kitchen, as well as a boardroom for visitors. "... *we do not have a visitor's room as we have to clean a consumer class every time, we have a visitor so that they can work"* [Respondent 2].

5.6 School Governing Body Sehlabeng Secondary School Interview Results

5.6.1. School fees and additional revenue streams

The school is a no-fee school. "*As much as there is allocation of money from the DBE, it is not enough for the daily needs and running of the school"* [Respondent 1]. The SGB raises funds to make up the shortfall. Fundraising by the SGB also helps to acquire resources needed by the school, as the school budget does not accommodate all the school's needs. Through the SGB committee and entertainment committee, the school embarks on activities like "civvies days". "*There will be certain amount of money that learners are expected to pay for entertainment events"* [Respondent 3]. Sometimes there will be hall activities like Mr and Ms Valentine. The school also does raffles as an annual event, where learners pay to buy tickets. Recently they have introduced the Sehlabeng Cultural Festival (SECUFE) during Heritage Day (in September), where learners dress traditionally, prepare traditional food, and have traditional activities. People come and pay money, thereby contributing to school funds.

5.6.2. Admission policies

The school does not have geographical boundaries in terms of admitting learners. They admit any learners who apply to the school and qualify according to the requirements that regulates the admission of learners. "*We admit anybody that qualifies according to the school admission policy"* [Respondent 2]. Thus, the school has learners from outside the country (Lesotho) and from the surrounding areas of Ladybrand, including farms.

5.6.3 Transport and access

There is no support provided by the school for learners commuting to school. Parents have to pay any travelling costs. "*The school does not have anything to do with travelling of the learners"* [Respondent 2]. The school does have learners living in a hostel, and these learners are provided with subsidised transport by the DBE.

5.6.4. Support services for learners

The SGB reported several support services for learners. These include a school infrastructure management plan, extra lessons and extramural activities.

5.6.4.1. School infrastructure management

The SGB ensures that if there is damage to the property, the school tries to fix the damage as quickly as possible (especially windows and doors). The school code of conduct also states that learners must take care of the school property; they must not vandalise. "... *in a case where they do, the school tries to fix the damage with the little budget that they have"* [Respondent 1]. To keep the school environment clean, parents are encouraged to come to the school to clean the school premises. The school is currently housed in a temporary structure and does not have a library on these premises. The learners use the library that is nearby, and another one in town. "*The structure that we are currently based does not provide a space for the library but I am sure we will have it in our new school"* [Respondent 3].

5.6.4.2. Language of learning and teaching

Many subjects in the school are taught in English, and some academic improvement has been noted in subjects such as maths and geography. Some SGB members, however, do not feel that English is suitable, as the learners are from illiterate homes and have difficulty understanding it. "*It does not help that much, the majority of learners in the school are Sotho speaking and*

the majority of them do not perform well, not because they are stupid but because the LOLT is not their native language" [Respondent 1]. "*If Sesotho was the medium of instruction for the school, the school will perform well"* [Respondent 3].

5.6.4.3. Extracurricular activities

These include soccer, netball, volleyball, indigenous games and choir. The environment currently does not allow the school to have other sporting codes, as there are no grounds for them: "*we hope that when we move to the new school all the sporting activities will take place"* [Respondent 3].

5.6.5 Stakeholder involvement

5.6.5.1. Teacher recruitment

When there is a vacancy in the school, the school informs the DBE. The DBE advertises the post and does the shortlisting. The SGB members become members of the shortlisting team and the interview panel. "*We ensure that we get the best teacher from those who have applied and when they get to the school, we make them comfortable and we support them"* [Respondent 1]. When an educator is temporary at the school, the SGB will make efforts to pay the teacher from their funds, "*so that the teacher cannot be frustrated by delayed payment from the* DBE*"* [Respondent 2].

5.6.5.2. Parental involvement

There are quarterly parental meetings at the school. The SGB engages with the parents and encourages them to be involved in school activities. There are also Grade meetings where parents attend sessions where the academic results for each grade are discussed. "*We ask parents to check their learner's books and to sign them so that we can be sure they have check them"* [Respondent 1]. During these meetings, parents are asked to be involved in their child's schooling.

5.6.5.3. SGB support

The SGB actively supports study camps by assisting with the supervision of learners to ensure that the learner's study. Every year, after the matric results are released by the DBE, the SGB, together with the school management team, analyses the matric results, and "*we have introduced some incentive and awards for teachers that perform very well"* [Respondent 1].

In the meetings, the standard agenda is the results, and the SGB contributes ideas on how to improve performance. Most of the SGB strategies at the school are geared towards the improvement of results, such as extra classes, weekend classes and study camps, which are implemented by the SMT. "*The SGB also initiated the night classes where parents will come at school and supervise the learners"* [Respondent 2].

5.6.5.4. Involvement of the Department of Basic Education

The SGB is supported through workshops run by the DBE. These workshops assist the school by improving the quality of the SGB because "*if the SGB is inducted they are able to know how the SGB operates"* [Respondent 2]. The DBE also supports the school financially by allocating annual funds to the school. The DBE also develops teachers through workshops, and subject advisors come to the school to oversee the progress of teachers, but the quality varies. "*Some of the LFs give constructive advice while others give destruction advice"* [Respondent 1]. Overall, they felt the DBE could give more and better support than they currently do.

5.6.6 Managing discipline in the school

The school has two committees responsible for disciplinary issues: The Learners' Affair Committee and the School-Based Support Team (SBST). They both share responsibility for ensuring that there is discipline on the school premises. "*If we have cases that we feel they have not been dealt with holistically by these two committees, these cases are referred to the SMT"* [Respondent 1]. The SMT and teachers also play a role in enforcing discipline. The school has Grade meetings, whereby they call parents of learners if they have disciplinary problems with a class or grade. "*Parents are called to account why learners are arriving late at school"* [Respondent 3]. For learners arriving late, their names are noted, and if the same learners repeat the behaviour, the matter will be reported to SGB, a meeting will be called with those learners and their parents, and disciplinary action taken.

5.6.7 Challenges facing the school

Currently, the school is in temporary structures. *"We are not happy with the temporary structures and the new school is being built. In winter classes are too cold and too hot in summer, it's not a conducive environment for teaching and learning"* [Respondent 3]. The school needs a hall. "*... the hall is necessary in terms of school activities for raising funds and*

during exams" [Respondent 2]. The school would also like to have playing grounds for different sporting activities.

5.7 Summary and Conclusion

In terms of Ladybrand High, learners must pay fees unless exempted due to financial constraints. Some parents also pay for subject choices such as Graphics and Design and Computers. There are additional costs such as school tours, camps, civvies and donations. The school admits learners from its feeder schools first, and then learners from other areas. The school has learners travelling long distances using transport, and only a few learners walk to school. There is a school bus provided, although learners using it must pay a transportation fee. There is no feeding scheme, and teachers, on an ad hoc basis, assist impoverished learners with meals. The school does have extra classes during the week, as well as extracurricular activities such as rugby, soccer and cricket. The school struggles to find and keep good teachers, as the cost of living is high and SGB teachers do not earn much. The parents are not fully involved in the school. The level of DBE involvement also needs to be improved. The DBE does not meet all the funding requirements of the school. Municipal involvement is also insufficient. The school does not have major disciplinary issues. The school needs to be upgraded with laboratories, extra classes, a library, feeding scheme kitchen and tearoom.

In terms of Lereng Secondary, it is a Quintile 1-3 and a no-fee school. The school raises funds through their entertainment committee by hosting activities such as civvies days, raffles, beauty contests and *Ditolobonya* (a traditional music dance). There are no geographical admission boundaries; rather, the school starts by accepting learners from feeder schools and then from other areas. Most learners attending the school walk to school. Some learners walk up to 10 km a day. A minority live in a fully subsidised hostel, with free government transport. The school has extra lessons during the week, on weekends and in school holidays, as well as extracurricular activities such as chess, soccer and netball. The school does not struggle to find or keep teachers. Parents assist with cleaning the school, and help at study camps, although the school feels that this is not enough support. The DBE supports the school by sending Learning Facilitators and conducting training workshops. The municipality is not much involved with the school. The school has a disciplinary committee to deal with disciplinary issues. The disciplinary problems facing the school include teenage pregnancy, gangsterism and ill-discipline. The school needs laboratories, a functional library and a boardroom.

Lastly, regarding Sehlabeng Secondary, the school is also a no-fee Quintile 1-3 school. The school raises funds through civvies days, raffles, beauty contests, Mr and Mrs Valentine and donation drives. The school does not use geographical boundaries to admit learners, but has designated feeder schools, and will then admit learners from other areas. Most learners attending the school walk to school, except for those who live in the hostel. There are learners walking up to 10 km per day. The school has a feeding scheme for learners. The school also provides extra lessons for Grade 12 learners on weekdays, weekends and school holidays. There are extracurricular activities such as soccer, netball, public speaking and chess. The school struggles to find and keep good teachers, as many are reluctant to come to the area. It is mostly the Grade 12 parents who are involved in the school. The school receives support from the DBE through funding and workshops. The school has challenges such as the lack of a library, laboratories, school grounds, a hall and being housed in temporary structures. The school has a problem with gangsterism and learners who live on farms not coming to school on rainy days. The school has a disciplinary committee to assist with disciplinary issues.

CHAPTER 6: DISCUSSION

6.1. Introduction

Spatial segregation, as a policy of the apartheid regime, contributed to school segregation within South Africa. Although school integration came with the rise of democracy, access to quality education through school choice is not benefiting all. Parents with enough disposable income have broader options of school choice, while parents with financial constraints can only exercise school choice in a local context. Parents from Ladybrand who have the financial means, can chose the former Model C school that charges school fees and requires transportation for learners living outside the geographical area. Parents from Lereng Secondary and Sehlabeng High have children who attend the neighbourhood schools that do not charge fees and are often accessible on foot. School choice in Ladybrand has shifted from racial segregation to class segregation, as most learners with financial resources are enrolled in the former whites only school. To compare variables between the three schools, a Pearson Chi-Square test was conducted. The Pearson Chi-Square test is a test of association between two variables or testing differences between the proportion groups. Note that for all the statistically significant results, the assumption of a cell size of 5 is violated.

6.2 Discussion of Results from the Parental Survey

The results from the three high schools in Ladybrand are analysed here. In general, the two township schools were found to be broadly similar, whereas the school in Ladybrand itself is different from the township school in statistically significant ways. Thus, the similarity and differences between the schools are assessed. The total number of questionnaires analysed for three schools was 219 (see Table 6.1).

Table 6.1: Composition of respondents. (**Source**: Own).

Schools in Ladybrand	***No. of respondents***
Ladybrand High School	38
Lereng Secondary School	103
Sehlabeng Secondary School	78
Total	**219**

6.2.1 The demographic profile of learners

To compare the race groups of the three schools, a Pearson Chi-Square test was conducted. The proportion of white learners in Ladybrand High School (7/38 = 18%) is much higher than the proportion of white learners in Lereng Secondary School (0/103 = 0%) and Sehlabeng

Secondary School (0/38 = 0%), while the proportion of Black African leaners in Ladybrand High School (29/38 = 76%), is much lower than the Black African learners in Lereng Secondary School (101/103 = 98%) and Sehlabeng Secondary School (76/78 = 97%). Thus, there is a statistically significant difference in the composition of the races of the learners between the three schools $\chi^2(6) = 38.56$, $p < .0001$*, $n = 219$. That is, Ladybrand High has a different racial composition from the other two schools. Lereng Secondary School and Sehlabeng Secondary schools are dominated by Black Africans, with a small minority of Coloured and Asian learners. Even with the rise of democracy, therefore, the racial composition has not changed much. This finding is in line with the studies of Van der Berg (2002), Msila (2009), Zoch (2017), De Kadt et al. (2014, 2019) and McKay (2019), who found that former Black African schools located in townships have not seen much racial integration (if any). Ladybrand High comprises a diversity of learners including whites, Coloureds and Black Africans, though Black Africans dominate, as found by the study of McKay (2019). Thus, Black African learners are enrolling in the former whites-only school, while the township schools remain racially homogenous (Msila, 2005; Chisholm & Sujee, 2006; Msila, 2009; Machard & McKay, 2015; De Kadt et al., 2019).)

As other studies have shown, this trend will continue as long as Black African parents feel that these former white schools offer quality education for their children and are willing for their children to commute, regardless of the cost and time involved (Bell & McKay, 2011; Mestry, 2016; Njoki, 2017). Black African learners who have financial means are therefore exercising their legal right under SASA (1996) to access this school (Amsterdam et al., 2012; Pienaar & McKay, 2014; McKay, 2015). Although this former white school is now racially integrated it is not socio-economically integrated, however. As Ladybrand High was once entirely populated by white learners, where they have gone to needs to be investigated further (Ntshoe, 2017; Wiener, 2017). Importantly, however, is that across all three schools, most learners are Black African, in line with other studies (Fiske & Ladd, 2006; McKay, 2019) (see Table 6.2).

Table 6.2: Racial composition of respondents. (**Source**: Own).

Race group	**Ladybrand**	**Lereng**	**Sehlabeng**	**Total**
African	29 (13%)	101 (46%)	76 (35%)	206 (95%)
White	7 (3%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	7 (3%)
Coloured	2 (1%)	2 (1%)	1 (0.4)	5 (2%)
Other	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	1 (1%)	1 (1%)
Total	**38**	**103**	**78**	**219**

In terms of home language, the proportion of learners speaking Sesotho was much higher at Lereng Secondary School (103/103 = 100%) and Sehlabeng Secondary School (76/78 = 99%) than at Ladybrand High School (27/38 = 71%), while the proportion of other home languages was much higher at Ladybrand High School (11/38 = 29%) than in Lereng Secondary School (0/103 = 0%) and Sehlabeng Secondary School (1/76 = 1%). Thus, in terms of language, Ladybrand High is much more diverse. Additionally, Afrikaans-speaking learners were only found in the Ladybrand High School, while IsiZulu was a minority language for both Ladybrand High and Sehlabeng Secondary School. Thus, there is a statistically significant difference in learners' home language between the three schools χ^2 (2) = 48.76, p <.0001*, n = 218. That is, only Ladybrand High has a range of learners in terms of home language. Despite this, most learners across all three schools speak Sesotho at home.

Most learners across all three schools lived in the townships surrounding Ladybrand. This is in line with other studies, which have found learners migrating out of the township to the former Model C schools (Lombard, 2007). However, a much higher proportion of learners at Lereng Secondary School (102/103 = 99%) and Sehlabeng Secondary School (68/78 = 87%) resided in the township, compared to Ladybrand High School (15/38 = 39%). So, unlike the two township schools, many learners at Ladybrand High School (13/38 = 34%) resided in Ladybrand itself, whereas none did for Lereng Secondary School (0/103 = 0%) or Sehlabeng Secondary School (0/78 = 0%). Spatial segregation due to the apartheid legacy is thus still evident in the area, as found by other scholars in other parts of South Africa (Hunter, 2015; Machard & McKay, 2015). While there has been a shift in learners from the township enrolling in the ‘town’ school, there has been no similar shift in learners from ‘town’ moving to the township schools (Msila, 2009).

A far greater range of learners, in terms of residential location, are enrolled in Ladybrand High. That is, a much higher proportion of learners travel from surrounding areas to attend Ladybrand High School (9/38 = 24%) compared to Sehlabeng Secondary School (1/78 = 1%) and Lereng

Secondary School (0/103 = 0%). However, learners residing on farms were enrolled at Sehlabeng (9/78 = 12%), whereas this was not the case for Ladybrand High School (1/38 = 3%). Some learners travel long distances to reach Ladybrand High School from areas such as Lesotho, Thaba Nchu, Tweespruit, Hobhouse, Clocolan and Marseilles, while Sehlabeng Secondary School and Lereng Secondary School had only a few learners travelling from outlying areas such as Platberg, Ficksburg and farms (see Table 6.3). There is a statistically significant difference in learners' residence between the three schools χ^2 (6) = 121.03, p <.0001*, n = 219. That is, Ladybrand High School attracts learners from Ladybrand, the township and other township areas, as well as from far away, while the two township schools mainly attract learners who live near the two schools. School choice does appear to be linked to spatial apartheid, as was also found by Hunter (2015).

This pattern of learners travelling long distances is not only evident in Ladybrand High. The study by De Kadt et al. (2014) in Soweto, Johannesburg, found that only 18% of learners attend their closest school, and Wiener (2017) also found that learners in Cape Town travel to schools that are relatively far from their homes. Thus, parents and learners enrolled in Ladybrand High have 'voted with their feet', whereas those enrolled in Lereng Secondary and Sehlabeng Secondary, have not done so (Msila, 2009). This may be due to a lack of financial resources for their children to travel long distances or an inability to pay school fees (De Kadt et.al., 2019).

Table 6.3: Residential areas of respondents. (**Source**: Own).

Residential location	**Ladybrand**	**Lereng**	**Sehlabeng**	**Total**
Ladybrand township	15 (7%)	102 (47%)	68 (31%)	185 (85%)
Ladybrand itself	13 (6%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	13 (6%)
Farms	1 (1%)	1 (1%)	9 (4%)	11 (5%)
Surrounding towns/areas	9 (4%)	0 (0%)	1 (1%)	10 (4%)
Total	**38**	**103**	**78**	**219**

6.2.3 Findings: Socio-economic profile of learners

In terms of parental care, a higher proportion of learners at Ladybrand High School (25/38 = 66%) lived with both parents, compared to Sehlabeng Secondary School (24/78 = 30%) and Lereng Secondary School (28/103 = 27%). A much higher proportion of learners at Lereng Secondary School (50/103 = 49%) and Sehlabeng Secondary School (29/78 = 37%) lived with single mothers, compared to learners at Ladybrand High School (9/38 = 24%). Furthermore,

the proportion of learners living with grandparents was much higher in Lereng Secondary School (14/103 = 14%) and Sehlabeng Secondary School (12/78 = 15%), compared to Ladybrand High School (3/38 = 8%) (see Table 6.4). Thus, in terms of living arrangements, there is a statistically significant difference across the three schools χ^2 (10) = 24.51, p <.0.0064*, n = 219. That is, most learners at Ladybrand High School are more likely to be exposed to greater levels of parental care, as most learners lived with both parents (although there was a minority who lived with single parents, grandmothers and fathers). However, across all three schools, a substantial number of (and, in the case of Sehlabeng Secondary and Lereng Secondary schools, most) learners lived with only one caregiver, usually a single mother, grandparent, father or other family member. Overall results for all three schools indicate that the majority (65%) of learners live with one caregiver and only 35% live with both parents. Households headed by a single parent or caregiver can impact negatively on academic performance (Lemmer, 2007).

Table 6.4: Household structure**.** (**Source**: Own).

Caregiver/s	**Ladybrand**	**Lereng**	**Sehlabeng**	**Total**
Single mother	9 (4%)	50 (23%)	29 (13%)	88 (40%)
Both parents	25 (11%)	28 (13%)	24 (11%)	77 (35%)
Grandparent/s	3 (1%)	14 (6%)	12 (6%)	29 (13%)
Uncle/aunt/sister/brother	0 (0%)	6 (3%)	9 (4%)	15 (7%)
Other	0 (0%)	3 (1%)	2 (1%)	5 (2%)
Father only	1 (1%)	2 (1%)	2 (1%)	5 (2%)
Total	38	103	78	219
Total living with one caregiver	142 (65%)			
Total living with both parents	77 (35%)			

In terms of the relationship status of learners' parents, a much higher proportion of learners with married parents attended Ladybrand High School (24/38 = 63%), compared to Lereng Secondary School (23/103 = 22%) and Sehlabeng Secondary School (17/38 = 22%). Lereng Secondary School (50/103 = 49%) and Sehlabeng Secondary School (33/78 = 42%) had a much higher proportion of learners with single or unmarried parents, compared to Ladybrand High School (5/38 = 13%) (see Table 6.5). There is a statistically significant difference in learners' parental relationship status between the three schools χ^2 (14) = 34.27, p <.0. 0019*, n = 219. Most learners at Ladybrand High School lived with their married parents, with only a minority living with single parents, parents living together or divorced parents. Most of Sehlabeng Secondary and Lereng Secondary learners, however, hail from single-headed households. As

Lemmer (2007) states, single parents often lack the time, transport or money to get involved in school activities.

Table 6.5: Relationship status of the parents. (**Source**: Own).

Marital status	**Ladybrand**	**Lereng**	**Sehlabeng**	**Total**
Single parent	5 (2%)	50 (23%)	33 (15%)	88 (40%)
Married	24 (11%)	23 (11%)	17 (8%)	64 (29%)
Living together	3 (1%)	13 (6%)	13 (6%)	29 (13%)
Widow/widower	3 (1%)	10 (5%)	6 (3%)	19 (9%)
Remarried	2 (1%)	3 (1%)	4 (2%)	9 (4%)
Divorced	1 (1%)	3 (1%)	3 (1%)	7 (3%)
Deceased	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	2 (1%)	2 (1%)
Separated	0 (0%)	1 (1%)	0 (0%)	1 (1%)
Total	**38**	**103**	**78**	**219**

In terms of parental occupation, a much higher proportion of parents at Ladybrand High School (8/38 = 31%) were employed in professional jobs, compared to Lereng Secondary School (3/103 = 3%) and Sehlabeng Secondary (2/78 = 3%). A much higher proportion of parents employed in managerial or technical jobs was also found at Ladybrand High School (16/38 = 42%), compared to Lereng Secondary School (6/103 = 6%) and Sehlabeng Secondary School (1/78 = 1%). In terms of poorly paid jobs or no income (unemployed or were stay-at-home parents), a much higher proportion were parents of learners at Lereng Secondary School (47/103 = 46%) and Sehlabeng Secondary School (43/78 = 55%) compared to Ladybrand High School (0/38 = 0%). Furthermore, a higher proportion of parents at Sehlabeng Secondary School (27/78 = 35%) and Lereng Secondary School (35/103 = 34%) were employed in unskilled jobs, compared to Ladybrand High School (5/38 = 13%). There is a statistically significant difference in parent's employment levels and types between the three schools χ^2 (12) = 97.70, p <.0. 0001*, n = 219.

Thus, most parents at Ladybrand High School can be defined as middle class, while most parents from Sehlabeng Secondary School and Lereng Secondary School are lower middle or working class (see Table 6.6). Most parents in Lereng Secondary and Sehlabeng Secondary are unskilled. There is a strong correlation between the socio-economic status (SES) of the family and the academic achievements of a learner (Khan, Iqbal &Tasneem, 2015). Learners with low SES tend to have lower test scores and are more likely to drop out of school. Low SES can negatively affect academic achievement, as low SES prevents access to vital resources and creates additional stress at home (Shah, Atta, Qureshi, & Shah, 2012). It seems that parents of

learners enrolled in Ladybrand High have the financial means to enrol their children in this better school, while parents from Lereng Secondary and Sehlabeng Secondary do not (Msila, 2009; De Kadt et al., 2014; McKay, 2015).

Table 6.6: Parental occupation. (**Source**: Own).

Occupation	Ladybrand	Lereng	Sehlabeng	Total
Does not work	0 (0%)	47 (21%)	43 (20%)	90 (41%)
Unskilled	5 (2%)	35 (16%)	27 (12%)	67 (31%)
Managerial or technical	16 (7%)	6 (3%)	1 (1%)	23 (11%)
Non-manual, skilled	7 (3%)	6 (3%)	2 (1%)	15 (7%)
Professional	8 (4%)	3 (1%)	2 (1%)	13 (6%)
Partly skilled	2 (1%)	5 (2%)	3 (1%)	10 (4%)
Manual, skilled	0 (0%)	1 (1%)	0 (0%)	1 (1%)
Total	**38**	**103**	**78**	**219**

In terms of the educational levels of the mothers, mothers with only Grade 9 were far more dominant at Sehlabeng Secondary (25/78 = 33%) and Lereng Secondary School (25/103 = 25%), compared to Ladybrand High School (4/38 = 11%). The proportion of mothers with Grade 12 was much higher at Lereng Secondary School (50/103 = 52%) compared to Ladybrand High School (18/38 = 48%) and Sehlabeng Secondary School (27/78 = 35%). However, a much higher proportion of mothers at Ladybrand High School (11/38 = 29%) had an undergraduate degree/diploma, compared to Lereng Secondary School (9/103 = 9%) and Sehlabeng Secondary School (4/78 = 5%). For postgraduate honours degrees, a higher proportion was found at Ladybrand High School (4/38 = 11%), compared to Lereng Secondary School (1/103 = 1%) and Sehlabeng Secondary School (0/78 = 0%). For Masters degrees, such mothers were only found at Ladybrand High School (1/38 = 3%), with none at Lereng Secondary School (0/103 = 0%) or Sehlabeng Secondary School (0/78 = 0%) (see Table 6.7). There is a statistically significant difference in mothers' level of education between the three schools χ^2 (10) = 51.95, p <.0. 0001*, n = 214.

Mothers of learners in the two township schools mostly had a Grade 12 or Grade 9 level of education, whereas highly educated mothers with an undergraduate degree/diploma, honours and Masters degrees are far more likely to be found at Ladybrand High School. Khan et al. (2015) found that children with highly educated parents are more confident, resourceful and experienced than the children whose parents are illiterate or poorly educated. They further

argue that mothers' level of education influences children's educational outcomes more than that of the father. Educated parents can help their children with schoolwork. Educated parents show an interest in their children's academic performances (Gratz, 2006). They often meet and cooperate with their child's educators. Furthermore, well-educated parents usually expose their children to many educational opportunities in their communities (Eccles, 2005).

Table 6.7: Mother's level of education**.** (**Source**: Own).

Education level	**Ladybrand**	**Lereng**	**Sehlabeng**	**Total**
Primary school	0 (0%)	13 (6%)	21 (10%)	34 (16%)
Completed Grade 9	4 (2%)	25 (12%)	25 (12%)	54 (25%)
Completed Grade 12	18 (8%)	51 (24%)	27 (13%)	96 (45%)
Tertiary undergraduate degree/diploma	11 (5%)	9 (4%)	4 (2%)	24 (11%)
Honours degree	4 (2%)	1 (1%)	0 (0%)	5 (2%)
Masters and/or PhD degree	1 (1%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	1 (1%)
Did not know the mother's education	0 (0%)	4 (2%)	1 (1%)	5 (3%)
Total	**38**	**103**	**78**	**214**

In terms of the educational levels of the fathers, the proportion of fathers with Grade 9 were much higher at Sehlabeng Secondary School (10/78 = 32%) and Lereng Secondary School (11/103 = 23%), compared to Ladybrand High School (1/38 = 4%). Furthermore, fathers with Grade 12 were more likely to be found at Ladybrand High School (15/38 = 60%), compared to Sehlabeng Secondary School (17/78 = 53%) and Lereng Secondary School (21/103 = 45%). In terms of undergraduate tertiary qualifications, a much higher proportion could be found at Ladybrand High School (5/38 = 20%), compared to Lereng Secondary School (5/103 = 11%) and Sehlabeng Secondary School (1/78 = 3%).

For honours degrees, more were found at Lereng Secondary School (3/103 = 6%), compared to Ladybrand High School (1/38 = 4%) and none at Sehlabeng Secondary School (0/78 = 0%). For Masters degree, a higher proportion was found at Ladybrand High School (3/38 = 12%), compared to Lereng Secondary School (1/103 = 2%) and none at Sehlabeng Secondary School (0/78 = 0%) (see Table 6.8.). There is a statistically significant difference in fathers' level of education across the three schools χ^2 (10) = 20.80, p <.0. 0225*, n = 104. In general, fathers at Sehlabeng Secondary School and Lereng Secondary School are less educated, compared to those at Ladybrand High.

Table 6.8: Father's level of education. (**Source**: Own).

Education level	**Ladybrand**	**Lereng**	**Sehlabeng**	**Total**
Primary school	0 (0%)	6 (6%)	4 (4%)	10 (10%)
Completed Grade 9	1 (1%)	11 (11%)	10 (10%)	22 (21%)
Completed Grade 12	15 (14%)	21 (20%)	17 (16%)	53 (24%)
Tertiary undergraduate degree/diploma	5 (5%)	5 (5%)	1 (1%)	11 (11%)
Honours degree	1 (1%)	3 (3%)	0 (0%)	4 (4%)
Masters and/or PhD degree	3 (3%)	1 (1%)	0 (0%)	4 (4%)
Did not know the father's education	13 (6%)	56 (26%)	46 (21%)	53 (53%)
Total	**38**	**103**	**78**	**219**

In terms of lifestyle indicators, the most parents who had TV and DVD players were Ladybrand High School (37/38 = 97%), Lereng Secondary School (99/103 = 96%) and Sehlabeng Secondary School (72/78 = 92%). For fridges, the proportion was slightly higher at Lereng Secondary School (95/103 = 92%) and Ladybrand High School (34/38 = 90%), compared to Sehlabeng Secondary School (63/78 = 81%). Households with electric stoves were more likely to be at Ladybrand High School (33/38 = 87%) and Lereng Secondary School (89/103 = 86%), compared to Sehlabeng Secondary School (63/78 = 80%). Households with microwave ovens were more likely at Ladybrand High School (34/38 = 90%) compared to Lereng Secondary School (86/103 = 84%), and much lower for Sehlabeng Secondary School (44/78 = 56%).

A much higher proportion of parents at Ladybrand High School (29/38 = 76%) can afford to own a smart phone, compared to Sehlabeng Secondary School (42/78 = 54%) and Lereng Secondary School (48/103 = 46%). A much higher proportion of parents at Ladybrand High School (19/38 = 50%) own a computer/laptop, compared to Lereng Secondary School (15/103 = 15%) and Sehlabeng Secondary School (10/78 = 13%) (see Table 6.9). Based on these results, specifically the standard deviation and likelihood of finding items in the home, a far higher proportion of learners at Ladybrand High School seem to live in homes with more disposable income than learners at the two township schools. It is thus likely that these learners are of a higher socio-economic status than those in the other two schools.

Table 6.9: Parent's lifestyle indicators. (**Source**: Own).

	Ladybrand	Lereng	Sehlabeng	Avg	SD	Presence
TV and/or DVD player	97%	96%	92%	95%	+2SD	Very common
Fridge/freezer/deep freeze	90%	92%	81%	88%	+2SD	Very common
Electric stove	87%	86%	81%	85%	+2SD	Very common
Microwave oven	90%	84%	56%	77%	+2SD	Very common
Smartphone	71%	47%	54%	57%	+1SD	common
M-Net/DSTV	76%	47%	31%	51%	+1SD	common
Washing machine	82%	48%	25%	52%	+1SD	common
Gates and a wall around my home	40%	23%	31%	31%	-1SD	Less common
Vacuum cleaner	53%	18%	18%	31%	-1SD	Less common
Computer/Laptop	50%	15%	13%	26%	-1SD	Less common
iPad/tablet	40%	10%	6%	19%	-1SD	Less common
Tumble drier	18%	5%	4%	9%	-2SD	uncommon
Dishwashing machine	24%	2%	3%	10%	-2SD	uncommon
Home security service	18%	2%	4%	8%	-2SD	uncommon

Regarding basic services, a much higher proportion of parents at Ladybrand High School (37/38 = 97%) had electricity in their household, compared to Lereng Secondary School (88/103 = 85%) and Sehlabeng Secondary School (63/78 = 81%). There is a statistically significant difference in households with electricity across the three schools χ^2 (2) = 5.820, p <.0.0237*, n = 219. A much higher proportion at Sehlabeng Secondary School (61/78 = 78%) and Lereng Secondary School (75/103 = 73%) make use of public hospitals, compared to Ladybrand High School (20/38 = 53%). There is a statistically significant difference in households that utilise public hospitals across the three schools χ^2 (2) = 8.393, p <.0.0545*, n = 219. A much higher proportion parents at Sehlabeng Secondary School (47/78 = 60%) and Lereng Secondary School (57/103 = 55%) had someone who collects a government grant in their household, compared to Ladybrand High School (8/38 = 21%). There is a statistically significant difference in households in terms of collecting grants across the three schools χ^2 (2) = 17.088, p <.0.0002*, n = 219. For households with flushing toilets, Ladybrand High School (25/38 = 66%) had a much higher proportion compared to Lereng Secondary School (23/78 = 29%) and Sehlabeng Secondary School (23/78 = 30%). There is a statistically significant

difference in households with flushing toilets across the three schools χ^2 (2) = 16.008, *p* <.0.0003*, *n* = 219. A much higher proportion of parents at Ladybrand High School (29/38 = 11%) had a domestic worker or a gardener, compared to Lereng Secondary School (3/103 = 3%) and Sehlabeng Secondary School (0/78 = 0%) There is a statistically significant difference in households with a domestic worker or gardener across the three schools χ^2 (2) = 39.716, *p* <.0.0001*, *n* = 219. (see Table 6.10). The Table 6.10 results, specifically the standard deviation and likelihood of finding items in the home, indicate that using public hospitals, having electricity, and no access to the Internet is common across all the households. For the rest, however, there is a significant difference between Ladybrand households and those of Lereng and Sehlabeng. It likely that of learners attending the three schools studied, those attending Ladybrand High live in homes with high levels of financial resources.

Table 6.10: Household basic services. (**Source**: Own).

	Ladybrand	**Lereng**	**Sehlabeng**	**Avg**	**SD**	**Presence**
I have electricity in my house	97%	85%	81%	88%	+2SD	Very common
There is no Internet in my household	68%	77%	77%	74%	+2SD	Very common
I make use of public hospitals	53%	73%	78%	68%	+2SD	Very common
In my home, someone collects a government grant	21%	55%	60%	51%	+1SD	common
I have a flushing toilet inside my house	66%	33%	29%	43%	+1SD	common
I live in a house	63%	32%	21%	39%	-1SD	Less common
There are no pets in my household	34%	26%	35%	32%	-1SD	Less common
There is a motor vehicle in our household	66%	19%	13%	33%	-1SD	Less common
A geyser for hot water	58%	12%	9%	26%	-1SD	Less common
I seldom go on holiday away from home	40%	14%	15%	23%	-1SD	Less common
Everyone who wants to work has a job	16%	9%	9%	11%	-2SD	uncommon
We have a domestic worker/gardener	29%	3%	0%	11%	-2SD	uncommon

6.2.3 Summary

There is racial integration at Ladybrand High, while township schools are completely racially homogenous. Most learners from the township schools live in the township itself, while Ladybrand High had learners from a wide geographical area. Learners from Lereng and Sehlabeng High hail from the lower middle class, working class, or very poor homes. Many had parents having no jobs or unskilled jobs and low levels of education. Learners from Ladybrand High come from middle-class homes with parents in skilled jobs and who are highly educated. This is also confirmed in terms of the basic services and lifestyle indicators.

There are some interesting differences between the two township schools. The profile of Sehlabeng households may indicate that, relative to Lereng households, children from Sehlabeng are poorer. Sehlabeng households are more likely to be on farms (7% vs 0%), have fewer mothers with Grade 12 (13% vs 24%), fathers with Grade 12 (10% vs 20%), more likely to rely on government grants (60% vs 55%), less likely to live in a house (21% vs 32%), not able to afford a pet (25% vs 26%), less likely to have a car (13% vs 19%) and less likely to have hot water in the home (9% vs 12%). Although the differences are small, they are cumulative, and although neither group is financially secure, those enrolled in Sehlabeng may be worse off than those enrolled in Lereng. This may account for the difference in the matric pass rate (63.6% vs 93.3%).

6.2.4 School choice

A higher proportion of parents at Lereng Secondary School (86/103 = 84%) chose the school because of good academic results, compared to Ladybrand High School (28/38 = 74%) and Sehlabeng Secondary School (49/78 = 63%). More parents at Sehlabeng Secondary School (44/78 = 64%) chose the school because of good and qualified teachers, compared to Lereng Secondary School (56/78 = 54%) and Ladybrand High School (12/38 = 32%). A higher proportion of parents at Lereng Secondary School (42/103 = 41%) and Sehlabeng Secondary School (42/103 = 41%) chose the school because it was close to their home, compared to Ladybrand High (9/38 = 24%). More parents at Sehlabeng Secondary School (26/78 = 33%) chose the school because it was the school they could afford, compared to Lereng Secondary School (19/103 = 19%) (another possible indicator of the financial vulnerability of Sehlabeng households) and Ladybrand High School (5/38 = 13%).

Geographical location (close to home) was far more important for the parents of Lereng Secondary and Sehlabeng Secondary, compared to the parents of Ladybrand High. This is in

line with the work of Frankenberg et al. (2017). Some parents prefer neighbourhood schools to local schools (Owens (2017). Good academic performance is a motivation for many parents to choose a school, as was the case with parents from three high schools at Ladybrand (see Brandén & Bygren (2018) and Van Dyk & White (2019) for other examples of this). A similar finding was made by Wiener (2017) in Cape Town, where most parents chose the school because of good academic performance and close geographical proximity. Also, Hunter's (2015) study of Umlazi secondary schools found that parents chose Umlazi's high-achieving secondary schools, based on their academic results.

6.2.5 The school commute

The proportion of learners who walk to school at Lereng Secondary School (103/103 = 100%) and Sehlabeng Secondary School (78/78 = 100%) was much higher than those who walk to school at Ladybrand High School (4/38 = 11%). No learners at Lereng Secondary School (0/103 = 0%) and Sehlabeng Secondary School (0/78 = 0%) used minibus taxis, compared to Ladybrand High School where 58% (22/38) did (see Table 6.11). There is a statistically significant difference in the composition of the mode of transport between the three schools $\chi^2(10) = 178.5$, $p < .0001$*, $n = 219$, with most learners from Ladybrand using passive commuting to get to school.

Wiener (2017) found that in Cape Town more than half of learners walked to school, and the rest passively commute. McKay (2019) found that the vast majority (83%) of white children are driven to school in private cars, and live closer to good schools, compared to only 12% of African children. Requiring transport to go to school is an indication that most learners do not attend schools that are closest to their home (De Kadt et.al., 2014). This is evident at Ladybrand High School, as only 11% of their learners walk to school, while most learners at Lereng Secondary and Sehlabeng Secondary walk to school. Note that both schools have some learners using a government-subsidised bus, but these learners did not return questionnaires, so are not included in the sample of parental responses.

Table 6.11: Mode of transport reported as used by learners (in percentages)[1]. (**Source**: Own).

Transport mode	Ladybrand	Lereng	Sehlabeng
Walk	11%	100%	100%
By private car as a passenger	58%	0%	0%
By mini-bus taxi	21%	0%	0%
By public bus	0%	0%	0%
With a school transport vehicle	11%	0%	0%

In terms of time travelled, Lereng Secondary School (64/103 = 62%) and Sehlabeng Secondary School (35/78 = 45%) had more learners travelling less than 15 minutes in total compared to Ladybrand High School (7/38 = 18%). Ladybrand High School (at 24/38 = 63%) had a higher proportion of learners travelling up to 30 minutes per day compared to Sehlabeng Secondary School (32/78 = 41%) and Lereng Secondary School (32/103 = 31%). Ladybrand High School (at 2/38 = 5%) had more learners travelling up to 60 minutes per day, compared to Sehlabeng Secondary School (1/78 = 1%) and Lereng Secondary School (0/103 = 0%). Ladybrand High School (at 1/38 = 3%) had more learners travelling up to 2 hours per day in total, compared to Sehlabeng Secondary School (2/78 = 3%) and Lereng Secondary School which had none (0/103 = 0%). There is a statistically significant difference in the composition of the time travelled across the three schools $\chi^2(10) = 35.01$, $p < .0001$*, $n = 219$.

Wiener (2017) found that in Cape Town most learners walked up to 15 minutes to their educational institution after getting off the transport, while some learners walked for more than 30 minutes. She also stated that many children must travel long distances to reach their nearest school: 17% of children live far from their nearest primary school, and this increases to 29% for high-school learners. Most learners at Lereng Secondary (62%) and Sehlabeng Secondary (45%) took less than 15 minutes to get to school, however, which is not regarded as far, by Wiener (2017). There are learners at Sehlabeng Secondary (3%) who travel up to two hours more to get to school each day (see Rogan, 2006; Ntshoe, 2017). These learners are susceptible to tiredness, crime, and possibly dropping out of school, as found in the study by Wiener (2017).

[1] Note that the parents who returned the questionnaire survey did not indicate that their children made use of the sponsored bus. This information came from interviews with the SGBs and SMTs.

A much higher proportion of learners at Lereng Secondary School (63/103 = 62%) and Sehlabeng Secondary School (35/78 = 45%) travel up to 2 km per day, compared to Ladybrand High School (7/18 = 21%). More learners at Ladybrand High School (8/38 = 21%) travel up to 8 km per day, compared to Sehlabeng Secondary School (5/78 = 6%) and Lereng Secondary School (0/103 = 0%). A much higher proportion of learners at Ladybrand High School (4/38 = 11%) travel up to 20 km per day, compared to Sehlabeng Secondary School (4/78 = 5%) and Lereng Secondary School – which had none (0/103 = 0%). Furthermore, a higher proportion of learners from Ladybrand High School (4/38 = 11%) travel more than 30 km per day, compared to Sehlabeng Secondary School (0/78 = 0%) and Lereng Secondary School (0/103 = 0%). There is a statistically significant difference in the composition of the distance travelled across the three schools $\chi^2(12) = 72.20$, $p < .0001$*, $n = 218$.

Wiener (2017) states that many of the learners arrive at school already traumatised, simply because of what they experience every day. A large proportion of learners do not participate in after-school activities, since the school day is long, and they are tired. They reported that parents prefer them not to stay after school. Many of the learners are also tired by the time they arrive at school. In terms of transport costs, all participants at Lereng Secondary School (0/103 = 0%) and Sehlabeng Secondary School (0/78 = 0%) spent nothing on transport, compared to Ladybrand High School (4/38 = 11%). Fifty-eight percent (58%) of Ladybrand High School learners spend under R500 per month on transport, and 29% spent between R500 and R1 000.00 per month. There are some parents spending between R1 000 and R1 500 per month. There is a statistically significant difference in the burden of transport costs between the three schools $\chi^2(6) = 191.71$, $p < .0001$*, $n = 219$. Wiener (2017) found that learners in Cape Town who spend about R1002 are those who use cars/bakkies as their daily transport, and R541 for buses. Transportation is quite costly, especially for parents with little financial means.

6.2.6 Schooling costs

In addition to school fees, a much higher proportion at Ladybrand High School (31/38 = 82%) spent money on uniforms, compared to Lereng Secondary School (48/103 = 47%) and Sehlabeng Secondary School (37/78 = 47%). However, a much higher proportion of parents at Sehlabeng Secondary School (45/78 = 58%) donate money to the school, compared to parents of Ladybrand High School (11/38 = 29%) and Lereng Secondary School (30/78 = 29%). Furthermore, a much higher proportion of learners from Ladybrand High School (21/38 = 71%) spend money on school books compared to Sehlabeng Secondary School (10/78 = 13%) and

Lereng Secondary School (10/103 = 10%) (see Table 6.12). The most common cost across all three schools was uniforms, followed by donations, in line with the study by McKay (2019). Extracurricular activities and extra lessons are the least likely to be paid for by all the parents.

Despite this, Ladybrand High School parents spend a lot on additional items, compared to Lereng Secondary and Sehlabeng Secondary parents (see Figure 6.1). What is surprising is that Sehlabeng households are more likely to contribute to educating their children than Lereng households, despite being relatively poorer. The study by Pienaar and McKay (2014) found that despite no school fees being charged, education was not free. Some 17% of parents in Gauteng paid up R500 per year to the school. Parents spend additional monies on uniforms, extramural activities, sports activities, donations and other school expenses (Evans & Cleghorn, 2014). McKay's (2014) study also found that parents spend additional school costs, with 93% on school uniforms, 54% on school stationery, 41% on extracurricular activities, 23% on notebooks, 8% on sports and 7% on school textbooks.

Table 6.12: Additional school costs (in percentages). (**Source**: Own).

	Ladybrand	**Lereng**	**Sehlabeng**
Uniforms	82%	47%	47%
Donations to the school	29%	29%	58%
Stationery	71%	25%	32%
School lunch money	66%	24%	39%
School books (exercise books)	71%	10%	13%
School sports activities	42%	12%	12%
Textbooks	40%	5%	17%
Extracurricular activities and excursions	21%	10%	15%
Extra lessons	11%	3%	14%

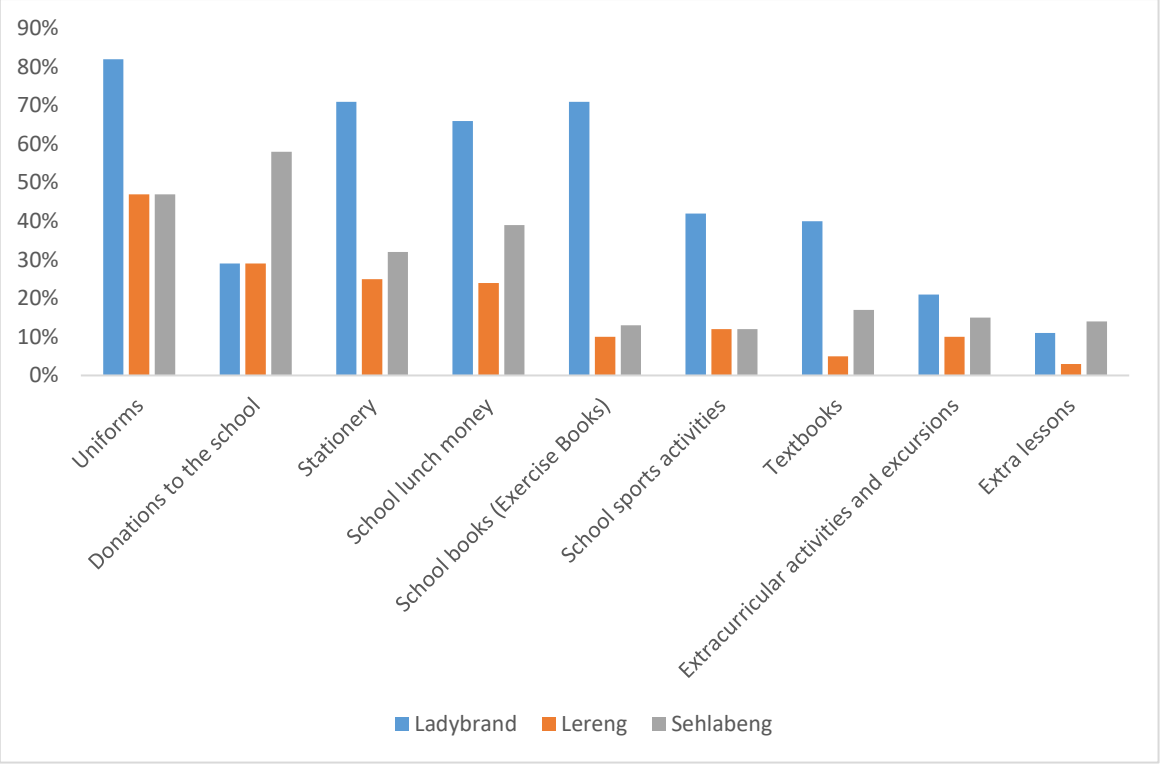

Figure 6.1: Additional school costs (in percentages). (**Source**: Own).

6.2.7 Summary

Financial resources, academic performance and school proximity were a driving force for school choice for many parents in this study. Many parents with learners at Ladybrand High choose a non-local school, which requires transportation, while parents with learners in the two township schools choose schools close to home. The two township schools do not charge school fees, but it cannot be said that education in these schools is cost-free, due to the other costs they must carry. Thus, it is likely that financial resources, or the lack thereof, inform school choice. The State is assisting by enabling some learners to access a hostel and a subsidised bus, but this is clearly insufficient, as some walk long distances to school. Schooling at Ladybrand High is costly, as parents must pay school fees, transport and other additional items.

6.3. School Management Team and School Governing Body Discussion

This section analyses the differences and similarities across the three schools, in terms of the SMTs and SGBs. It firstly describes the similarities and differences between two township schools. Secondly, it compares Ladybrand High with the two township schools. Lastly, the similarities between the all three schools are explained. The analysis will focus on school fees,

transport mode, extra lessons, extracurricular activities, support from the DBE, the municipality and parents, discipline at school, and challenges facing the schools.

6.3.1. Similarities between Sehlabeng Secondary and Lereng Secondary

Both schools are in the township area, and both are no-fee Quintile 1-3 schools serving learners from the poor community, as studied by other scholars (see Marishane, 2013; Mestry, 2016; Ogbonnaya & Awuah, 2019; Van Dyk & White, 2019). The founding of no-fee schools was part of the national commitment to provide free basic education to all children, and thus the strategy by the government to address the injustices of the apartheid education system (Marishane, 2013; Dibete, 2015). Quintiles 1, 2 and 3 are declared no-fee schools, and the schools are heavily dependent on the funds received from the DBE (Mestry, 2016). A no-fee school is a public school where the SGB may not levy compulsory school fees on learners in view of their poor socio-economic backgrounds (Dibete, 2015; Ogbonnaya & Awuah, 2019). The DBE also runs workshops for the SGBs to empower them to run the school effectively (see Mestry, 2016). Both the schools have feeding schemes subsidised by the DBE. The schools also focus on fundraising activities to fill the gap between their DBE subsidy and their expenses.

Even though a no-fee school does not charge school fees, it may raise funds through fundraising activities and voluntary donations from parents, although it may not force parents to make such contributions (Dibete, 2015; Pampallis, 2017; McKay, 2019). Thus, they both have annual programmes focusing on fundraising, and the SGB is part of the committee that developed an annual fundraising programme. They have fundraising activities such as beauty contests, civvies days, raffles, Valentine's Day and Mr and Miss Lereng/Sehlabeng. In this regard, SGB bodies can use school property to generate funds to supplement resources provided by the State (Baloyi, 2015; Mestry, 2016). These schools receive a subsidy which is at least equal to the no-fee threshold. In lieu of the loss of income from school fees, no-fee schools are allocated a larger amount of funding per learner, compared to learners in fee-paying schools (Van Dyk & White, 2019).

Both schools said learners walking long distances get to school tired, late, and sometimes do not come to school when it is raining, as they cannot cross the river. The study by Wiener (2017) in Cape Town also raised some concerns: about 1,7% of learners were walking more than 60 minutes to school, and they became physically fatigued, with their attention lowered in the classroom. Additionally, the schools have learners living in the government hostel who

qualify for a subsidised government bus, but these learners do not attend any extra classes, as the bus leaves straight after school. Both schools offer extra lessons daily, on weekends and in school holidays (for matriculants). Township schools have challenges relating to discipline, such as gangsterism, where gang members engage in fights within the school premises as found in the study by Motseke (2013).

Despite efforts by the schools to implement a Learner Code of Conduct and other disciplinary measures, Sebola (2015) refers to a study conducted by South Africa Violence Prevention Model and Action Plan (UNICEF, 2009, p. 22) which indicated that South Africa still has the highest rate of school violence in the globe. In terms of Section 24 of the Constitution, schools are supposed to be safe places where teaching and learning take place without fear or intimidation (Prinsloo, 2005; Sebola, 2015). According to Sebola (2015), a safe school is a secure and disciplined environment where teaching and learning continue without disturbance.

Sebola (2015) states further that order cannot prevail in an unsafe school. The school-community relationship therefore plays a prominent role in creating a sound and safe school environment. The behaviour of learners in schools is directed and channelled by the behaviour of the community in which it operates, hence some schools find it difficult to manage violent incidents. This is despite having disciplinary committees and help from the SGBs. Although the location of the school is convenient for learners to walk to school, the communities they are in are home to criminals and gangsters who disrupt teaching and learning at the schools. Thus, both schools felt that teachers and learners are not safe, even within the school premises.

Both schools have parents who seldom become involved with school programmes, or assist their children at school, although the SGBs encourage parents to be involved in school activities, and call parents to meetings. The SGBs also come to the school during school study camps to cook for learners and supervise them. The two SGBs look after the school property such as furniture, and ensure that learners keep the school clean, in line with the study by Marishane (2013). The SGBs form part of the recruitment process in the school when acquiring new educators. Both schools felt that the support they receive from the municipality is not enough.

6.3.2 Differences between Lereng and Sehlabeng

According to data supplied by parents, there were some learners (1%) who declared themselves as either Indian or Asian at Sehlabeng Secondary, whereas there was none from Lereng Secondary. Again, there were learners (1%) at Sehlabeng that spoke other languages such as IsiZulu, while there were no learners who spoke other languages at Lereng Secondary. Lereng Secondary has a school library, although the material is outdated, while Sehlabeng Secondary does not have a library. According to SMT, Sehlabeng Secondary School had challenges in terms of finding and retaining good teachers, and this was not the case for Lereng Secondary. Parents with learners at Sehlabeng Secondary contributed more donations than parents with learners at Lereng Secondary School.

At Lereng Secondary, SGB members felt that teaching in English had improved learner results, whereas some SGB members at Sehlabeng felt that English as a medium of instruction does not benefit all learners. Lereng High wanted sports fields, an upgrade of the consumer study classroom, science laboratories, a bigger feeding scheme kitchen and a boardroom. Sehlabeng Secondary wanted a school hall and permanent buildings. The temporary structures in which they are placed is not conducive to teaching and learning, as it is cold in winter and hot in summer.

6.3.3. Comparing the two township schools with Ladybrand High

Parents from the township schools are less educated, compared to Ladybrand High parents. Most learners from Ladybrand High come from middle-class homes, while most learners from township schools come from much poorer homes (in line with the study by Pampallis, 2017). Both township schools are Quintile 1-3, no-fee schools, whereas Ladybrand High is a former Model C school, deemed Quintile 5, and charges fees of approximately R9 000 a year (see Mestry, 2016; Ntshoe, 2017; Ogbonnaya & Awuah, 2019), with learners exempted from school fees if parents cannot afford to pay (see Pampallis, 2017). Usually, Quintile 5 schools are in former white residential areas (Pienaar & McKay, 2014; Van Dyk & White, 2019). Parents from the two township schools cannot afford the fees and transportation costs to bus their children to the former Model C school (see Vally, Dolombisa & Porteus, 1999).

While Sehlabeng Secondary and Lereng Secondary receive most of their money from the DBE, Ladybrand High is heavily dependent on these fees (see Mestry, 2016; Van Dyk & White, 2019). The subsidy from the state is insufficient and is far less than what is paid to township

schools (see Lemon & Battersby 2009; Pampallis, 2017). Thus, Lereng and Sehlabeng serve learners from poor families that cannot afford to subsidise learning materials not provided by the DBE. Management of costs in a changing school environment is a problem, and with inadequate government funding, these schools are often in a financially precarious position. The DBE allocates more money to Lereng Secondary and Sehlabeng Secondary than to Ladybrand High. Furthermore, Lereng Secondary and Sehlabeng Secondary have a DBE feeding scheme, while Ladybrand High does not. The educators at Ladybrand help impoverished learners on an ad hoc basis. Learners from Ladybrand High also buy their own stationery, whereas learners from the township schools are subsidised by the DBE, as found in the study by Mestry (2016). This is also true for study camps and the like, where the Ladybrand learners pay, and the township schools are subsidised.

In Ladybrand High, some personnel (such as cleaners, clerks and SGB teachers) are paid from the school fees, while this is not the case for the township schools where all salaries are paid by the DBE (see Mestry, 2016; Pampallis, 2017). Ladybrand High learners also pay extra money if they have chosen subjects such as Graphics & Design and Computer Application Technology. These subjects are not offered by the two township schools. Ladybrand High has multiple sources of income (DBE, fees, donations and fundraising), whereas Lereng Secondary and Sehlabeng depend entirely on funds from the DBE and fundraising events.

Ladybrand High is dual medium (English/Afrikaans), as are Sehlabeng Secondary and Lereng Secondary (but English and Sesotho). The feeder schools for Ladybrand High are primary schools found in the town, while the feeder schools for Lereng Secondary and Sehlabeng Secondary are in the township. Thus, the primary school that a learner is enrolled in, will strongly influence the high school the learner is likely to attend. Teachers in Lereng Secondary and Sehlabeng give extra lessons for Grade 12s and learners in lower grades. Lereng Secondary and Sehlabeng conduct morning classes from 6 am to 7 am on weekdays and during the school holidays. This is not the case at Ladybrand High. Lereng Secondary and Sehlabeng Secondary have compulsory extra classes for lower grades in the afternoons, while in Ladybrand High teachers arrange them if there is a need. The compulsory extra classes might indicate that teaching time during normal school hours at Lereng Secondary and Sehlabeng Secondary is not enough, or underutilised. Teachers in the township schools might spend most of their teaching time dealing with disciplinary issues (see Adewumi & Adu, 2019), which is less of an

issue in Ladybrand High, as cameras monitor the classrooms and school grounds to ensure teaching and learning takes place.

Overall, Ladybrand High has fewer disciplinary problems, compared to Lereng Secondary and Sehlabeng Secondary, which face serious disciplinary challenges such as severe late coming and gangster fights in the school grounds. Travel often eats into time that both children and parents have for other activities, placing stress on children and family structures, and may interfere with the extent to which children can be fully engaged in the school which they attend They may struggle to arrive on time, and may not be able to participate fully in extracurricular activities (De Kadt et. al., 2019).

According to section 8 of SASA (1996), the SGBs have the responsibility to monitor the effectiveness of school attendance by learners. According to the DBE, in South Africa, late coming is not acceptable in schools, and should always be discouraged to ensure effective teaching and learning (De Kadt et al., 2019). The community in which Lereng Secondary and Sehlabeng Secondary are located is home to criminals and gangsters who disrupt the school teaching and learning programme. Ladybrand High is some distance away from the township and so does not experience this on a regular basis. Ladybrand High teachers and learners feel safe, while Lereng Secondary and Sehlabeng Secondary do not have such measures, and so teachers and learners feel less safe at school.

Most Ladybrand High learners passively commute to school using private vehicles, minibus taxis and a subsidised school bus, while many learners at Sehlabeng Secondary and Lereng Secondary walk to school (see McKay; 2019). Thus, learners from Ladybrand High are far less likely to be exposed to bad weather conditions (rainy weather) and dangers of walking to school (rape and other crimes) (see McKay, 2020). Some Ladybrand High learners travel long distances from Tweespruit, Hobhouse, Thaba Nchu and Lesotho, which is not the case for Lereng Secondary and Sehlabeng Secondary. But some Sehlabeng Secondary and Lereng Secondary learners from farms walk long distances, up to 10 km per day, whereas most Ladybrand High learners seldom walk more than 2 km per day.

Sehlabeng Secondary and Lereng Secondary do have some learners from impoverished families who live far from the school, accommodated in a government-sponsored hostel. This is not an option for the Ladybrand High learners. Sporting codes such as rugby, cricket and hockey are only found at Ladybrand High. The Learning Facilitators visit Ladybrand less frequently than they do the township schools. During school camps, Grade 12 parents from

Lereng Secondary and Sehlabeng are involved in cooking and security, while this is not the case for Ladybrand High as the camp is held away from school premises. Overall, parental involvement in the three school was not sufficient. Parental involvement in South African schools has been primarily limited to financing schools and parent volunteering (Lemmer, 2007). James (2014) and Manamela (2015) emphasise the importance of parental involvement in the school, where the more that parents are involved in the schooling of their children, the better the academic achievement, and the less the ill-discipline and dropout rate. Parental involvement can ease the burden carried by the schools (Lewis & Naidoo, 2004); therefore, parents across all three schools are not as actively involved as they could be. Lemmer (2007), however, argues that schools must become places where parents feel wanted and recognised for their strengths and potential. Frequently parents do not feel welcome in school, particularly low-income parents.

6.3.4. Similarities between three schools

Most learners from the three schools were Black African (see Van der Berg, 2002). All three schools receive funds from the DBE, and all felt the funds were insufficient for their needs (see Fiske & Ladd, 2006; Marishane, 2013). All the schools must have fundraising programmes such as civvies days, beauty contests, Valentine's Day and the like (see Mestry, 2016). They acknowledged the support they receive from the Learning Facilitators in terms of workshops and receiving additional learning material, although they felt that more can be done on school visitations and strategies used to support the educators. The schools also receive some help from the municipality, although they felt it was not enough (see Mojapelo, 2017). In terms of admission of learners, the schools do not make use of geographical boundaries, but feeder schools; thereafter, they admit learners from other primary schools. All will admit learners from Lesotho if they have a study permit, but this seems to only apply to Ladybrand High. All three schools have free extra lessons (although the township schools offer much more extensive extra lessons, especially for Grade 12).

Library services was a problem in all the schools (Paton-Ash & Wilmot, 2015). Two schools had library facilities that were not fully functional, while the other school did not have a library at all (see McKay, 2015; Mojapelo, 2017). Shandu, Evans and Mostert (2014) note the issue of libraries as a challenge experienced both locally and globally. They further explain it as one of the powerful tools that enhances learners' achievement. They emphasise that learning needs to take place not only in the classroom, but also be stimulated, supported, directed and encouraged

through a school library. Either the library was used as a classroom or the materials in the library are outdated.

Similar findings were found by Shandu et al. (2014) in Katlehong, Johannesburg. Of fourteen schools they studied, two had converted the library building to a classroom, due to shortage of classrooms. In other cases, the library will often be used as a detention centre for learners with ill-discipline, as there is no space in the school (Shandu, 2014). Therefore, not enough reading material is available for learners (see Staeheli, 2009). For Ladybrand schools, the increasing number of learners in the three schools have contributed to the issue of converting library buildings into classrooms.

Inadequate financial resources can also contribute to schools having outdated library resources (McKay, 2015). The schools make use of the community (municipal) library, but felt it was not enough to serve all their needs; for example, the library used by learners from Ladybrand High only has two computers, and it is also used by community members. The schools were short of science and physics laboratories (as found also by Vally et al, 1999 in other schools). All wanted additional classrooms or buildings (a finding supported by the work of Bush, Joubert, Kiggundu & Van Rooyen, 2009 in other schools). The schools have different sports codes such as netball, soccer, hockey and athletics, but all have a shortage of grounds to practise some of the sports (similar to what Marishane, 2013 found for other schools). Thus, they also wished that the schools could have more sporting grounds. For example, Ladybrand High must pay to use a municipal football ground, despite it not being properly maintained.

The schools all also felt that there was only minimal involvement of parents in the education of their children. Parents' participation is seen as important by the schools for efficient running of the school and academic achievement. This supports the findings of Lewis & Naidoo, 2004; Gratz, 2006; Fishel & Ramizel, 2005). The parents only came to school when the school wrote to them or called them in to discuss issues such as discipline. The schools had a disciplinary committee which included the SGB and SMT members. The school LRC also assisted the schools with disciplinary issues.

6.3.5 Conclusion

The chapter discussed the similarities and differences that were found between the two township schools. It then compared the two township schools with Ladybrand High, and lastly, focused on the similarities of all three schools. The three schools in Ladybrand were analysed, looking at their similarities and differences. Ladybrand High is racially integrated, while the

two township schools are mostly racially homogenous. The two township schools are broadly similar, but with some variations, as was also found by De Kadt et.al. (2019), in Johannesburg.

Ladybrand High consists of learners mostly from financially able homes, as they can afford to pay school fees and other school-related costs, such as passive commuting. This is similar to the findings of many authors across South Africa (Msila, 2009; McKay, 2015; Wiener, 2017; Hunter, 2017). Many poor parents and their children are only enrolling in the two local township schools, supporting the work of Msila (2009). Although all schools receive subsidies from the DBE, with the two township schools receiving more funds, none of the schools felt that the funds were sufficient. Thus, the SGB and SMT help the schools through fundraising. While discipline was a major concern for two township schools, Ladybrand High had a system in place to ensure safety and effective teaching and learning. The following chapter focuses on conclusions and the recommendations made from the study.

CHAPTER 7: CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

7.1. Introduction

This chapter reflects on the findings of the study. In this chapter, the following are addressed: what the study set to achieve, an overview of methodology, addressing the research questions, the limitations of the study, recommendations, suggestions for additional research, and then the conclusion. Recommendations are based on the results of the research questions.

7.2. What the Study Set Out to Achieve

The study intended to investigate the daily school commute undertaken by learners at three high schools at Ladybrand. It looked at the nature of the commuting in terms of choice, cost, mode and time, as well as the factors that contribute to school commuting and the impacts thereof. It determined the demographics and socio-economic status of learners attending these schools, and the extent to which the schools in the area are desegregated. The study contributes to the school choice literature and could assist the DBE in terms of understanding the factors driving the abnormal school commuting patterns. It provides insight into school choice and commuting, as well as the challenges faced by township schools regarding the creation of a culture of teaching and learning. It also notes the funding challenges faced by all the schools, including the former whites-only school in Ladybrand.

7.3. Overview of Methodology

The study deployed mixed methodology, using questionnaires with parents and interviews with SGB and SMT members, to collect data. Permission was obtained from the Free State Provincial Department of Education to conduct the study. Written permission was also received from the three schools. All the participants gave informed consent**.** In terms of this, participants were informed that participation was voluntary, and they could drop out of the study at any time. Arrangements were made with the principals regarding the venue and the schedule of the research process. A total of 398 parental questionnaires were distributed, and 219 were returned and analysed. SGB interviews could only be conducted with two of the schools, although there were SMT interviews with all the schools. The SMT and SGB interviews were analysed qualitatively.

7.4. Addressing the Research Questions

Research Question 1: What is the demographic and socio-economic profile of learners enrolled in the public high schools found in Ladybrand?

Most learners hailed from Sesotho-speaking homes, although there were learners at Ladybrand High speaking Afrikaans, English and IsiZulu. All three schools are dominated by Black Africans, in line with the study by McKay (2019). Lereng Secondary and Sehlabeng Secondary are completely racially homogenous, while there was some racial integration at Ladybrand High, in line with the study conducted by Zoch (2017), stating that most Black African learners enrol in former white-only schools, while the township school remains homogenous. Thus, it may be that as fees are charged by Ladybrand High, the school is not socio-economically integrated (see Yamauchi, 2011). Most of the learners enrolling in the three schools came from Ladybrand and the neighbouring township, although Ladybrand High has several learners coming from relatively far away, including Lesotho, which is not the case in Lereng Secondary and Sehlabeng Secondary. Ladybrand High has a high percentage of learners hailing from the township itself. This finding is in line with the studies of Lombard (2007) and McKay (2019).

Most learners at Ladybrand High School are more likely to be exposed to greater levels of parental care, as most live with both parents (although there was a minority who lived with a single parent, grandmother or father). However, across all three schools, a substantial (and in the case of Sehlabeng Secondary and Lereng Secondary schools, the majority) number of learners live with only one caregiver, usually a single mother or grandparent, father or other family member. Lemmer (2007) found that learners living with a single parent or one caregiver often do not perform well academically. Some impacts can be seen on the matriculation results for the two township schools, in line with the study by Zoch (2017).

Most parents of learners in Lereng Secondary and Sehlabeng Secondary either have unskilled jobs or are unemployed, while parents of learners in Ladybrand High are mostly employed in jobs requiring skills. Furthermore, mothers of learners in the two township schools had mostly completed either Grade 12 or Grade 9, whereas highly educated mothers (with undergraduate degrees/diplomas, honours and Masters degrees) are far more likely to be found at Ladybrand High School. Learners whose fathers had a tertiary education were also mostly found at Ladybrand High, rather than at Lereng Secondary and Sehlabeng Secondary. Thus, low education levels by parents from two township schools correlates with most of them working in unskilled jobs or being unemployed. The finding is in line with the study by Mckay (2015),

which states that some parents lack the skills and knowledge to gain access to well paid jobs. This may also make it more difficult for such parents to assist their children with academic or school related tasks, such as take home projects and homework.

Lifestyle indicators such as a TV or DVD, electric stove, microwave, smartphone and computer were much more common in the households of learners at Ladybrand High, although some parents from Lereng Secondary and Sehlabeng Secondary did have such household items. In terms of basic services, most learners in Ladybrand High were households with electricity, flushing toilets, a domestic worker and a vehicle. Few parents of learners at Lereng Secondary and Sehlabeng Secondary could afford such items, and the majority of rely on government healthcare, or collected a State grant for survival. Based on household items, therefore, parents of learners in Lereng Secondary and Sehlabeng Secondary could generally be said to be lower middle class, working class or underclass, while Ladybrand High parents were lower to upper middle class in terms of socio-economic status. Parents who can afford school fees are enrolling their children in the fee-paying school, while those who cannot are enrolling their children in the no-fee schools, in line with the study by Msila (2019). Within the township schools, there do seem to be small differences in terms of relative poverty, with those in Sehlabeng slightly worse off than those in Lereng, which could perhaps account for the difference in matric pass rates. This supports the finding that a socio-economic divide exists between learners enrolled in the township schools and those enrolled in Ladybrand High.

Thus, although racial integration is noticeable at Ladybrand High, the school is socio-economically different from the other two schools, as learners from homes with limited financial resources do not enrol here in any great number. Thus, schooling in the Ladybrand area in general has shifted from one characterised by racial segregation to one characterised by class segregation. It appears that financially better-off people of colour have elected to exit the township schools rather than exercise options such as voice or loyalty, as found in the study by Msila (2019) amongst others.

Research Question 2: What influences parental school choice and commuting?

According to Van Dyk and White (2019), good academic performance and good/qualified teachers are the main drivers of school choice, as is the case with three public schools at Ladybrand. In addition, parents from Lereng Secondary and Sehlabeng Secondary considered school proximity, which was also a reason for many parents in the study conducted by Weiner (2019). Financial cost, when choosing a school, was also considered by township parents, while

this was not the case for parents of learners at Ladybrand High. It seems that parents who choose Ladybrand High have the financial resources to select a school that charges school fees. In addition to school and transportation fees, parents from Ladybrand High also spend money on uniforms, donations and extracurricular activities, in line with the study conducted by Evans and Cleghorn (2014) and Mckay (2014). The same is also true for Lereng Secondary and Sehlabeng Secondary, where parents pay for school uniforms and donations to the school. Pampallis (2017) states that although parents contribute to donations and other fundraising activities, they may not be forced to pay such monies. That said, Ladybrand High parents paid much more for these items than did parents with learners at Lereng Secondary and Sehlabeng Secondary. It seems that parents with learners in Lereng Secondary and Sehlabeng Secondary have limited their school choice to either one of the non-fee schools close to their homes. As there are school fee waivers for parents who cannot afford school fees, either these parents are unaware of this, or the fee-waiver system is not working as envisaged in terms of Ladybrand High. This is also in line with other studies.

Research Question 3: By what means, at what cost and how long does the daily commuting take?

Most learners at Lereng Secondary and Sehlabeng Secondary walk to school. Ladybrand has a higher percentage of learners using passive commuting, although there are some who actively commute to school. Of the passive commuters, most use a private car followed by minibus taxis and school transport vehicles. McKay (2019) found that there is an increasing number of learners using private transport due to the unreliability of public transport, and crime, if learners walk to school. Most learners in the two township schools travelled up to 2 km to school each day, however, a noticeable number of learners from Sehlabeng Secondary were also travelling between 8 and 10 km daily.

Similarly, De Kadt et al. (2014) found that learners in South Africa are travelling to schools that are more than 10 km from their homes. Thus, Weiner (2017) regards the distance of learners travelling more than 30 minutes, as far. This is possibly also a factor that impacts on the matric pass rate of this school. Whereas for Ladybrand High, most travel between 8 and 30 km a day. Bell (2007) found that long travelling by learners, regardless of the mode of transport, has a negative impact on academic performance. The survey indicated that for most learners enrolled at Ladybrand High, this is not their nearest school. Using transportation to commute to school indicates that most learners do not attend the school closest to their home, in line with

the study by De Kadt et al. (2014). Parents of learners at Ladybrand High spend between R500 and R1 500 monthly on school transportation. Some Lereng Secondary and Sehlabeng Secondary learner's parents pay for transport; however, some learners live in the hostel and use a subsidised government bus to get to school.

Research Question 4: What impacts does school choice and commuting have on the functioning of the schools?

The funding provided by the DBE to the schools under study was deemed not enough to cover all the school expenses. Thus, Marishane (2013) states that public schools depend most on the subsidy from the government, in order to function. Library services were also a problem in the schools. Sehlabeng Secondary had no library services, while Ladybrand High and Lereng Secondary libraries were not fully functional, in line with the study by Mojapelo (2017). English medium classes at Ladybrand High are overcrowded due to shortage of classrooms. The resource backlogs of the apartheid era are still evident, mostly in the township schools (see McKay, 2015). Learners in Sehlabeng were using mobile classrooms, which are not conducive for teaching and learning as they are too hot in summer and too cold in winter. They also do not have a school hall.

Although Sehlabeng Secondary has many learners from poor families, the feeding scheme was not operational at the time of the study. The school was still waiting for funds from the DBE. There were no Physics and Science laboratories in Ladybrand High, Computer and Science laboratories in Lereng Secondary, and no Science laboratory in Sehlabeng Secondary. Sehlabeng Secondary also experiences many learner pregnancies. Safety is also a problem in the township schools, as the schools are often impacted by clashes between gangsters, as found in the study by Motseke (2013).

The two township schools are faced with disciplinary challenges that often affect teaching and learning. Sebola (2015) maintains that schools should provide an environment which is effective for learning and teaching. All the schools have a shortage of grounds for different sporting codes. There is minimal support from parents. Lewis and Naidoo (2004) maintain that parental involvement plays a critical role in the functioning of the schools. Learning Facilitators and the municipality have also showed minimal involvement in the schools.

The SGB and SMT from the two township schools raised a concern that commuting negatively affects learning and teaching. That is, learners often get to school late, arrive exhausted and

often miss the morning classes, as found in the study conducted by Du Toit (2008). Importantly, commuting learners are unable to attend extra classes and extracurricular activities at the school, as found in the study by De Kadt et. al. (2019). They also often skip school days if the weather is bad and are likely to drop out of school. Ladybrand High did not raise similar concerns, only mentioning that the school is notified in time if learners are going to be late due to transportation issues (especially those travelling form Lesotho).

7.5. Limitations of the Study

The availability of SGB members for interviews was a challenge. In one school, the SGB was not interviewed as some parents were residing in Lesotho, and the Grade 12 teachers who are part of the SGB were committed to school duties. The second school only managed to organise the teacher component of the SGB to participate in the interviews, while the third managed to have both parents and teachers participate. In some cases, the principals of the schools did not inform the SGB members in time, although permission was sent and communicated to them well in advance. For the survey, some parental questionnaires were not fully completed, while others were returned blank. Some learners did not bring the questionnaire back to the school. Non-participation of all SGB members from Ladybrand High and one SGB member from Sehlabeng Secondary might influence the results of the two schools. The response rate of questionnaires was also low from Ladybrand High and Sehlabeng Secondary schools, which might influence the results of the research on the schools.

The study was also unable to determine the level of support that the Learning Facilitators provide the schools. The degree of SGB support for the schools was not established to a greater extent; therefore, the research was unable to determine if they fulfil their roles as expected by the DBE. The admission criteria in the former Model C school was not investigated to determine whether learners from the township who wished for enrolment, are granted access. The study was not able to investigate why township schools have learners that still walk long distances to school, while some learners are subsidised in the form of accommodation (the hostel) and transportation (the bus). With regard to the learning environment, the study established that teachers in the township schools do not feel safe.

7.6. Recommendations

The study found that township schools are faced with problems related to gangsterism, rendering the school premises unsafe. In this regard, the DBE needs to work with the schools

to improve safety within the school premises and ensure that teaching and learning are not disrupted. The DBE should also consider providing subsidised transport or more hostels for learners residing on farms, as they travel long distances to school. Teachers were dissatisfied with the support they receive from the Learning Facilitators, requesting support for teachers in the classroom rather than merely conducting workshops. Furthermore, Learning Facilitators do not consult with teachers regarding deliverables. Ways need to be found for parents to become more involved in school activities, and to assist the schools with learner discipline.

7.7. Suggestions for additional research

There has been a decrease in the number of white learners attending Ladybrand High. The reasons for this are unknown. Thus, research is needed to determine why this is so. Further research should be done to investigate why township schools have such extensive extra classes, compared to the former whites-only school. In particular, the 'camps' held within the school premises of the two township schools need investigation in terms of who attends and why, what conditions prevail there, and the overall purpose of the camps. Importantly, the safety of learners in these camps needs to be investigated. Furthermore, the impact of extensive school camps on teachers and learners is unknown. Additionally, the difference in the matric pass rate between the two township schools needs further academic attention.

7.8. Conclusion

There have been many studies regarding school choice and school commuting in South Africa. Parents are exercising their school choice rights as prescribed in the South African Schools Act No. 84 of 1996), using it to demand good education, and some are willing to pay to ensure that their children gain access to good schools. However, school choice seems to be most beneficial to financially resourced parents, as affordability has become a contributing factor of school choice. Financial resources seem to largely determine who attends which school.

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APPENDIX 1: FREE STATE DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION PERMISSION LETTER

Enquiries: KK Motshumi
Ref: Research Permission: PS Mnguni
Tel. 051 404 9283 / 9221 / 079 503 4943
Email: K.Motshumi@fseducation.gov.ZA

education
Department of Education
FREE STATE PROVINCE

PS Mnguni
150 Katlehong
Witsieshoek
Qwaqwa, 9866

078 612 8731

Dear Ms. PS Mnguni

APPROVAL TO CONDUCT RESEARCH IN THE FREE STATE DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION

1. This letter serves as an acknowledgement of receipt of your request to conduct research in the Free State Department of Education.

   Topic: School choice and school commuting in Ladybrand

   Schools involved: Lereng, Sehlabeng and Ladybrand High School

   Target Population: A total of 450 Parents of Grade 8 learners, 18 members of the School Governing Body and 18 members of the School Management Teams from the above mentioned Schools.

   Period of research: From the date of signature of this letter until September 2017. Please note the department does not allow any research to be conducted during the fourth term (quarter) of the academic year.

2. Should you fall behind your schedule by three months to complete your research project in the approved period, you will need to apply for an extension.

3. The approval is subject to the following conditions:

   3.1 The collection of data should not interfere with the normal tuition time or teaching process.

   3.2 A bound copy of the research document or a CD, should be submitted to the Free State Department of Education, Room 319, 3rd Floor, Old CNA Building, Charlotte Maxeke Street, Bloemfontein.

   3.3 You will be expected, on completion of your research study to make a presentation to the relevant stakeholders in the Department.

   3.4 The attached ethics documents must be adhered to in the discourse of your study in our department.

4. Please note that costs relating to all the conditions mentioned above are your own responsibility.

Yours sincerely

DR JEM SEKOLANYANE
CHIEF FINANCIAL OFFICER

DATE: 23/5/17

RESEARCH APPLICATION MNGUNI PS PERMISSION EDITED 21 MAY 2017

Strategic Planning, Policy & Research Directorate
Private Bag X20565, Bloemfontein, 9300 - Room 318, Old CNA Building, 3rd Floor, Charlotte Maxeke Street, Bloemfontein
Tel: (051) 404 9283 / 9221 **Fax:** (086) 6678 678

Enquiries: KK Motshumi
Ref: Notification of research: PS Mnguni
Tel. 051 404 9207/ 079 503 4943
Email: K. Motshumi@fseducation.gov.za

education
Department of Education
FREE STATE PROVINCE

The District Director
Motheo District

Dear Mr. Moloi

NOTIFICATION OF A RESEARCH PROJECT IN YOUR DISTRICT BY PS MNGUNI

1. The above mentioned candidate was granted permission to conduct research in your district as follows:

   Topic: School choice and school commuting in Ladybrand

   Schools involved: Lereng, Sehlabeng and Ladybrand High School

   Target Population: A total of 450 Parents of Grade 8 learners, 18 members of the School Governing Body and 18 members of the School Management Teams from the above mentioned Schools.

2. **Period**: From date of signature to September 2017. Please note the department does not allow any research to be conducted during the fourth term (quarter) of the academic year nor during normal school hours.
3. **Research benefits:** Understanding the economic and social impact associated with daily commute of learners. It will assist the Department and schools to develop intervention strategies to deal with commuting and the impacts associated with it
4. The Strategic Planning, Policy and Research Directorate will make the necessary arrangements for the researcher to present the findings and recommendations to the relevant officials in your District.

Yours sincerely

DR JEM SEKOLANYANE
CHIEF FINANCIAL OFFICER

DATE: 23/05/2017

APPENDIX 2: LADYBRAND HIGH SCHOOL PERMISSION LETTER

HOËRSKOOL LADYBRAND
LADYBRAND HIGH SCHOOL

P.O. Box 110
Ladybrand
9745

(051) 924-1452/53

(051) 924-0701

ladybrandhs@mweb.co.za

Collinstraat
Collin Street
LADYBRAND
9745

2017-07-28

To whom it may concern

I, EJ Hanekom, Principal of Ladybrand High School hereby grant permission for Phindile Mnguni, to conduct research at Ladybrand High School on School choice and commuting.

I trust that you will find this in order.

Yours faithfully

EJ Hanekom
PRINCIPAL

HOËRSKOOL LADYBRAND
Posbus 110
Ladybrand
9745
HIGH SCHOOL LADYBRAND

APPENDIX 3: LERENG SECONDARY SCHOOL PERMISSION LETTER

LE-RENG SECONDARY SCHOOL

ENQ.: THE PRINCIPAL
TEL/FAX: 051 – 924 2885

PRIVATE BAG X10
LADYBRAND
9745

22.06.2017

TO:
Ms Phindile Mnguni
150 Katlehong
Witsieshoek
QwaQwa
9870

Dear Phindile,

RE: YOUR REQUEST TO CONDUCT A RESEARCH AT LE-RENG SECONDARY SCHOOL:

It gives me a great pleasure to inform you that permission has been granted for your request to conduct a research at our school.
The school also wants to express its gratitude for your decision to choose us as part of your case study. We therefore want to assure you of our unreserved support to the best of our ability in all your endeavours that would involve us.
We once more want to thank you and wish you all the best in advance.

Kind regards,

RAMOSENA R.K.
PRINCIPAL

MNQEBISA L.J.
SGB CHAIRPERSON

LE RENG SEC. SCHOOL
22 JUN 2017
PRIVATE BAG X10
LADYBRAND 9745

APPENDIX 4: SEHLABENG SECONDARY SCHOOL PERMISSION LETTER

QHOJENG K.K.E.
TEL: 051- 924 0200
FAX: 051- 924 5191
sehlabenghs@gmail.com

SEHLABENG HIGH SCHOOL
P.O. BOX 882
LADYBRAND
9745

"Bokamoso Bo Tjhatsi"

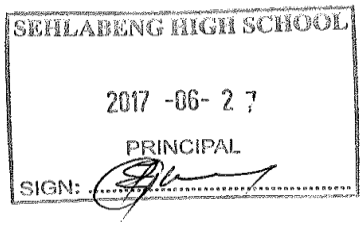
Mme Mnguni

As per the telephone conversation we had, kindly be informed that your request to conduct research work in our school has been approved.

Hope you find this in order.

Yours faithfully.

QHOJENG K.K.E
PRINCIPAL



APPENDIX 5: UNISA ETHICAL CLEARANCE

UNISA university of south africa

CAES RESEARCH ETHICS REVIEW COMMITTEE

National Health Research Ethics Council Registration no: REC-170616-051

Date: 31/01/2017

Ref #: **2017/CAES/003**
Name of applicant: **Ms PS Mnguni**
Student #: **51251264**

Dear Ms Mnguni,

Decision: Ethics Approval

Proposal: School choice and school commuting in Ladybrand, Free State

Supervisor: Mrs T McKay

Qualification: Postgraduate degree

Thank you for the application for research ethics clearance by the CAES Research Ethics Review Committee for the above mentioned research. Approval is granted for the project, *subject to submission of the permission letters from the relevant provincial Department of Education and the targeted schools.*

Please note that the approval is valid for a one year period only. After one year the researcher is required to submit a progress report, upon which the ethics clearance may be renewed for another year.

Due date for progress report: 31 January 2018

Please note points 4 to 7 below for further action.

The application was reviewed in compliance with the Unisa Policy on Research Ethics by the CAES Research Ethics Review Committee on 30 January 2017.

The proposed research may now commence with the proviso that:

1) The researcher/s will ensure that the research project adheres to the values and

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principles expressed in the UNISA Policy on Research Ethics.

2) *Any adverse circumstance arising in the undertaking of the research project that is relevant to the ethicality of the study, as well as changes in the methodology, should be communicated in writing to the CAES Research Ethics Review Committee. An amended application could be requested if there are substantial changes from the existing proposal, especially if those changes affect any of the study-related risks for the research participants.*
3) *The researcher will ensure that the research project adheres to any applicable national legislation, professional codes of conduct, institutional guidelines and scientific standards relevant to the specific field of study.*
4) *Permission from the provincial Department of Education and the schools are outstanding. These letters must be obtained and submitted to the Committee before data gathering may commence.*
5) *Interviews will be recorded and consent must be obtained from participants before doing so. Furthermore, these recordings must be stored safely to protect the applicants.*
6) *The benefit of the study must be clarified.*
7) *The method of feedback to participants must be clarified. Will this include recommendations to improve the situation of the participants? The researcher must explain how the results will be presented so that participants can benefit from it.*

Note:
The reference number [top right corner of this communiqué] should be clearly indicated on all forms of communication [e.g. Webmail, E-mail messages, letters] with the intended research participants, as well as with the CAES RERC.

Kind regards,

Signature
CAES RERC Chair: Prof EL Kempen

Signature
CAES Executive Dean: Prof MJ Linington

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APPENDIX 6: SGB INTERVIEW QUESTIONS

Title: The social and economic impacts of school commute.

My name is Phindile Mnguni. I am an MSc in Environmental Management student at the University of South Africa. I am under the supervision of Tracey McKay, who is a staff member and senior Lecturer at UNISA. The research forms part of my Master's degree and is on social and economic impacts of school commute.

Introduction

The primary aim of the research is to determine the social and economic impacts associated with school commute. Schools will be used as the case study for the research.

Invitation to participate

This is an invitation to you to participate in the study.

What is involved in the study?

Your involvement in the study would be that of being a participant in an in-depth, semi structured interview. The process will not be a long one and should take a maximum time of 25 minutes.

Risks

While nothing in life is risk free, there are, for all intents and purposes, no risks involved in participation.

Benefits

You could find participation beneficial in that you may know the social and economic impacts that faced by learners in the school. As a participant, you will be sent the results upon completion of the research if you so indicate.

Participation is voluntary

The refusal to participate will have no penalty or loss of benefits to which the participant is otherwise entitled, and that the participant may discontinue participation at any time without penalty loss of benefits to which they are otherwise entitled.

Reimbursements

There are no reimbursements.

Confidentiality

All personal information will be kept confidential and there will be no personal ramifications of any results found. Results will be captured in a manner that will ensure confidentiality.

Contact details of researcher

Please contact me directly on: 0786128731 or Phindile822@gmail.com

For further information you can contact my supervisor, Tracey McKay on: 073 264 9496 or 011-670-9461 or mckaytjm@unisa.ac.za

Consent Document

The social and economic impacts of school commute. A Study of three High Schools, Ladybrand, Free State

I confirm that I have been informed about the above study by Phindile Mnguni.

I have also received, read and understood the study as explained in the participant information form.

I understand that my all personal details (identifying data) will be kept strictly confidential.

I understand that I may, at any stage, withdraw consent and participation in the study.

I have had sufficient opportunity to ask questions and am prepared to participate in the study.

The research protocol above has been explained to me (name).....

Signature..... Date.....

Witness (1) Signature..... Date.....

Witness (2) Signature..... Date.....

SGB interview Questions

1. Do parents pay any school funds? If yes,
    a. How does SGB encourage parents to pay school funds?
    b. How does the SGB assist parents who cannot afford to pay school fees?
2. Does the SGB raise funds for the school? If yes,
    a. Why it is important for SGB to raise funds for the school?
    b. How does the SGB raise funds for the school?
3. What are the geographical boundaries that are determined by the SGB for admission of learners into the school?
4. Does the school provide transport to learners travelling long distances? If yes, what?
5. In what ways does the SGB address discipline problems at the school?
6. What are the extra-mural activities supported by the school? Please give details.
7. How does the SGB ensure that it finds and keeps teachers?
8. How does the SGB ensure that the physical environment (property, building and grounds) of the school is conducive to teaching and learning?
9. What does the SGB do to help the school to improve its academic performance?
10. What improvement programmes at the school can be directly attributed to the SGB?
11. What is the language of instruction at the school, how was it decided upon and how is implementation managed?
12. How does the SGB motivate parents to become involved in school activities?
13. How does the Department of Education support SGB and the school?
14. Has the profile of learners and parents changed over the last 20 years (race, home language, income, geographical origin)?
15. What do you think are the biggest challenges facing the school?
16. If you wanted to upgrade the school, what would you upgrade and why. How much do you think it would cost?

APPENDIX 7: SMT INTERVIEW QUESTIONS

Title: The social and economic impacts of school commute.

My name is Phindile Mnguni. I am an MSc in Environmental Management student at the University of South Africa. I am under the supervision of Tracey McKay, who is a staff member and senior Lecturer at UNISA. The research forms part of my Master's degree and is on social and economic impacts of school commute in Ladybrand, Free State.

Introduction

The primary aim of the research is to determine social and economic impacts associated with school commute. Schools will be used as the case study for the research.

Invitation to participate

This is an invitation to you to participate in the study.

What is involved in the study?

Your involvement in the study would be that of being a participant in an in-depth, semi structured interview. The process will not be a long one and should take a maximum time of 25 minutes.

Risks

While nothing in life is risk free, there are, for all intents and purposes, no risks involved in participation.

Benefits

You could find participation beneficial in that you may know the social and economic impacts that are faced by learners in schools. As a participant, you will be sent the results upon completion of the research if you so indicate.

Participation is voluntary

The refusal to participate will have no penalty or loss of benefits to which the participant is otherwise entitled, and that the participant may discontinue participation at any time without penalty loss of benefits to which they are otherwise entitled.

Reimbursements

There are no reimbursements.

Confidentiality

All personal information will be kept confidential and there will be no personal ramifications of any results found. Results will be captured in a manner that will ensure confidentiality.

Contact details of researcher

Please contact me directly on: 0786128731 or Phindile822@gmail.com

For further information you can contact my supervisor, Tracey McKay on: 073 264 9496 or 011-670-9461 or mckaytjm@unisa.ac.za

Consent Document

The social and economic impacts of school commute. A Case Study of three High Schools, Ladybrand, Free State

I confirm that I have been informed about the above study by Phindile Mnguni.

I have also received, read and understood the study as explained in the participant information form.

I understand that my all personal details (identifying data) will be kept strictly confidential.

I understand that I may, at any stage, withdraw consent and participation in the study.

I have had sufficient opportunity to ask questions and am prepared to participate in the study.

The research protocol above has been explained to me (name).....

Signature..... Date.....

Witness (1) Signature..... Date.....

Witness (2) Signature..... Date.....

SMT Interview Questions

1. Does the school charge school fees?
    a. If so, what is the total per annum per child on average?
    b. Are there discounts or bursaries?
2. What other educational costs do parents pay for?
3. What additional monies do parents contribute to the school e.g. civvies days etc.?
4. Do the school provide a feeding scheme to learners?
    a. If so, which learners do qualify?
    b. What constitutes the food, what are the costs to the school?
5. What are the geographical boundaries for admission of learners into the school?
6. What is the maximum distance (in km) travelled by learners coming to the school?
7. How do learners get to school (mode of transport)?
8. Has the profile of learners and parents changed over the last 20 years (race, home language, income, geographical origin)?
9. Does the school or government provide a transport subsidy for learners travelling long distances?
10. Do you feel/observe that a long commute (km, minutes) by learners impacts on their academic performance?
11. Does the school give extra lessons? Please explain what, how, when and costs.
12. Does the school have a library –or is there one nearby?
13. Why do you think parents have chosen to enrol their child in this school?
14. Does the school struggle to find and keep teachers?
15. What are the extra curricula activities for learners?
16. How is discipline in the school managed?
17. How involved are the parents in the school? What do they do?
18. How does the Department of Education support the school?
19. How does the local municipality support the school?
20. Does the school have a vegetable garden and clinic – or is there one nearby?
21. What do you think are the biggest challenges facing the school?
22. If you wanted to upgrade the school, what would you upgrade and why. How much do you think it would cost?

APPENDIX 8: PARENTAL QUESTIONNAIRE

The socio-economic and environmental impacts of the school commute

My name is Phindile Mnguni. I am an MSc in Environmental Management student at the University of South Africa under the supervision of Ms T. M. McKay.

Introduction

This study seeks to examine the school commute undertaken by learners between their homes and their schools.

Invitation to participate

This is an invitation to you to participate in the study.

What is involved in the study?

Your involvement in the study would be that of being a participant in a questionnaire. The process will not be a long one and should take a maximum time of 20 minutes.

Risks

While nothing in life is risk free, there are, for all intents and purposes, no risks involved in participation.

Participation is voluntary

The refusal to participate will have no penalty or loss of benefits to which the participant is otherwise entitled, and that the participant may discontinue participation at any time without penalty loss of benefits to which they are otherwise entitled.

Confidentiality

All personal information will be kept confidential and there will be no personal ramifications of any results found. Results will be captured in a manner that will ensure confidentiality.

Contact details of researcher

For further information you can contact me on: 078 6128731 or Phindile822@gmail.com

Or the supervisor Ms T. M. McKay on 073 264 9496 or mckaytjm@unisa.ac.za

Consent Document

The socio-economic and environmental impacts of the school commute

I confirm that:

- I have been informed about the above study..
- I have also received, read and understood the study as explained in the participant information form.
- I understand that my all personal details (identifying data) will be kept strictly confidential.
- I understand that I may, at any stage, withdraw consent and participation in the study.
- I have had sufficient opportunity to ask questions and am prepared to participate in the study
- I understand the research protocol above.

Signature: ..... Date: ……..

Witness 1

Signature: ..... Date: ……..

Witness 2

Signature: ..... Date: ……..

Name of school learner enrolled in	
What language are most of the classes in this school conducted in?	
Grade of the child	**8**

RESIDENTIAL INFORMATION:

1. Residence: where does the child <u>primarily</u> live in? _____

2. What province does the child live in most of the time? (Please tick)

1	Free State	2	Other (please specify)

SCHOOLING INFORMATION:

3. What school did your child attend <u>before</u> enrolling in this one?

1	A primary school	
2	A different high school	
3	Home schooled	

4. Is this school the closest school to the child's home?

1	Yes	2	No

5. Transport: How much does it cost to get your child to school and back per month? (Please tick correct block)

1	No cost		4	Between R1 000 and R1 500 per month	
2	Less than R500.00 per month		5	Greater than R1 500 per month	
3	Between R500 and R1 000.00 per month				

6. What are the annual school fees you pay for this child? (Please tick correct block)

1	I pay no school fees (bursary, or no fee school)		10	Between R 16 000 and R 20 000 per year	
2	Roughly R 500 per year		11	Between R 20 000 and R 25 000 per year	
3	Between R 500 and R 1 000 per year		12	Between R 25 000 and R 30 000 per year	
4	Between R 1 000 and R 2 500 per year		13	Between R 30 000 and R 35 000 per year	
5	Between R 2 500 and R 5 000 per year		14	Between R 35 000 and R 40 000 per year	
6	Between R 5 000 and R 7 000 per year		15	Between R 40 000 and R 50 000 per year	
7	Between R 7 000 and R 9 000 per year		16	Between R 50 000 and R 60 000 per year	
8	Between R 9 000 and R 12 000 per year		17	More than R 60 000 per year.	
9	Between R 12 000 and R 16 000 per year				

7. What other educational costs do you cover for your child? (Please tick correct block and give the amounts you spend). Per year, per month, per week - complete which one fits your purpose

ITEM	**COST (R) per year**	**COST (R) per month**	**COST (R) per week**
01 Donations to the school (cash)			
02 Uniforms (such as blazers, shoes and the like)			
03 Stationery (pens, pencils and the like)			
04 School books (Exercise Books)			
05 Textbooks			
06 School sports activities (include uniforms and transport)			
07 Extracurricular activities and excursions (E.g. Art, drama, school outings, choir)			
08 School lunch money/tuckshop money			
09 Extra lessons e.g. maths, English			

8. What is the TOTAL amount paid for educational items OTHYER THAN school fees? (Please tick correct block). Per year

1	Less than R500 per year		4	Between R3 000.00 and R 5 000.00 per year	
2	Between R 500 and R1 500 per year		5	Between R5 000.00 and R 8 000.00 per year	
3	Between R1 500.00 and R 3 000.00 per year		6	Greater than R 8 000 per year	

9. Why did you choose THIS school for your child? (Please tick ALL applicable blocks)

Reputation	01 Good Academic Results/facilities (matric pass rate)	
	02 Good Sports e.g. soccer fields, hockey coach	
	03 Good Teachers i.e. qualified, good reputations	

	04 Good Discipline i.e. no bullying, school well managed	
05 It is close to my home		
06 It is close to where I work		
07 It offered me value for money in my opinion		
08 I chose it I wanted my child to learn in the specific language of instruction		
09 Another one of my children was already enrolled here		
10 My child wanted to go to this school, my child chose it.		
11 Previous generations attended the school e.g. Father, Grandmother		
12 This is a school I can afford		
13 The school management team is strong		
14 Good facilities in general e.g. classrooms, toilets, library, computers		
15. Small class sizes (not many kids in one class)		
16. I chose this school for religious reasons		
17. I wanted my child to attend a single sex school e.g. only boys or only girls		

10. How does this child normally get to school each day?

1	Walks		5	By private car as a passenger	
2	Rides a bike		6	By train	
3	With a private school transport vehicle		7	By public bus	
4	With a school transport vehicle provided by the government		8	By mini bus taxi	

11. How long (in minutes) does it take to get to school?

1	Less than 15 minutes		5	Between 60 and 90 minutes (1 ½ hours)	
2	Between 16 minutes and 30 minutes		6	Between 1 ½ hours and 2 hours	
3	Between 31 minutes and 45 minutes		7	More than 2 hours	
4	Between 46 minutes and 60 minutes				

12. How long (in kms) is it from your home to the school?

1	Less than 2 kms		5	Between 12 kms and 20 kms	
2	Between 2 kms and 4 kms		6	Between 20 kms and 30 kms	
3	Between 4 kms and 8 kms		7	More than 30 kms	
4	Between 8 kms and 12 kms				

13. How does this child normally get home after school each day?

1	Walks		5	By private car as a passenger	
2	Rides a bike		6	By train	
3	With a private school transport vehicle		7	By public bus	
4	With a school transport vehicle provided by the government		8	By mini bus taxi	

14. Please tell us why your child does not walk or ride a bike to school. Tick all that are applicable/all that you agree with/all that are true for you:

1	It is too far to walk/ride a bike.		8	My child used to walk/ride but was robbed/attacked and so now I don't let them walk/ride or don't want them to walk/ride.	
2	It is too dangerous to walk/ride a bike (crime)		9	My child is too young to walk/ride.	
3	My child may get lost on the way.		10	My child refuses to walk/ride to school.	
4	I want to make sure my child gets to school so I drop him/her at school or take them myself to school.		11	My child is not healthy/strong enough to walk/ride to school.	
5	I don't trust my child to walk/ride alone.		12	The school bag is too heavy to carry all the way to school/put on a bike.	
6	The traffic is too bad/dangerous to walk/ride.		13	It isn't good to walk/ride if the weather is bad/cold/rainy.	
7	My child doesn't have a bike/we cannot afford one.				

FAMILY INFORMATION:

15. What is the main language spoken at home?_____

16. Please tick ALL that you have in your home:

TV and/or DVD player		Washing machine	
Smart phone		Tumble drier	
Home security service		iPad/tablet	
M-Net/DSTV Subscription		Dishwashing machine	
Gates and a wall around my home		Fridge / freezer/deep freeze	
Computer / Laptop		Electric stove	
Vacuum cleaner / floor polisher		Microwave oven	

15. Please tick ALL that are TRUE for you/ TRUE for your household:

I make use of public hospitals/ clinics		I seldom go on holiday away from home	
A geyser for hot water		There are no pets in my household	
I have a flushing toilet inside my house		We have a domestic worker/gardener	
There is a motor vehicle in our household		There is no internet in my household	
In my home, someone collects a government grant		Everyone who wants to work has a job	
I live in a house, cluster or town house		I have electricity in my house	

16. Race: What racial group do you identify yourself as?

1	Asian (e.g. Chinese, Korean)		4	Indian	
2	African		5	White	
3	Coloured		6	Other	

17. What is the relationship status of the parents of THIS child?

1	Divorced		5	Remarried	
2	Living together		6	Single parent	
3	Married		7	Widow / widower	
4	Other (please specify)				

18. What is the highest level of education obtained for the parents of this child?

Mother			**Father**	
1	Primary School		1	Primary School
2	Completed Grade 9		2	Completed Grade 9
3	Completed Grade 12		3	Completed Grade 12
4	Tertiary Undergraduate Degree/Diploma		4	Tertiary Undergraduate Degree/Diploma
5	Honour's Degree		5	Honour's Degree
6	Master's and/or PhD Degree		6	Master's and/or PhD Degree

19. With whom does this child live with?

1	Both parents		5	Grandparent/s	
2	Mother		6	Uncle/Aunt/sister/brother	
3	Father		7	Other (please specify)	

20. The person who contributes the most financially towards this child – how would they classify themselves in terms of job/occupation?

1	Professional	e.g. engineers, healthcare workers, accountants, lawyers, architects etc.	
2	Managerial or technical	e.g. general managers, educators, nurses, public servants etc.	
3	Non- manual, skilled	e.g. clerks, cashiers, sales personnel, secretaries etc.	
5	Manual, skilled	e.g. skilled construction workers, electricians, plumbers, craftsmen, technicians etc.	
6	Partly skilled	e.g. domestic workers, machine setters/ operators, protective services, waiters	
7	Unskilled	e.g. construction workers, miners, manufacturing workers, labourers	
8	Does not work	e.g. pensioner, student, stay at home parent	

APPENDIX 9: RESEARCH COST

CATEGORY	SUB-TOTAL
Tuition fee during project (2016-2019)	R47 000
Travelling expenses	R15 000
Computer and software	R 12 000
Printing	R1 000
Technical editing	R1 500
Video Camera/ digital camera/ voice recorder.	R2 000
Other equipment	R 2 000
Research assistant	R 1 500
Estimated Total Cost	R81 000