CHAPTER 3

IMPLEMENTATION OF RESEARCH METHODOLOGY AND RECORDING OF RAW DATA

3.1 INTRODUCTION

The researcher will discuss various means of collecting data in regard to intervention strategies regarding drug trafficking and alcohol abuse in different Soweto high schools. In addition the research methodology will include: a discussion of pilot studies, sampling strategies, sampling size, design, target population, empirical research, dependent and independent variables, measuring instruments, reasons for using the instruments, and statistical techniques used and why. Therefore, multiple methods of data collection will be used to increase the reliability of research findings.

The main objective here is to research the ways in which educators and learners within organisations such as public and independent high schools involve themselves in drug and alcohol abuse. The reasons behind such activities, the intervention strategies to deal with them and how to identify them, as well as the results thereof, will be discussed.

3.2 TRIANGULATION

Triangulation is a combination of methodologies in the study of the same phenomenon, like human behaviour, that is, a way of bringing together one source of information to highlight one fact (Marsh, 1995:146). These methods might be taken from within methods, approaches such as different types of quantitative and qualitative data collection strategies (Creswell, 1994:174-75). The joining together of qualitative and quantitative approaches, according to contemporary writers, is
employed for a single study as it looks for convergence of the study (Creswell, 1994:175). It allows for the emerging of fresh perspectives. The mixed methods used in triangulation add scope and breath to a study. It is complementary in the sense that overlapping and different facets of a phenomenon may appear. These two methods supplement each other. Since triangulation will be used to investigate different actor’s viewpoints, the advantage will be that it shall naturally produce different sets of data and the more the methods contrast with each other, the greater the yield of information.

As explained by De Vos (1997:359), triangulation is the use of two or more research methods of data collection procedures drawn from both normative and interpretative techniques in combination with some aspect of human behaviour and the situations in which human beings interact within a single study (Cohen and Manion, 1997:269). These methods can therefore be employed with qualitative and quantitative methods and these will allow for the study to be more reliable and valid. Nevertheless, the study will follow more of a qualitative approach rather than quantitative, which would be drawn on a target population through observation. Triangulation, characterised by validity, reliability and trustworthiness, is a technique that assists in overcoming the problem of 'method-boundness'.

3.3 RESEARCH DESIGN

Mouton and Marais (1991:107) define a qualitative research design as explorative, descriptive and contextual in nature. The design of a research study involves the overall approach to be followed and detailed data about how the study will be carried out with whom and where. The researcher proposes qualitative research as a suitable method for this study because it will be emergent. The researcher will begin with an initial focus of inquiry and an initial sample and refine this as she engages in a continuing process of data collection and analysis, giving priority to the exploratory and descriptive focus, emergent design; data collection in the
natural setting, qualitative methods of data collection, early and ongoing inductive data analysis and a case study approach to report research outcome and the concerns of all these will enable the investigator to examine the literature for her qualitative study (Maykut and Morehouse, 1994:43-5). It is acutely tuned in to the experiences and meaning systems of others in influencing what the researcher is trying to understand to develop trustworthiness of study.

The research design will include phenomenology and ethnography, ethnology, historical methods and symbolic interactionism, which are the strategies of the study. The researcher will explain these concepts on the following pages.

3.3.1 Phenomenology and Ethnology

The researcher will enter the subject’s life world by placing herself in the shoes of the subjects. In order to understand the meaning that the subjects give to their daily lives she will bracket her own experiences. This method is supported by Creswell (1994:12). In this research study there’s an "exhaustive description" of a narrative interaction between the researcher and the educator, principal, learner parents and the Gauteng Department of Education official who addresses the problem of drug abuse and AIDS.

The specific purpose of this study is to identify learners who indulge themselves in drugs and alcohol, their behaviour in the classroom and the entire school premises. Finally, the researcher will have to look for strategies to be used for intervention, and how should the parents and educators should interact with the South African National Council on Alcoholism and Drug Dependence (SANCA) for the purpose of aiding the addict (Bryan, 1992:13). All these could be found through the implementation of the research questions, answers to which are given in paragraph 5.2.1. These research questions emerge through interviews.
The main objective of using these strategies is to grasp more insight into the world of the participants and the meaning they offer in their day to day activities. Several conversations will be carried out with participants.

\textbf{3.3.2 Historical method}

The researcher’s historical sources therefore would be classified as either primary sources, including the oral testimony of eyewitnesses, documents and records, as well as secondary sources which include the reports of participants who narrate the accounts of drug and alcohol use in their particular schools. Herein the study would not ignore the following:

- Government documents - regulations, telephone directories for population members from which the sample is selected (Czajat and Blair 1996:268).
- Opinions - public opinions about drug and alcohol use by learners and letters to the editor.
- Public reports - newspaper reports.
- Confidential reports - journals.

Historical evidence like newspapers, diaries etcetera will be considered as they relate to the learner’s and educator’s culture. The historical method is relevant to the culture and lives of all those who are highly active in drugs and alcohol within the organisation. The historical method of investigation would be used only to ascertain the meaning and reliability of past facts encountered but also to appraise the past facts experienced in everyday life. Van Dalen (1979:350), further emphasises that history seems to tell us that "if men are not masters of their fate, neither are they victims of fate", fulfilling the fact that individuals must be architects of their lives rather than ruining their lives with potentially lethal drugs and alcohol.
3.1.53.3.3 Ethnography

This strategy of enquiry is represented by observation (participant observation). Data analysis is largely explanatory, engaging descriptions of the phenomena. Significantly, the aim is to write objective accounts of life experiences (field work experiences) using participant observation (De Vos, 2000:81).

Ethnography is a means of describing culture or aspects of culture, concerning the lives of people in their diverse settings, climates and stages of development (Boas, 1911; Malinowski, 1932; Mead, 1960 in Maykut & Morehouse, 1994:69).

Ethnography is of supreme importance in this study because of its grounding of participant observation. It was initiated by cultural anthropologists who have developed and refined the method of qualitative data collection explain Maykut and Morehouse (1994:69) and includes participant observation and description of the behaviour of a limited number of cases. De Vos et al. (2000:80) asserts that, that would allow the investigator to attain comprehension into the respondent’s requirements like, principals, educators, learners, and external stakeholders. Borg & Gall (1989:386-87) further state that herein, there’s in-depth analytical description of an intact cultural scene and human phenomena is studied. De Vos (2000:244) point out that non participant observers transact all that happened in the setting that is being studied. Borg and Gall (1989:387) regard how people make sense of their every day world in achieving and sustaining interaction in a social encounter, the assumptions they develop, the conventions they utilise and the practices they adopt in their lived experiences. Cohen and Manion (1989:33), stress that as data is being uncovered and the participants’ perspective is being documented, that is according to holistic ethnography (Marshall and Rossman 1989:10). The researcher would point out that qualitative research is of a predominantly descriptive nature, comprehensive and interpretative. Ethnography is a strategy of investigation that attempts to interpret the meaning that symbols, (like actions,
signs, words) have for the participants and, in order to furnish this, the researcher will need to actively enter the words of people being studied. Data will be collected through participant observation and interviewing and systematically analysed regarding the expressed behaviour, meanings and interpretations that the subjects give to their surrounding lives (De Vos, 2000:81).

### 3.3.4 Symbolic interactionism

Here the focal point will be to conduct and manifest the semantic content as well as the clarifications that the respondents honour their life’s zone. The strategy tries to interpret the essence that symbols supply, like: words, signs, and actions (Seidman, 1991:43).

### 3.4 SAMPLING

The sample that the researcher chose to study is made of principals, educators, parents, learners and a member of the Gauteng Department of Education (GDE), because they are exposed to the problem of Drugs and alcohol abuse acts. The most important reason for sampling is feasibility. In many cases it is easy to depict all members of a population of interest like drug abusers. Sampling, for Kerlinger, in De Vos (2000:191), is viewed as a subset of measurements drawn from the population which we are curious to study. Specific methods should also be employed. These are:

#### 3.4.1 Sampling criteria

The researcher will use simple random sampling so that every individual or event has an equip-probability, a chance of being selected, in accordance with Martella et al. (1999:121). In this study, the researcher will ask a team of learners how they
prefer to be interviewed, for example, male separated from female learners, or whether they prefer to be mixed to enable them freedom of speech.

Sampling refers to abandoning certainty in favour of probability (Bless, 2000:83). A sample is thus, to quote De Vos (2000:191), “a small portion of the total set of objects, events or persons which together comprise the subject of our study”. It assists us in explaining some facet of the population. The population of the contemporary research consists of principals, educators, the Learner Representative Council (LRC), School Governing Body (SGB) under D11 High schools in the area of Soweto. The sample shall be represented by selected high schools, that is, 3 public high schools and 2 independent secondary schools. Therefore, the sample will include 5 principals, 5 learners, 5 parents, 5 educators, and 1 GDE official making the entire number of participants 21. The selection will be carried out in respect of age and gender. Concentration will be on random sampling. In random sampling every member of the population has an equal opportunity to be in the sample and pure chance is the only factor to establish who actually goes into the sample. This strategy, according to Vockel (1983:109), is theoretically most accurate, since the limited group is drawn from a population and resemble the entire population as closely as possible. Without doubt, if one wants to compile accurate information about a group of persons, an excellent strategy is to assess each and every single member of the group. This is stipulated by Bless (2000:83) with properties which make it representative of a unit.

### 3.5 ADDED AIMS OF THE RESEARCH

According to De Vos (2000:6-7), the meaning of the term “aim” implies the broader concept of “the end toward which effort or ambition is directed”. Thus, the purpose of the study amongst others, already mentioned in Chapter 1, from paragraph 1.3 would be:
• to make progress by means of limiting the practice of drug and alcohol abuse in Soweto Secondary Schools;
• create solutions for the problem and applications in practice.

With these broad goals in mind, the researcher is enabled to clarify the proposed ends and means of the intervention research project. De Vos (2000:389) emphasises this point of view. These aims will be refined and structured through the employment of qualitative research.

3.5.1 Why does the researcher choose to use qualitative strategy in this study?

Qualitative research is suitable because:
• It aims to comprehend phenomena within a specific context.
• It uses an inductive form of reasoning by originating concepts, insights and understanding within patterns in the study.
• It derives interpretation from the participants’ perspective.
• It is ideographic in the sense that it contains and gives meaning to the practicality of day to day people's lives, driving the investigation to become naturalistic. (De Vos, 2000:240).
• It seeks to understand phenomena.
• Observations are determined by data, richness of settings and are used to accelerate insight.
• Data is displayed in the form of quotes from documents and transcripts,
• It does not allow fixed steps to be adhered to and cannot be precisely replicated.
• Such a point makes the research design flexible and unique,
• Data are assessed by extracting themes.
• The unit of analysis is therefore inter alia, holistic, as it pays attention to the relationships between elements, contexts and so on, making the whole to be always more than the sum.
• It ensures internal validity,
• Data is to be further collected through interviews, documents and visual material immediately and this makes this aim to quickly develop 'constructs'

A qualitative research method is significant for investigation of drug and alcohol abuse as it concentrates on qualities of human behaviour (De Vos, 2000:241) which is intentional and creative, easily explained and not predicted.

### 3.3-13.6 CONSTRUCTIVISM AS IT APPEARS IN QUALITATIVE STUDY

Constructivism has various meanings depending on the discourse. In the social sciences, the term considers what is known. Constructivism is explained in two strands, one focuses more on what the individual knows and his/ her acts of cognition. The main point in radical constructivism is that human knowledge cannot consist in accurate representation. A second strand of constructivism focuses more on social process and interaction.

Marshall & Rossman (1989:144-47) point out three alternative constructs that much precisely reflect the assumptions of the qualitative paradigm. These are:

- **Credibility** - ensures the identification description of participants correctly and assist.
- **Transferability** - the investigator tries to account for changing conditions in the phenomenon chosen for study.
- **Confirmability** - It captures the traditional concept of objectivity.

Therefore, in this study, as the researcher enters another phase of collecting, which is the interview, various questions pertaining to the study will be asked.
3.7 THE INTERVIEW AS AN APPROACH IN QUALITATIVE APPROACH

3.7.1 The interview as a concept

It refers to a data collection format in which an interviewer asks the respondents questions and records their answers (Vockell, 1983:353). Therefore additional techniques for recording events have to be employed such as, note taking, audio-taping, and filming. Fieldnotes are at times called analytic memos (De Vos, 2000:286). They are helpful as they enable the researcher to retrace and explicate the development of the research design, the emergence of analytic themes as well as the systematic collection of data. The researcher will have to choose to use either the exploratory or structured interview.

3.7.2 An exploratory interview

An exploratory interview

- It is designed to extract relevant ideas for subsequent data collection. It is informal and quite unstructured.
- It relies on people's words and meanings as the data for analysis (Maykut & Morehouse, 1994:43-44). An exploratory interview is practical as the researcher asks all the participants appropriate questions concerning the problem of the study. The researcher stuck to this type of interview. The researcher indicated to her respondents that they may use any language they are comfortable with. Although the majority of participants opted to be interviewed in English, others preferred Sesotho.
3.7.3 Structured interview

During the interview the researcher concentrated on the following factors that helped in monitoring, namely:

- Respondents to co-operate
- The respondent needs to know that their interaction with the interviewer will be pleasant and satisfying.
- The respondents need to see the study as being worthwhile.
- Barriers to the interviews in the respondent’s mind need to be overcome. Nachmias et al. (1987:242).

They are developed in such a way that a respondent is not given ample chance to elaborate. However, there are advantages and disadvantages to using the interview as one of the methods of gathering data.

3.6.13.7.4 Advantages of interviewing strategy

- The interviewing strategy can be conducted at a relatively modest cost and in relatively brief time,
- It exposes the researcher to the participant’s world views and permits considerable probing,
- It allows the investigator to probe, creating the flexibility that is so significant for exploring unanticipated issues,
- It allows participants to react and build upon the responses as they influence and interact with each other,
- It can provide speedy results.

3.7.5 Disadvantages of interviewing strategy

The interviews also have challenges to overcome or negative results like:
• Recruiting the right people to come and participate in the interview.
• A researcher can choose an appropriate type of interview that suits her study of inquiry from a few of them.

3.7.6 Forms of interviewing
The researcher in this study will have to understand three forms of interview, before making any selection of which one to use.

- **The structured interview:**
The content and procedures are well pre-arranged. This means that the process and wording of the questions are voluntarily planned.

- **The unstructured interview:**
Is an open situation but needs a careful planning. It has excellent flexibility and independence.

- **The non-directive interview:**
It is acquired from the conceptual interview. The respondent is characterised by the freedom he has to express his intrinsic feelings. The informant is encouraged to say anything about drug and alcohol abuse under investigation and the continuity of the interview is only guided by him. There are no set questions, or predetermined framework for recorded answers. The interviewer is there to restructure the respondent's answers and to keep on searching without exception. The researcher right use it if complex attitudes are displayed.

- **Focused interview:**
The interviewer plays a more significant role. Can initiate intelligible verbal hints. Therefore, amongst these few forms of interview, the researcher, will use the unstructured; non-directive and focused interview conjoint, in order to bring trustworthiness; consistency; dependability; conformability; transferability to the

3.8 SAMPLE/PARTICIPANT

According to De Vos (2001:191) a participant is explained as an element of the population considered for substantial inclusion in the study.

In this investigation the participants will extend the variability of the sample. The sample (participants) will enlarge the likelihood that variability, which is typical in any social phenomenon, will be personified in the data for the sake of bringing about trustworthiness within the investigation.

3.9 REINFORCEMENT FOR TRUSTWORTHINESS

As far as Lincoln and Guba in Schwandt (2001:258) are concerned, the term “trustworthiness” refers to a simple set of criteria that have been provided for judging the quality or goodness of qualitative investigation. In *Naturalistic Inquiry* (1985) they explain criteria (and associated procedures for judging the trustworthiness of naturalistic research. The term trustworthiness was displayed as the quality of investigation (and its findings). There are four criteria serving as the naturalist’s equivalents to conventional criteria. *Credibility*, which is parallel to internal validity, addresses the issue of the inquirer providing assurances of the fit between respondent's views of their life ways and the inquirer's reconstruction and representation of same.
To enable the researcher to develop and assess trustworthiness, the study compares relevant models to qualitative designs. This would encourage resistance as Guda has stated in (De Vos, 2000:348). All research is fairly open to criticism and there should be criteria by which qualitative research ought to be assessed (Holloway & Wheelers, 1999:162). Hence the model for trustworthiness in qualitative research is said to be the Guba’s *model of trustworthiness* which works along with truth value applicability, consistency and neutrality models, also assure validity and reliability, which is intensified by Dyer (1995:127) when he states that validity and reliability are important concepts in research, because they render the certainty that the research instrument is capable of accommodating exact and meaningful answers to the research question.

3.9.1 The Guba model of trustworthiness of qualitative research

Guba in Schwandt, (2001:258) describe this model of trustworthiness as that quality of an investigation (and its findings) that made it noteworthy to audiences.

3.9.2 Truth value: Transferability

The researcher will have to augment confidence in the process of the research through the inclusion of the preserved triangulation; field experience which is a high school in this case and shall make the study applicable to other contexts. Transferability is parallel to external validity which dealt with the issue of generalisation in terms of case-to-case transfer.

3.9.3 Applicability

This concept requires or predicts whether the finding of the study is rational and well-directed.
3.9.4 Consistency: Dependability

Consistency is defined in terms of dependability, whereby the findings are expected to proportional in order to provide sense of the investigation of the problem. Dependability, parallel to reliability, is focused on the process of the inquiry and the inquirer's responsibility for ensuring that the process is logically traceable, and documented.

3.9.5 Neutrality: Conformability

Neutrality is explained by means of confirmable faithfulness. It only functions on the informants and the condition of the study and not other biases, motivations and perspectives. Confirmability is parallel to objectivity, and is concerned with establishing the fact that the data and interpretations of an inquiry are not merely figments of the inquirer's imagination. It calls for linking assertions, and finding interpretations in readily discernible ways.

Dependability, confirmability, member checks and peer debriefing, among other procedures, were defined as most appropriate for credibility.

In cases where the subjects were videotaped, for example, consent should be given and confidentiality ensured so that that no one else will view the tape or listen to what has been captured in the tape recorder. This process forms part of the ethical considerations.

3.9.6 Confidentiality
The interviewee shall be ensured by the researcher that the information that is collected concerning drug and alcohol abuse will never be disclosed to the police, relatives or others. This point is clarified in paragraph 3.8.5. The dignity of the interviewees will not be ignored, this is emphasised by Act No. 22 of the legislation. A relationship of trust should be created by the interviewer to enable the respondents to be more willing to open up. In some instances, the identity of the researcher cannot be disclosed to the members who come to visit the interviewees while the process of investigation is on. Therefore, within the investigation, the researcher has different roles to play.

3.83.10 THE ROLES AND RESPONSIBILITIES OF THE RESEARCHER

The main role of the researcher is concerned with:
• Taking responsibility for her/his own work, and there are others which are suggested to be taken into cognisance by the National Postgraduate Committee, 1995: in Cryer (1996:61). It is, however, not essential to observe all of them as important, the other roles are highlighted by Creswell (1994:147-149), which are:
• Identifying the mapping for the data collection, considering the four parameters suggested by Miles & Huberman (1984) in Creswell (1994:149), for example:
  ➢ the setting: (Where the study is to occur?)
  ➢ the actors: (Who will be observed or interviewed?)
  ➢ the events: (What will the actors be interviewed or observed about?)
  ➢ the way events are carried out by the actors within the setting.
• Indicating the types of data to be collected and offering a pretext for the data collection like observations, interviews, documents and visual images.
• participating actively in the group selected.
  observing without providing any input.
embracing statements about past experiences of the investigator that provide familiarity with the topic, the setting or the informants.

considering steps taken to gain entry to the setting and to assure approval to study the informants or situation Miles and Huberman, (1998:4) in Creswell.

taking note of sensitive ethical issues such as sustaining confidentiality of data, asserting the anonymity of informants and using research for intended purposes, and lastly

classifying the guidelines for the data collection. The main point of qualitative research is to purposefully choose informants that will best answer the research question. It is the responsibility of the researcher to prepare for the interview and involve the framework of a topic to be covered during the interview.

3.11 THE INTERVIEW GUIDE AND OPEN-ENDED QUESTIONS

According to Maykut & Morehouse (1994:83), an interview questions guide is said to be a series of broad interview questions which the researcher is free to explore and probe with the interviewee. The central aim of the guide is to affirm that the same topics are completed for each of the participants whilst an interview schedule refers to an interview format, including a comprehensive set of questions for scrutiny. Questions in the interview guide should not provide potential responses for leading the participants. The interview guide must be tested prior to its use with the actual participants (De Vos, 2000:319).

The application of the interview guide is helpful as it is more structured than the informal conversational interview. Its advantage is that interviewers can be sure to cover the needed topics for each participant (Martella, Nelson, Martella, 1999:289). The researcher will keep on asking questions relating to drugs and alcohol abuse throughout the interview. The interview guide is to be designed in order to bring out its comprehension clearly.
3.9.11.1 Designing the interview guide

Before forming the interview guide, concepts from the topic to be investigated will need to be defined intelligibly, for example, drug and alcohol abuse. Furthermore, sensitive questions that capture the intent of the study shall be noted. The design of the interview guide as an important aspect establishes the agenda for the interview and offers a structure within which the members in a group to be interviewed will interact. Questions will be categorised from the more general to the more specific. Those that are important should be placed at the beginning and those with a minimal significance be put towards the end. The following taxonomies of questions are suggested by De Vos (2000:318):

- **Opening question**: It is factual
- **Introductory question**: It introduces the general topic of the discussion.
- **Key question**: It ends the discussion. It contains three types of questions:
  - **The all things-considered question**: It permits the participants to highlight the most relevant aspects that were discussed.
  - **The summary question**: It must be asked after the research has given a short summary of the discussion
  - **The final question**: "Is there anything that we have missed?"

Extensively speaking, all questions are either 'open' or 'closed' open-ended questions.

3.11.2 Open-ended questions
These are the questions directed to the participants, whereby they are asked to provide answers (Martella, Nelson and Marchand-Martella 1999:560). The interviewer does not have to be skilful, the questions are pre-designed and structured, sequentially and because of this, a limited data is compiled for the work of the interviewees. Nevertheless, during a qualitative interview, enough information is accumulated. Open ended questions are characterised by the **WHY? HOW? WHEN? and WHERE?** whereby the respondent is expected to elaborate when answering questions. Open ended questions are relevant for interviewing in the sense that;

### 3.9.23.11.3 Advantages of open-ended questions

Open-ended questions have the following advantages:

- They are flexible
- They allow the interviewer to probe so that he may go into more depth if he chooses.
- They enable the interviewer to test the limits of the respondents knowledge
- They uplift co-operation
- They permit the interviewer to make a real assessment of what the respondent really believes.

Patton (1990) in Martella, Martella, and Nelson (1999:290-291) emphasises six kinds of questions that are also asked of participants, concerning any topic. They may also be mentioned previously like "What did you…?")}, present ("What are you……")}, future tense ("What will you ....?"). Such type of questions Patton regards them as **time-frame questions**, for example, they relate to:

1. experience/behaviour
2. opinion/values
3. feeling
4. knowledge
Prior to the interview phase, the researcher must reassure the participants that whatever is discussed in the interview, should not be disclosed to any person, friends parents or the legal structures. De Vos (2000:330) adds that subjects, who are videotaped, for example, should give their consent and confidentiality. This is strongly emphasised. In this study the kind of questions asked are reflected in appendix A, section A.

3.12 ETHICAL CONSIDERATIONS

Strategies to sustain confidentially eliminate the risk of harm and embarrassment to those studied. In some instances participants should be informed when videotaping is taking place. It may be imperative to use video editors, to temporarily smudge identifiable features to protect the identity of participants. The researcher’s promise to protect the research participants’ rights and decisions will be upheld in an effort to research others (Burn and Grove, 1993:94-108). Concerns about validity and reliability are common to all forms of research. The investigation should be conducted in an ethical way (Kruger, 1994:24).

3.12.1 Informed Consent

According to De Vos (2000:25), obtaining informed consent means that all information on the aim of the investigation, the procedures, advantages, disadvantages, dangers will be rendered to their legal representatives. The most fundamental principle for ethical acceptability is informed consent. The involved participants will have to be informed of the nature and purpose of the research, its risks and benefits and must consent to participate without coercion. Should the
privacy of the investigation be compromised, then the identity of the respondent would be harmed.

Five basic elements, put forward by Borg and Gall (1987:19), must be respected when seeking permission from persons, who consent for themselves and from people who offer consent for all those who cannot give consent themselves such as parents, the School Governing Body members (SGB) and learners themselves. These are: Learners Representative Council (LRC) and in some cases, learners who indulge themselves in drugs (culprits). Furthermore, the researcher must do the following to enhance confidence of the consent:

- She must give clarification of the aim of the research and the procedures that will be employed.
- She must offer an account of any probable risk and discomforts to the participant.
- She must give a description of any benefits that may be reasonably expected, including incentives to participate.
- She must give an exposure to any changeable procedure that might be advantageous to the participant.
- She must offer to answer any questions concerning the procedures to be followed.

3.10.23.12.2 Harm to experimental subjects

Such harm could be emotional in the social sciences but it is rare that one finds the respondent being physically harmed (De Vos, 2000:25). The researcher must guard against using harmful experiments like, giving learners drugs or glasses of alcohol to check-out its impact, as such an act will harm the psychological and physical being of these learners. It is the responsibility of the researcher to protect the respondents against any type of physical and psychological discomfort. Emotional harm to respondents is not easy to detect. The researcher will clearly
inform the respondents prematurely about the possible impact of the study. This would allow the subject to pull-out from the investigation if he/she so wishes. The researcher should not ignore the fact of seeking permission before he/she could get entry into the site, which is, in this study, a school.

3.10.33.12.3 Permission to do research at the chosen sites

This involves the following:
• A letter of request is written to a particular site (school) where the investigation will take place,
• Permission will also be sought from the Gauteng Department of Education official to enter various schools to conduct interviews concerning the topic with the principals, educators, parents’ learners and the Gauteng Department of Education official.

3.10.4 The purpose of the study will be highlighted.

3.12.4 Debriefing

Once the data are collected, ethical practice suggests that the investigator will have to advise participants about the topic to be discussed, and clarify any questions which may arise. The debriefing also gives the go-ahead of the researcher to equip her with additional information which, if given in advance may have biased the results. Since the study will employ an interview, participants (principals, educators, parents, learners) may be provided with a summary of results (Anderson and Arsenault, 2000:21). A follow-up session might be arranged as indicated by Cohen and Manion (1991:300).

3.10.53.12.5 Violation of privacy
According to De Vos (2000:27) violation of privacy, can be seen as a violation of the right to independence and confidentiality, which can be viewed as being synonymous. Privacy refers to components of personal privacy, while confidentiality points to the carrying of data in a confidential manner (De Vos, 2000:28). Privacy is defined as "that which normally is not intended for others to realise or assess" (De Vos, 2000:29). The researcher will have to respect the individual’s right to decide when, where, to whom and to what extent his or her attitudes, beliefs and behaviour towards the topic of the study will be disclosed. The study can be affected by using hidden apparatus such as one-way mirrors, tape recorders and video cameras. Individuals will be asked about how privately they prefer their personal information to be handled or example drugs (illegal) and alcohol abuse are two areas which nearly everyone will consider private and that participants will expect the researcher to protect their right to privacy through confidentiality, and for information be treated anonymously. The researcher must also have a password to open her computer to avoid anyone to have access to the information stored. The researcher will have to avoid releasing information about individuals, which may be recognisable to the research to other people.

Requests from organisations to be given access to the data collected should not be granted as they will create ethical problems regarding privacy, but further analysis of information by third parties can at times be rewarding to both the research community school and the entire community.

3.11.3.13 RECORDING OF RAW DATA

Prior to entering the field, qualitative researchers plan their approach to data recording, what is to be recorded and how will it be recorded (Cresswell, 1994:149-50). During data recording, all people are viewed as equals: the learner’s view is regarded as just as important as the educator’s principals; education officials or parents. This small number of subjects and the meanings that
they attach to their actions in all settings are unique as they are being observed and interpreted (De Vos, 2000:244).

The qualitative researcher attempts to get well acquainted with the people she is studying and their circumstances. Both the researcher and research subject interact to influence one another and are inseparably interconnected. In this study, the inner life of a person is highly significant. The researcher hopes to discover a theory that is grounded in data from informants (Creswell, 1994:93).

Data will be recorded through:

- **Observing** the involvement of a participant. The researcher observes without participating. The advantages here is that:
  - The researcher does not have firsthand experience with informants.
  - The researcher records information as it comes
  - Unusual aspects can be realised during observation.

**Interviews** will be conducted, face-to-face, one-to-one. The researcher, where respondents are not available, will conduct the interview telephonically.

**Analysis of Documents**: Private documents such as Log Records for drug abuse were provided by one of the respondents for future needs.

As the interview and recording proceeds, multiple realities are socially constructed through individual and collective definitions of the situation. Subjects/phenomena, their thoughts, feelings and actions are different and can only be studied holistically, as Schwandt (2001:118) explains, and therefore develop context-bound generalisations (De Vos, 2000:281).

3.123.14 CONCLUSION
In this chapter implementation and methods of collecting and recording raw data have been discussed.

Different questions will then put to different individuals. These are recorded in the Appendix A and the responses to the questions appear in Appendix B. Analysis of data and recording of findings from the study will be covered. In Appendix G photographs of all the evidence of drug abuse in secondary schools, together with various stalls of vendors in Appendix F, will be presented.

The use of various methods in collecting data would definitely bring reliability and validity to the study, which would enable it to be transferable for use in other situations similar to the sample.

In the next chapter analysis of data and recording of findings from study will be explained and interpreted. However, with the educator’s role being clarified, and having been guided on how to integrate into Life Orientation the theme of Drug Abuse, the implementation of a Drug Policy and relevant strategies for minimising the practice of drugs in schools, there will be hope that the spread of use of drugs will be curbed.