

A case study of the effects of school management programmes on school effectiveness

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ABSTRACT

The Republic of South Africa has a long history of racial segregation and discrimination. The country's educational system has been a major instrument of this policy. This study examines the impact of the 1996 Education Act on the quality of education for all South Africans.

A case study approach was used to investigate the implementation of the 1996 Education Act in a school in a rural area. The study focused on the school's curriculum, teaching methods, and the role of the school principal. The findings show that the school has made significant progress in implementing the new curriculum, but there are still challenges to be overcome.

DECLARATION

I the undersigned hereby declare that the work contained in this thesis is my own original work and has not previously in its entirety or part been submitted at any University for a degree

S.T. MASEMOLA

ABSTRACT

The Republic of South Africa has a population made up of different racial groups. The differences are far reaching. There are differences with regard to the geographic location, wealth, educational levels and quality etc. amongst the racial groups. This has been the case for many years.

A new democratic government came into being in South Africa in 1994. The advent of the democratic rule brought along a number of changes. The big change has been the observed concerted effort by the government to improve on the quality of life of the lot of the previously disadvantaged people of South Africa. This effort is observable in almost all spheres of government. One of the areas where such attempts are being made is in education. Several programmes have been put in place to improve the educational level and quality of the majority of the previously disadvantaged people. Much money, effort, time and energy are put into these programmes. The main question is whether these programmes are yielding the results that were intended.

In this study, I tried to evaluate the impact of one such programme. I chose the TOPS school management programme as an example of these programmes. The programme was operational in eight areas of the Republic of South Africa. Its activities ended in 1996. I chose the case study approach in this study. The evaluation is summative in nature. One school which participated in the programme was chosen, to see what impact the programme had on its effectiveness. A second school that had not participated in the programme was brought into the study for purposes of comparison.

The conclusion I reached is that school management programmes have a significant impact on the effectiveness of the schools that participate in such programmes. This became very clear in the study. The school that participated in the TOPS management programme was found to be very effective. The school met quite a number of requirements for effectiveness. The performance of the programme school was found to be much better than that of the comparison school.

OPSOMMING

Die populasie van Suid Afrika bestaan uit 'n verskeidenheid van rasse wat nog verder verskil as gevolg van geografiese ligging, welvaart, opvoeding ens. Dit was die geval in baie jare.

Sedert 1994 het 'n nuwe demokratiese regering die bewind oorgeneem. Sedertdien het daar baie veranderinge plaasgevind. Die grootste hiervan is dat die regering 'n poging daarvan maak om die lewenskwaliteit van die vorige minderbevooregte lede van die samelewing te verbeter. Die verandering is opmerklik in alle afdelings van die regering. Onderwys is seker die afdeling wat die meeste aandag gegee word ten opsig van verbetering. Verskeie programme word aangebied. Hierin word baie geld, arbeid en energie in geploeg. Die groot vraag egte is word die regte resultate ontvang?

In hierdie ondersoek poeg ek om die inpak van hierdie programme te evalueer. Ek het die TOPS skool bestuur program uit gekies om te evalueer. Hierdie program was in agt streke van die Republiek aangebied; tot en met 1996. In hierdie opsig het ek die gevalle studie metode toe gepas, en die evaluasie is opsommend van aard. 'n Skool wat deelgeneem het aan die program is uit gekies om te bepaal watter inpak die program op sy effektiwiteit gehad het. 'n Ander skool wat nie deelgeneem het aan die program nie is gebruik om as vergelykend op te tree.

Die resultate toon aan dat die skool wat deelgeneem het aan die program baie verbeter het. Dit is 'n bewys dat skool bestuur programme 'n beduidende en waardevolle inpak op effektiwiteit het. Die skool wat deelgeneem het aan die TOPS skool bestuur program was baie meer effektief en het verskeie vereiste standaarde maklik gehaal. Die resultate van die skool wat aan die program deelgeneem het was beduidend beter as die vergelykende skool

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I dedicate this work to
my late grandfather,
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who laid a good foundation,
without which this achievement might not have been possible.

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CHAPTER 1.

1.1. THE RATIONALE FOR THE STUDY.

This study had its origins in a realisation and growing evidence that the quality of school education in various parts of South Africa has reached an all-time low level. The poor performance has been well documented by Makgoba (1998:13), who has shown that: “the national pass rate fell below 50 per cent (47,5) in 1997 after hovering in the 50s over the last three years i.e. 54 per cent for 1994; 53 per cent for 1995 and 58 per cent for 1996”. The table below shows clearly how there has been a great deterioration in matric examination performance by pupils, from 1996 to 1997:

Table 1. Percentage pass rates of matric pupils per province

PROVINCE	1996	1997	% CHANGE
Gauteng	55.6%	51.5%	-4.1%
Free State	51.1%	42.3%	-8.8%
Western Cape	80.7%	77%	-3.7%
Eastern Cape	50%	46%	-4%
Kwa Zulu Natal	61%	54%	-7%
Northern Province	37.8%	31%	-6%
North West Province	66%	50%	-16%
Mpumalanga	50.9%	54%	+3.1%
Northern Cape	72.9%	63.7%	-9.2%

Source: Cresswell R et al. (1998:1)

Atkinson et al (1992:1) argue that: “... A host of forces have combined to undermine a genuine culture of learning of South Africa’s schools. Such forces include almost forty years of separate and unequal education under apartheid; nearly a decade of educational disruption at schools and school children became caught up; indeed took a leading role in the country’s broader political struggle; and a political climate during the early 1990s that has been highly charged and violent”.

There are several behavioural patterns that are indicative of performance at its lowest. For example, there are learners who are unruly, disrespectful and undisciplined; who disrupt classes, do not attend lessons; ignore homework, want to pass by chanting political slogans and have no sense of place in society. There are learners who delude themselves that they know better than their parents; who constantly undermine discipline both at home and in school. Some learners think they will usher South Africa into the global information society simply by toyi-toying. As Makgoba (1998:13) put it: "... we have learners who reject the counsel of their parents and teachers. As a result, we have a complete breakdown of moral authority in society; where the learners rule the roost".

There are also several problems that originate with teachers. For example, most students who write matric examinations are simply unprepared. As reported by Cresswell et al (1998:1), this flows from the practice of promoting pupils who have failed their tests to the next standard. Mamaila (1998:9) reports that: "...most teachers do not complete the syllabus in the lower classes. They just go through a few chapters and set the examination based on these chapters. The poor pupils only meet a real challenge in the external examination. Some teachers just refuse to go to classes during their periods. They openly refuse to go to class and the poor principals can't do anything about it. School inspectors no longer visit schools, as before; as a result, cases of defiant teachers are not reported anywhere."

Dekker and Lemmer (1993:367) have also argued that: "... as a result of the devolution of power to the local community, educational regions and schools will have to bear full responsibility for their own performance and integrative actions. School managers therefore are becoming more than mere implementers of policy laid down by government and the department of education. The responsibility, authority and power to formulate policy and to secure its implementation are passing increasingly into the hands of local school managers and communities. Again, the government schools like many private schools are losing their mono-cultural character. This will obviously present greater challenges to education and its

education management. South Africa is currently spending the maximum permissible percentage of its available funds on education and yet it is not sufficient to serve the growing demand for education. The result is that more has to be achieved with less money. The economic realities necessitate the best possible management of every educational institution.”

From the above mentioned it is clear that various pressures on education as well as particular realities and challenges necessitate the training and re-training of educational leaders. It is widely accepted that educational managers exert considerable influence over the quality of education that occurs in schools. Therefore, the effectiveness of educational management is a decisive factor in school effectiveness. As Dekker and Lemmer (1993:365) have shown: “... information is also emerging that shows more directly that principals are key factors in change and improvement in schools. Their expertise and enthusiasm play a vital role in educational change.”

The main objective of this study is to study school management programmes, to find out how effective such programmes have been. Of course one does not have the time or resources to look into all such programmes. Thus I have chosen the TOPS school management programme in the Northern Province as an example. There is a tendency in evaluating such programmes to focus on participants’ feelings and attitudes towards the programme or the comfort level of activities. However, a constant and careful evaluation of training in practice and, more importantly, evaluation of the impact of this training upon the schools are advocated. It is this impact of the training programme on schools that I investigated.

1.2. THE RESEARCH OBJECTIVE.

The main objective of the study was to find out how effective the TOPS school management programme has been in a selected school in the Northern Province. The objective was to see how the TOPS programme might have brought about changes in the effectiveness of the schools. It was the aim to investigate how the programme

claims to have achieved its own objectives, and how such objectives when reached, would translate into better functioning of the schools, with an improvement in the culture of learning and teaching. The unit of analysis for this study is the school management programme, using TOPS as an example. The targeted population included the following: Pupils, teachers and principals.

I decided to introduce a second school into the study. The main advantage of this is that the second school, which has not participated in the TOPS school management programme, would be useful for purposes of comparison. As Woods (1992:386) has said: "... comparisons can be used to establish accurate evidence, establish empirical generalisations, specify a concept and verify a theory". Furthermore, Mason and Bramble (1989:104) have pointed out that: "... the purpose of a comparison group is to establish a standard against which treatment can be compared. Of course the comparison group is to be treated exactly the same way as the treatment group, except for the specific factor in the treatment condition that is being tested." More than that, I realised that with the non-existence of baseline information, information gained from the second school would assist in assessing the impact of the management programme.

The two schools are almost similar in terms of curricular and location. A more detailed discussion on the similarity of the curricular of the schools is presented in Chapter 6. Table 3 gives a very clear comparison of the curricular. The two schools are both rural schools. I tried to ensure that the schools are similar so that whatever differences are noticed should not be because of differences in curriculum or the geographic location.

1.3.THE RESEARCH DESIGN: A CASE STUDY.

I have decided to conduct a case study to address the research problem. According to Leedy (1989:90), a case study is: "... a type of descriptive research in which data are gathered directly from individuals or social community groups in their natural environment, for the purpose of studying interactions, attitudes or characteristics of

individual groups”.

I chose the case study design because it helps to probe deeply and analyse interactions between the factors that explain the present status or that influence change or growth. It is an approach showing development over a period of time. In the words of Fetterman (1994:22): “... the case study, when applied to educational institutions such as schools, describe the school as a community, sub-culture or human organism. The school has its own rules of behaviour, norms, economic systems and its own identifiable character or ethos. The case study provides a detailed picture of human organisation and value system of the school. This type of description places individual interaction into a larger context of historical circumstances and illuminates the politics of daily interacting in a school.”

Thirdly, I have chosen the case study design because in the words of Walizer and Weinir (1978:241): “... the case study is the simplest design of all. There is only one group. It is measured after “X” has occurred. Since there is no pre-test and no control group, any comparison between groups must be made on the guesses about what a group without having received “X” would be like. This knowledge of conditions prior to the event may come from knowledge and reliable observers, who know about the group being studied prior to event “X” Thus I had to refer to self-reports from the subjects about their condition on “Y” prior to “X”, and other documents such as school files, and reports of other observers such as teachers.

1.4.THE METHODOLOGICAL APPROACH: EVALUATION RESEARCH.

This study is a type of evaluation research because it is aimed at evaluating the effectiveness of a programme. Walizer and Weimnir (1978:355) have argued that: “... the general purpose of most evaluation research is to examine a chain of events. The chain starts with some sort of programme, the programme is supposed to lead to some activity, and the activity is supposed to produce some desired outcome. In order to be evaluated as a “success”, the programme must lead to the activities to which it was designed to lead and the activities should produce outcomes that the activities

were supposed to produce. There are several places where this chain can break apart. The first place is where the actual implementation of the programme may be different from the design of the programme. The second place is where, even as a programme is implemented properly, it may not lead to the activities to which it was supposed to lead. Third, even if activities were carried out according to plan, it is always possible that such activities lead to other than the desired outcomes. These factors have led to two types of evaluation research, i.e. formative and summative research.

Baker (1988:286) has shown that: "... in formative evaluation, the programme is studied in process, with the information being ploughed back into the programme to reform it as it is being administered. The focus is on the dynamic process of the ongoing system of social interaction. The time dimension in a formative evaluation is the present. Final conclusions cannot be drawn about the effectiveness of the programme; rather the evaluation must make proposals directed towards improving the ongoing operation of the programme".

On the other hand, summative evaluation summarises the effects of the programme after it is completed. In the words of Walizer and Weinir (1978:357): "... summative aspects are goals, outcomes, results or outputs of the programme; both anticipated and unanticipated. In summative evaluation the focus is on the programme as a completed entity. The time frame is in the past. Conclusions can be drawn". Baker (1988:288) says that: "... the purpose of the conclusions may be to advise others on the effectiveness of the particular programme, to suggest its weaknesses and problems as well as its strengths and accomplishments".

In this study, I have opted to use summative evaluation. In the first case, this choice is influenced by the fact that my intention has been to study the effectiveness of the TOPS programme. Secondly, the programme has long been completed i.e. the programme folded in 1996. So there was just no chance for formative evaluation in this study.

Strecher and Davis (1991:27) distinguish between five approaches to evaluation.

These are: 1) The experimental approach; 2) The goal-oriented approach; 3) The decision-focussed approach; 4) The use oriented approach and 5) The responsive approach. I found two of these approaches applicable or suitable to this study. These are the goal-oriented approach and the responsive approach.

The goal oriented approach uses programme specific goals and objectives as the criteria for determining success. The evaluator tries to measure the extent to which goals are accomplished. Strecher and Davis (1991:21) have shown that: "... this approach to evaluation is a natural outgrowth of a very practical model for programme design and development. This model encourages programme developers to clarify the relationships between specific activities and services that are offered and particular results or outcomes that are to be achieved. Not only does staff need to clarify the links between activities and outcomes, they must stipulate the desired results – the objectives – in clearly measurable terms. In this way, there are logical connections between activities, the outcomes and the procedures for measuring results. Once goals and objectives have been clarified, the evaluator's task is to determine the degree to which goals are attained. The results of the evaluation will contain a description of the status of all programme goals. In this way, success is measured in terms of programme-specific criteria rather than comparison with control groups or other programmes. Because the process of clarifying goals is highly iterative, the goal-oriented evaluator usually does not maintain the degree of independence that is characteristic of the experimental evaluator. The evaluator and programme staff meet, discuss and revise statements of outcomes to make both meaningful and measurable".

It is my conviction that the iterative nature of the goal oriented approach can be supported and strengthened by a responsive approach, so as to give a good understanding, account and evaluation of a programme. I was guided by the belief that a meaningful evaluation is one that seeks to understand an issue from the multiple points of view of all people who have a stake in the programme. As put by Strecher and Davis (1991:36): "... the responsive evaluator does not believe that there is a single answer to a programme question that can be found by using tests,

questionnaires or statistical analysis. Instead, each person who is influenced by a programme perceives it in a unique manner and an evaluator can only try to help answer programme related questions by portraying reality through the eyes of concerned constituents. The goal of the responsive is to facilitate efforts to understand the programme from multiple perspectives. The responsive evaluator relies on direct or indirect observation of events and impressionistic interpretations of data. One observer records, winnows through data, checks preliminary understanding with programme participants and tries to build models that reflect the insights of various groups. In this way, the evaluator tries to be responsive to the people who have a stake in the results”.

Thus in my study I had to get in touch with principals of the schools; the heads of departments; the teachers and pupils. My understanding has been that these are people who are directly involved in the school and thus directly affected by the programme or have a stake in the programme.

1.5.CONCLUSION.

In this chapter, it has been noted that the purpose of this study was to assess the impact of school management programmes, using the TOPS school management programme as an example. The objective of the study was to find out how effective the TOPS school management programme has been. Two schools were selected for the purpose of this study. One school was chosen for inclusion in this study on the basis of its participation in the TOPS programme. The second school had not participated in the TOPS programme but was included in this study for the purpose of comparison. The methodological approach adopted is that of evaluative research, with an emphasis on a summative evaluation.

In the remainder of the thesis I proceed to discuss the following:

The case study design in Chapter 2 The discussion in this case focuses on the case study design, the strengths and weaknesses of the case study research, methods of

data collection in case study research, methods of data analysis in case study research and the issue of validity and reliability in case study research.

Chapter 3 presents a review of literature related to the study. The discussion in this instance revolves around explanation of terms: school effectiveness, management and leadership. The school effectiveness movement, together with the school effectiveness knowledge base are also discussed.

Chapter 4 presents an explanation of the TOPS school management programme. The background of the TOPS management programme in South Africa is given. The discussion revolves around: The needs assessment that was conducted for the programme; the common responses from teachers, heads of departments and principals; the mission statement of the programme; aims and objectives of the programme; expectations of the initial training programme. A reflection is also made on the two evaluations that were conducted for the programme. Lastly, a look is made at the TOPS school management programme in the programme school.

Chapter 5 presents the data that was collected from the two schools. The reports are on the background of the management in the schools, the educational management experience, the organisation and development of management in the schools, the school environment, the school day, assembly, break and afternoon activities.

Chapter 6 is a discussion of the main findings. This chapter puts forward a discussion on the observed characteristics of an excellent school. In this chapter, the programme school is compared to the characteristics of an excellent school. The idea was to see which of the characteristics the programme school satisfies. Secondly, the expected outcomes of the TOPS programme were analysed. An attempt was made at finding out as to which of these expected outcomes are observable within the programme school. Lastly, an attempt was made to see which of these expected TOPS outcomes, observable within the programme school, could be responsible for the observed better performance / effectiveness of the programme school.

Chapter 7 is devoted to a discussion on the general conclusions of the study.

1.1 INTRODUCTION

In this chapter I discuss in detail the research design, the data collection method, the data collection and analysis, and the research findings of the study.

1.2 THE CASE STUDY DESIGN

According to Merriam (1998:90), a case study is "an inquiry or investigation which aims to gain an in-depth understanding of an individual or an issue in a natural environment for the purpose of studying the characteristics and characteristics of individuals or groups".

Yin (1994:16) distinguishes four types of case study: (a) *intrinsic*, (b) *instrumental*, (c) *collective*, and (d) *multiple*.

The two case study schools were selected in this study to represent the two study sites. As per by Merriam (1998:91), multiple case studies involve "analyzing data from several cases. Each case is a single case which is treated as a comprehensive case in and of itself. Data are collected to describe and show the contextual variables as possible. The might have a bearing on the qualitative individual and only aims to help understand the individual case. The aim is to build a general explanation that fits cases of the same kind, although the cases will vary in their details. The researcher knows in advance the outcome that is expected to be found and is interested in understanding how it is related by specific local contextual variables". Miles and Huberman (1984: 43) as cited by Merriam (1998:91) have said, "By developing this research, the researcher can make a range of generalizations or findings or explanations, and at the same time, provide the conditions under which that finding will occur".

CHAPTER 2.

2.1. INTRODUCTION.

In this chapter, I discuss in more detail what case study research is, the use of multiple methods in data collection and analysis, and issues of validity and reliability in case study research.

2.2. THE CASE STUDY DESIGN.

According to Leedy (1989:90), a case study is: "... a type of descriptive research in which data are gathered directly from individuals or social community groups in their natural environment for the purpose of studying the interactions, attitudes or characteristics of individuals or groups".

Yin (1994:38) distinguishes four types of case study designs. The types are (a) single case (Holistic); (b) single case (embedded); (c) multiple case (holistic) and (d) multiple case (embedded).

The fact that two schools are involved in this study suggests that this is a multiple case study. As put by Merriam (1991:153), multi-case studies involve: "... collecting and analysing data from several cases. Each case in a multi case study analysis is first treated as a comprehensive case in and of itself. Data are collected to learn as much about the contextual variables as possible that might have a bearing on the case. A qualitative inductive multi case study seeks to build abstractions across cases. One attempts to build a general explanation that fits each of the individual cases, even though the cases will vary in their details. The researcher attempts to see processes and outcomes that occur across many cases or sites and to understand how such processes are bent by specific local contextual variables". Miles and Huberman (1984:151) quoted by Merriam (1991:154) have said: "By comparing sites or cases, one can establish the range of generality of a finding or explanation, and at the same time, pin down the conditions under which that finding will occur".

2.3. ADVANTAGES OF CASE STUDIES.

There are several advantages associated with case studies. For example:

- Case studies provide a means of investigating units that may be very complex. The complexity may be brought by the fact that there may be so many variables that are very important that need to be understood if the unit is to be understood very well. Case studies offer an opportunity of looking in to these variables, and to see how these converge to give meaning and understanding to the unit that is studied.
- Again, case studies afford the researcher an opportunity to study a multiplicity of factors that have a bearing on a unit. In most cases, the factors / variables are studied thoroughly to see what effect these have on the unit or to understand the unit properly. What should be noticed is that such a multiplicity of variables would be studied with regard to a single case or a few cases. Such a study of a case or a few cases is the price paid for such a detailed study of variables. The advantage of the approach becomes evident when it is noticed that other methods of research would try to study a multiplicity of units, but with a limited number of variables related to the unit. In some instances, a shallow investigation of the variables may even take place with regard to the very unit /s that is / are to be studied.
- Case studies begin with the given environment and in many instances contribute to that environment. This is most evident in cases where formative evaluation is conducted. The purpose is to study the programme / phenomenon, present an understanding thereof, and to spot possible points of strength and weaknesses. Then corrective measures are presented to ensure the success of the programme if the role players adopt the corrective measures.
- Case studies, conducted within the realm of naturalistic research have a great advantage of being less rigid. They are very flexible. The researcher goes into the study with no pre-conditions. The researcher does not restrict or control the

behaviour of the subjects. The attempt is to study the setting in its natural form. In that manner, it may be possible to gain a full understanding of the subjects and the setting. The researcher would be posing questions here and there and making observations without disturbing the setting or the subjects. The approach is very flexible and iterative. Such an approach would possibly allow the subjects to talk and to act to an extent that shall reveal certain aspects of the study that the researcher might not have thought of; but which may be very influential and determinant in the setting.

- Case studies are often very descriptive. The attempt is often to present the report in a manner that will bring as much understanding to the reader as possible. The effect is that even if one were not in the setting, one would be able to follow and understand the report very well. Of course such an understanding comes at a price and the price is that the detailed explanations make the report very lengthy. Of course weighed against the positive gains of ensured understanding, the length of the report is not a big issue but in fact a gain.
- The findings of a research project have got to be as close to the truth as possible. In many instances, it is necessary to gather information on an aspect / unit from various sources, using different methods. By so doing, the validity of the findings is maximised. Case studies have this advantage of lending themselves to the use of different sources of data as well as the use of different methods of gathering data.
- Subjects within a setting may have common or divergent views or beliefs. Their understanding of truth may be different. Case studies take into account the views of the subjects. Thus case studies may be able to present these divergent views or common views of the subjects with regard to their understanding of the truth.
- The researcher as a person has his / her own personal view and experience. The problem is that such personal experience and view may lead to narrow-mindedness and an inability to understand reality. In conducting case studies, the researcher comes into contact with different persons and different world-views. While the

researcher should remain an individual, he / she would be compelled to understand the subject/s he / she is studying in the setting. Such a study and understanding would help the researcher not to have such a narrow way of thinking, but to be broad-minded in sociological thinking.

- While the researcher may have his / her own experiences in life, case studies may help him / her to gain more personal experience. The important thing is that the researcher does not need to go through each experience personally. He / she can gain such experience while studying the life of individuals or groups within the given settings. Such experiences would be picked up while going through documents that have a bearing on the life of the individual or the group. For example, while going through personal letters, diaries and notes or biographies, the researcher would gain more personal experience and knowledge. More than that, the researcher may gain more knowledge while probing the individuals who have gone through certain experiences in life. Experience gained in this manner may be very helpful to the researcher as he / she will be contemplating future research.

2.4. WEAKNESSES OF THE CASE STUDY RESEARCH DESIGN.

I agree with Best (1981:111) that while the case study is a useful method of organising research observations; there are certain precautions that should be considered:

- (a) The method may look deceptively simple. To use it effectively, the researcher must be thoroughly familiar with existing theoretical knowledge of the field of enquiry, and skilful in isolating the significant variables from many that are irrelevant. There is a tendency to select variables because of their spectacular nature, rather than for their crucial significance.
- (b) Effects may be wrongfully attributed to factors that are merely associated rather than cause-and-effect related. As Graziano and Raulin put it, case studies are by their nature *ex-post facto* approaches. Case studies lack controls over independent

variables and are unable to rule out possible effects of other variables. For this reason, we cannot have confidence in any causal inference we might be tempted to draw. Such inference must be treated as no more than speculative hypotheses for further research.

- (c) According to Yin (1994:42) problems arise when a global approach allows an investigator to avoid examining any specific phenomenon in operational detail.
- (d) The entire nature of the case study may shift unbeknown to the researcher, during the course of the study. The initial study question may have reflected one orientation, but as the case study proceeds; a different orientation may emerge, and the evidence begins to address different questions.
- (e) Yin (1994:41) argues that a potential vulnerability of the single case design is that a case may later turn out not to be what it was thought to be at the outset. Single case designs therefore require careful investigation of the potential cases to minimise the chances of misrepresentation and to maximise the access needed to collect the case study evidence.
- (f) The other problem of reliance on a single case study is how far it is possible to generalise the results of such research. Research, which relies on unstructured interviews within the qualitative tradition, may be slightly less vulnerable to the charge of limited generality since respondents are often drawn from a variety of social milieus. Bryman (1999:88) says that, "... investigations in which participant observation figures strongly, seem to be more liable to the charge of having looked at a single locale and therefore creating unknown generalities".
- (g) To obtain natural behaviour, the observer must be uninvolved. In case studies, it is difficult for observers to control their own reactivity, to control the many possible subtle influences they might have on the subject.

2.5. METHODS OF DATA COLLECTION IN CASE STUDY RESEARCH.

I have decided to use multiple sources of evidence in this study. This has some advantages:

The idea is to present the settings as they are and as they are understood by the subjects. It should be noted that the subjects have different views of the reality around them. They have different beliefs. More than that, the settings have different histories. It is through the multiple use of different sources of data that such divergent views or histories may be brought together to form a whole that is well understood. This would be the case provided there is observed corroboration in the accounts from different sources, with convergence of ideas.

The use of different sources of data also helps to reduce the threat to validity. This is the case, as multiple sources of evidence will present a way of measuring the same phenomenon from different perspectives. If there be agreement on the measures then the problem of threat to validity shall have been solved for this study

2.5.1. OBSERVATION.

According to Madge (1963:117), all modern science is rooted in observation and as every scientist knows, observations at first hand are most satisfactory. Direct personal knowledge is our only means of ensuring that our theories are grounded on empirical fact. As Best (1981:158) argues, direct observation may make an important contribution to descriptive research. Certain types of information can best be obtained through direct examination, by researchers. When the information concerns aspects of material objects or specimens, the process is relatively simple and it may consist of classifying, measuring or counting.

But when the process involves the study of a human subject in action, it is much more complex. Since human behaviour is complex and important traits and

characteristics are difficult if not impossible to observe directly; they must be defined in precise operational form. Perhaps interest in a subject can be operationally defined as the number of times a student volunteers to participate in discussions by raising his/her hand, within a time sample period. Lack of concentration during a study period can be operationally defined by the number of times the student looks around; talks to another student; fiddles with books, pen or paper, or engages in other disruptive acts within a time sample period. Systematic observation of human behaviour in natural settings is to some degree an intrusion into the dynamics of the situation. This intrusion may produce confounding effects that cannot be ignored. It is widely believed that individuals do not behave typically when they know they are being observed. The situation may become too artificial, too unnatural to provide for a valid series of observations. Direct observation always raises the question of subject reactivity, i.e. whether the subjects will alter their behaviour when they know they are being observed.

Stern (1979) has well described subject reactivity. Stern has shown that there are two main areas of subject reactivity i.e. "On stage" effects, also called artefacts of research, and more persistent changes caused by research. Stern (1979:65) says that "On stage" effects may manifest themselves in cases where (1), the subject tells the researcher what they think they "should" say. (2) Subjects of research usually try to make themselves look bad. This would / may happen in cases where the subjects' desire is to sabotage the study, or where the subjects think / feel something can be gained by looking bad. (3) Subjects try to please the researcher by doing what they think he / she wants them to do. It is believed that such behaviour by subjects is linked to cues that the subjects receive from the researcher. The subjects would do what they think the researcher wants. But it has also been noted that the subjects may also use the cues to sabotage the study or even to outwit the researcher. This attitude is reported to be prevalent among people who are coerced into research projects.

Stern (1979:66) has argued that there are two main conditions for the occurrence of "On stage" effects. These artefacts manifest themselves in cases where there is little purpose of the researcher's presence, other than to observe the subjects. This

becomes acute in cases where the subjects not only know they are being observed, but also know what it is about them that is being observed. The second condition for the occurrence of “on stage” effects is where the researcher holds higher status than the subjects do. In such cases, the subject’s desire to influence the impression he / she may increase. This problem is seen to be acute in cases where the researcher may have the capacity to control important events in the life of the subject. An example would be a case, in which a teacher studies a student,

Stern (1979:66) has suggested various methods of controlling for “on-stage” effects. These include unobtrusive measures, use of deception, demand characteristics control group and special controls for social desirability.

Unobtrusive measures involve ways of measuring subjects’ behaviour without their knowing it is being measured. Mason and Bramble (1989:298) have argued that one such unobtrusive measure is the use of videotapes or films that can be analysed later. We note that modern videotapes and recording equipment can be set up in a room and left. Those observed forget after some time that there is a camera in the room. Again, such a recording can provide a precise record of what actually occurred. Further more, it facilitates independent review by several observers so that impressions can be compared.

There are disadvantages that go along with videotaping. These are:

- The people being observed may act differently than they normally would if a camera were not present.
- Most of the videotape equipment commonly used for recording observational data, the camera and microphone cannot follow all the action for example in a given room.
- Often, the event that precipitated the behaviour that was observed was not recorded on the videotape because of the angle of the camera.
- There are problems with equipment compatibility between manufacturers and between models for a single manufacturer. Therefore, a researcher who plans to

use videotape equipment should be sure that all components of the system are compatible and operational.

The second unobtrusive measure that may be employed is the analysis of physical traces that people leave behind. Taylor and Bogdan (1984:117) have presented one such example. The example given is that of the observation of floor tiles at the Chicago's museum of science and industry. Observation was that those floor tiles around a hatching chick exhibit had to be replaced every six weeks. At the same time, tiles in other parts of the museum did not need such replacement for years. The selective erosion of the tiles, indexed by the replacement rate was seen as a measure of the relative popularity of the exhibits. As Marshall and Rossman (1989:101) have shown, one would have to be very careful because the use of unobtrusive measures in isolation may distort the picture. This is the case as the erosion of the tiles might have been affected by activities unknown to the researcher. For example, the tiles near the hatching chick exhibit may wear out because the exhibit was near / close to the candy machine, not because of the exhibit's popularity.

Krathwohl (1993:467) has shown that the third method to be employed may be to make the treatment or evaluation part of the regular activities of the subjects, so that there is no realisation that treatment or evaluation is being carried out. In the case of institutions, the regular personnel can be made to carry out the treatment and measurement as part of their normal routine, instead of having a special treatment administrator or evaluator. Again, treatment or evaluation materials should be distributed just like other material is normally distributed, with little fanfare; perhaps most of the effects will be mitigated, unless the materials themselves are too novel.

Deception involves the study 'demanding' not what it seems to. This is prevalent in cases where the subjects may want to conquer the purpose of the study. There are problems associated with deception as a control method. One evident problem is that its ethics are questionable. It has therefore been agreed that deception should be avoided wherever it is possible to get acceptable data by any other strategy. It has even been suggested that it would be better to give up certain research questions

rather than to use deception. There is also the problem of subjects being suspicious even when the research does not involve deception. In such cases, the subjects' expectation to be deceived may influence their behaviour.

The third method is "demand characteristic control group". In this method, the researcher would use a comparison group design. One group would get whatever demand characteristics as planned, while another group will get a different demand, intentionally produced. Krathwohl (1993:477) has suggested that the best a researcher can do is to consider the common rival explanations, try to anticipate all unique rival explanations imaginable, and then protect against the ones that seem most serious. This approach is occasioned by the fact that any study may have uncommon and sometimes alternative explanations. What the subjects perceive the study seems to demand of them may not be what the researcher intended. Determining the demand conditions of a study may be a very important aspect of ensuring that the findings can be interpreted as we hope. It would therefore be very important for the researcher to look at the demand characteristics of a study and to determine the alternative explanations, as well as to avoid the common rival explanations.

The fourth method of control is "special control for social desirability". This has to do with research where data is collected by means of interviews or questionnaire techniques. In such cases, it has been noted that carefully worded questions can be used. People / subjects may be asked to choose between alternatives that have been previously rated as equal in social desirability. Thus the questions would have to be worded in such a way that subjects' choice is based on the content of the questions rather than the social desirability of the answers.

As already said, the second major problem of naturalistic observation is "more persistent changes caused by research". This has to do with changes that obtain in people as a result of research being conducted, but with such changes persisting even when the subjects are "off - stage". Stern (1979:68) has identified four examples of persistent changes. These are (1) the Hawthorne effect, (2) the placebo effect, (3)

researcher expectancy / self-fulfilling prophecy, and (4) a personal relationship effect.

The Hawthorne effect can be seen to obtain in cases where for example, workers are shifted from one point to another, with their actual productivity increasing because they are being watched. Of course the production would level off once these people get used to the new environment. What is most important is that the workers' productivity would increase greatly if they were shifted to a new station, even when they are not being watched. It is the act of moving from one workstation to the next that informs the workers that they are being given some special treatment, hence improved productivity.

The second example given is that of the placebo effect. According to Stern (1979:68) this has been observed in cases where inert or physiologically ineffective "treatment" is given to subjects, with the subjects showing considerable change. If drugs were to be used as examples, one would have to differentiate between the effect of the drug from the effect of the fact that the drug is administered / prescribed by a competent medical practitioner.

The third example given is that of researcher expectancy. In this case, Stern (1979:68) has noted that the behaviour of the researcher towards subjects may greatly influence the responses of the subjects. This means that the subject will respond / behave as expected, thereby creating a self-fulfilling prophecy. It has been noted that there are subtle cues that may be indicative of what is expected of subjects. These cues would include things like the tone of voice in which instructions are given. One further example would be cases where subjects are expected to choose answers from given positive and negative answers. The researcher is more likely to get positive answers if positive answers are emphasised as the instructions / questions are read out to the subjects.

The fourth example given is that of personal relationship effects. In this case, the reaction of the subjects is highly influenced if not dictated by their emotional reaction

to the researcher as a person. This may be influenced in part by the time spent in mutual self-disclosures of personal material by the researcher and subjects.

Stern (1979:69) has suggested methods of controlling for the more persistent changes caused by research. These include blind measures, placebo control group, warm – up period and the canned researcher.

Blind measures may involve three techniques. The first technique would be to make sure that the researcher does not know what to expect of the subjects. In that case, it would not be possible for the researcher to communicate expectancy, thereby creating a self-fulfilling prophecy. The second technique involves making the subjects record their responses in the absence of the researcher. The third technique involves the researcher or team of researchers who make/s the personal contact not being told what to expect of the subjects.

The second method that can be employed is the placebo control group. The best example that can be used comes from the field of drugs. In this case, the researcher may have two groups. The first group may be given real “treatment”, while the second group may be given a placebo. The important thing would be that the “treatment” and the placebo be prepared in a similar manner. The “treatment” and the placebo would have to be similar in colour, shape, taste and size. The only difference would have to be in physiological effectiveness. While the “treatment” will be physiologically effective, the placebo will be physiologically ineffective / inert. The purpose of administering the “treatment” and the placebo to two different groups would be to isolate the physiological effect of the “treatment” from the effect of an expectation to be cured simply because the people were talked to by a doctor. This would make it possible to show that the actual “treatment” has been effective if it helped to cure the group it was administered to.

A researcher who chooses to use the placebo approach would have to be very careful. This would be the case as the use of the placebo involves deception. The involvement of deception means that the rights of the subjects are violated. It is for this reason that

Graziano and Raolin (1993:193) have shown that the use of the placebo has to do with ethics. A number of points would have to be considered when the placebo is used:

- It would be ethically very difficult to justify the denial of treatment to some of the subjects.
- The approach may only be used in cases where it is truly necessary for the conduct of the study.
- Subjects should be told they might receive a placebo treatment.
- The subjects will have to be told of the deception at the end of the study. They would have to be informed of the nature of the study. They would also have to be given an opportunity to ask questions about the procedure that was followed.

The third method to control for more persistent changes caused by researcher is the “warm-up” period. In this case, it is believed that it might be helpful for the researcher to spend some time with the subjects. This would help the researcher to get to know the subjects better before the study starts. It is believed that such a procedure would help in reducing the effect of subjects “acting” because of their awareness that they are being observed. A strong argument against the warm-up period technique is that it leads to the forming of very strong relations between the researcher and some of the subjects of the study. If that happens, then the results of the study shall not be reliable.

The fourth method that can be used is the “canned researcher”. In this case, it has been observed that the relationship between the researcher and the subjects may be the source of problems in a study. If that were the case, then it may be necessary to use the canned researcher method. This means the relations between the researcher and the subjects have got to be eliminated. Thus instructions to the subjects may be written and presented to the subjects. Otherwise, these instructions can also be pre-recorded on tape and be presented to the subjects. What is important in this case is that if the researcher does not meet the subjects personally, then it shall be impossible for him / her to communicate expectancy and cues to the subjects. Thus the problem

of self-fulfilling prophecies is eliminated.

2.5.2. PARTICIPANT OBSERVATION.

According to Labovitz and Hagedorn (1976:77) participant observers are involved in the social setting while recording events. This is usually referred to as participant observation. Not only does the researcher participate to some extent in his / her own study; but he/she also gathers data about the individuals in his/her sample or universe. There is a wide variation in the degree of participation of the observer. Minimum participation may lead the researcher to take a distant-observer role, trying not to get too close to the respondents or to influence them in a way. But as Labovitz and Hagedorn (1976:78) put it: "... whether minimally or extensively involved, in the setting, the researcher is always in danger of influencing the group by his presence or of being influenced by the group and losing his detachment and objectivity".

The main purpose of participant observation is exploratory. In societies, large-scale organisations or small groups where relatively little is known, this method is useful for exploring the structural and psychological make-up of groups and individuals, and for forming tentative hypothesis that may be formally tested with another technique. Employing systematic rather than random observations with formal rules stating how and what is to be observed and recorded may lead to reliable results. For example, checking the consistency of observations between two or more observers is a useful technique for establishing confidence in the data.

There are many advantages to using participant observation. We note the following:

- The observation takes place in a natural setting, so the only contrived aspect is the observer himself/herself.
- The observer is able to perceive the emotional reactions of his/her subjects, which may lead to fruitful hypothesis.
- By observing over an extended period of time, a great deal of information can be obtained.

- The observer is able to record the context, which gives meaning to the respondents' expression of opinions and values.
- If the observer can establish solid relations, he may be able to ask sensitive questions that would otherwise not be permissible.

There are several problems associated with participant observation. Amongst many, we note the following:

- The lack of reliability resulting from random observation by the researcher i.e. it is not likely that two separate observers will perceive and record the same events in the same way.
- The participant observer may sensitise subjects by his/her presence, thus altering their behaviour and consequently not getting the true picture.
- The actual role taken by the observer narrows his range of experience.
- The observer may become so involved in the group that he / she loses objectivity.
- Most observers must wait passively for occurrences. In fact it is possible that particular events in which they are most interested may not occur in the time span during which they are observing.

2.5.3. DOCUMENTS.

This study intends the analysis of various documents, such as the schools' records. This has been the case as documentary evidence provides an important first step in getting to know about the school. Hopkins (1993:140) has argued that: "...documents i.e. memos, letters, position papers, examination papers, newspapers, newspaper clippings etc. can illuminate rationale and purpose in interesting ways. More than that, the use of such material can provide background information and understanding of issues that would not otherwise be available".

Yin (1994:81) has pointed out that: "... for case studies, the most important use of documents is to corroborate and augment evidence from other sources. First, documents are helpful in verifying the correct spelling and titles or names of organisations that might

have been mentioned in an interview. Second, documents can provide other specific details to corroborate information from other sources. If the documentary evidence is contradictory, the case study investigator has a specific reason to inquire further into the topic. Thirdly, inferences can be made from documents. However, these inferences should only be treated as clues rather than as definite findings, because the inferences could later turn out to be false leads. We may distinguish between personal and official documents”.

Personal documents are any first person narratives that describe an individual’s actions, experiences and beliefs. Schumacher and McMillan (1993:34) have shown that: “...Personal documents include diaries, personal letters and anecdotal records”. Hopkins (1993:199) says: “...both diaries and memos will contain a rich source of subjective evidence and potential for verbatim quotations in the case study report”

The researcher usually discovers these documents, but sometimes an ethnographer will ask a participant to make anecdotal records such as a log; journal; notes on lesson plans or a parent's development record of their child available. But documents can also surface during an interview or participant observation.

Official documents are abundant in organisations and take many forms; memos, minutes of meetings, working papers and draft proposals are documents that provide an internal perspective of the organisation. These documents describe functions and values and how various people define the organisation. Internal documents can show the official chain of command and provide clues about leadership style and values. Schumacher and McMillan (1993:434) state that: “... institutions also keep individual records on each student and employee. Student and personnel files can become quite elaborate over time and many contain a variety of records and reports. A student’s file may contain records of testing, attendance, anecdotal comments from teachers, information from other agencies and a family profile. Ethnographers use a file not as much for what they tell about the student, but rather for what the file suggests about people who make the records. The files present different perspectives on a student”.

There are also documents that are used for external communication. These are products

used for public consumption: newsletters, programmes, brochures, school board reports, public statements and news release. These documents represent the official perspective on a topic or process.

Hopkins (1993:141) has highlighted the advantages of documents in educational research, they:

- Illuminate issues surrounding a curriculum or teaching method.
- Provide context, background and understanding.
- Provide an easy way of obtaining other people's perceptions.

The disadvantages of documents include the following:

- Obtaining documents can be time-consuming.
- Certain documents may be difficult to obtain.
- Certain people may be unwilling to share confidential documents.

There are several problems that one may encounter in the use of documents. These include the question of authenticity, credibility and representativeness.

As regards authenticity of documents, Macdonald and Tipton (1993:195) have shown that: "... it is always possible that records or factual accounts may have been falsified for the author's own purpose at the time, and the researcher has always to be suspicious of unexpected changes of paper, ink, type face, hand writing and so on, as well as checking consistency and plausibility, internally and externally. In order to test whether a document is genuine, complete, reliable and of unquestioned authorship; a set of questions for deciding on the authenticity of a document is proposed. These include: Does the document make sense or does it contain glaring errors? Are there different versions of the original document available? Is there consistency in literary style, handwriting or typeface? Has the document been transcribed by many copyists? Has the document been circulated via someone with a material or intellectual interest in passing off the version given as the correct one? Does the version available derive from a reliable source?"

On the other hand, credibility refers to the question of whether the document is free from error or distortion. MacDonald and Tipton (1993:196) argue that: "...the latter may occur when there is a long time between the event and the account of it being written-down, or when the account has been through several hands and the author of the document was not present at the event. Credibility can be affected by the interest of the author, which might for example, be financial, to enhance a reputation, or to please the readers. Such possibilities should always lead the social researcher to ask who produced the document; why; when; for whom and in what context, so as to be assured of the quality of the document".

The other problem is whether the document available can be said to constitute a representative sample of the universe as they originally existed. If the archive appears to contain all material produced in that category, then the problem does not exist. But once it is established that there is something missing, the question of what is missing, how much and why it is missing become important.

2.5.4. INTERVIEWS.

One of the most important sources of case study information is the interview. Most case studies are about human affairs and these human affairs should be reported and interpreted through the eyes of the specific interviewees; and well-informed respondents can provide important insights into a situation. Yin (1994:85) says that: "... respondents can also provide short cuts to the prior history of the situation, helping to identify other relevant sources of evidence". According to Hammersely and Atkinson (1993:131): "... the interview may allow one to generate information that would be difficult to obtain otherwise; both about events described and about perspectives and discursive strategies". As Van Dalen (1979:158) puts it: "... many people are more willing to communicate orally than in writing and therefore will provide more data readily and fully in an interview than on a questionnaire. Indeed several advantages accrue from the friendly interaction in an interview that cannot be obtained in a limited impersonal questionnaire contact. In a face meeting, an investigator is able to encourage subjects and help them

probe more deeply into a problem, particularly an emotionally laden one. Through respondents' incidental comments, facial and bodily expressions and tone of voice, an interviewer enquires information that would not be conveyed in written replies. These auditory and visual cues also help the interviewer to key the tempo and tone of the private conversation so as to elicit personal and confidential information and to gain knowledge about motivation, feelings, attitude and beliefs".

There are problems associated with interviews, for example:

- More time is required to conduct interviews. One may have to transcribe the interviews, discuss them with colleagues and even prepare for the forthcoming ones.
- More money may be required to conduct interviews.
- Personal features like age, gender, race, vocabulary, ethnic background may have an effect on the outcome of the interview.
- The setting in of fatigue on the part of the interviewer and interviewee may alter the results. Equally the lessening of fatigue on both parties may alter the results of the interview.
- The recording skills of the interviewer may have an effect on the results.
- The interviewer may unknowingly give certain cues to the interviewee. These would be cues like the change in voice, frowning, and eye movement. All these may send different messages to the interviewee, resulting in results of a particular kind.
- The opinions and attitudes of the interviewer may also affect the results. This also goes with expectations of the interviewer. These may greatly have an effect on the decision on what is to be recorded and what is not to be recorded. Furthermore, Schumacher and McMillan (1993:251) have shown that the interviewer may influence the results by asking a leading question to support a particular point of view.
- There is also the possibility of the interviewee becoming restless during the interview. This would affect the results very negatively.

The interview may take several forms. As shown by Yin (1994:84), most commonly, case study interviews are: "... of an open-ended nature, in which you can ask key

respondents for facts of a matter as well for the respondent's opinions about events. In some situations you may even ask the respondent to propose his or her own insight into certain occurrences and may use such propositions as the basis for further inquiry. The more that a respondent assists in this manner, the more the role may be considered one of an informant than a respondent. Key informants are often critical to the success of a case study. Such persons not only provide case study investigators with insight into a matter, but can suggest sources of corroboratory evidence and initiate access to such resources".

In unstructured interviews, which are flexible, a few restrictions are placed on respondents' answers. If planned questions are asked, the queries, vocabulary and order are altered to suit the situation and subjects. Yin (1994:159) argues that: "... sometimes subjects are encouraged to talk freely and fully concerning a particular issue, incident or relationship. In the formal, unstructured interview, one can gain insight into the character and intensity of a respondent's attitudes, feelings and beliefs, and can detect underlying motivations and unacknowledged attitudes. One can penetrate behind initial answers; follow-up unexpected clues or redirect the inquiry into more fruitful channels on the basis of emerging data. The answers given by the subjects under such conditions may help identify unanticipated variables and relations that relate to the area under investigation".

Structured interviews are sometimes used in case study research. These structured interviews are rigidly formal and in the words of Hammersely and Atkinson (1993:159): "... the same questions are presented in the same manner and order to each subject, and the choice of an alternative answer is restricted to a predetermined list. Even the same introduction and concluding remarks are used". According to Wragg (1994:272), the structured interviews are: "... based on a carefully worded schedule and frequently require short answers or a ticking of a category by the investigator. They are often like a written questionnaire in form, and indeed it is common for a sub-sample of people who have been given a questionnaire to be interviewed, partly to amplify and partly to check their written answers. The structured interview is useful when a large number of questions are to be asked, which are not particularly contentious or deeply thought provoking. Typical items in a structured interview schedule require "yes / no" answers;

some quantification of time such as “always, often, sometimes, rarely, never”. As Van Dalen (1979:158) has shown: “... the standard interview has certain limitations. Collecting quantified, comparable data from all subjects in a uniform manner introduces a rigidity into the investigative procedures, that may prevent the investigator from probing in sufficient depth”.

Another type is the partially structured or focussed interview. According to Yin (1994:84), respondents are: “... interviewed for a short period of time; an hour, for example. In such cases, the interview may still remain open-ended and assume a conversational manner, but one is more likely to be following a certain set of questions derived from the case study protocol. A major purpose of such an interview might be to corroborate certain established facts, but not to ask about other topics of a broader nature. In this situation, the specific questions must be carefully worded, so that the investigator appears genuinely naïve about the topic and allow the respondent to provide a fresh commentary about it. If the investigator asks leading questions, the corroboratory purpose of the interview will not even be served. Even so, the investigator needs to exercise caution when interviewees appear to be echoing the same thought, corroborating each other but in a conspirational way”.

Dane (1990:129) says that: “... focused interviews are typically used when respondents consist of a specific group chosen for their familiarity with the research topic. This means that it is important that the interviewer is somewhat familiar with the topic; otherwise the interviewer will be at a loss when the time comes to generate follow-up questions. The primary emphasis of a focused interview is on gaining information about the subjective perceptions of respondents”.

The major advantage of a focused interview is its flexibility, but that is also its major disadvantage. The flexibility enables the interviewer to explain more fully the opinions and behaviours of respondents; thus the total collection of responses should contain more and varied detail than would the data from a structured interview. On the other hand, because not every respondent will be asked exactly the same questions, it is more difficult to interpret differences obtained when responses are compared. Thus because

some questions, and therefore some responses will be unique to a given respondent, comparisons across respondents are best limited to the predetermined questions to which everyone responds. The entire set of responses from each participant however, may be subject to a content analysis in order to determine the main themes underlying the responses. Comparisons may then be made across respondents on the basis of themes, rather than on the exact responses. When the wording of responses cannot be compared, the issues addressed by the responses may be comparable.

2.6. VALIDITY IN CASE STUDY RESEARCH.

Simon (1978:21) indicates that every piece of research aims to answer a specific question. It is reasonable to ask just how good an answer the research provides. Validity is the overall concept used to refer to how good an answer the study yields. If the answer is likely to be sound, the research is valid. This concept of validity may be applied to the investigation as a whole or it may be applied to one or other aspect of the study.

2.6.1. CONSTRUCT VALIDITY IN CASE STUDY RESEARCH.

One dimension of validity is construct validity. As stated by Baker (1988:121), construct validity is based on forming of a hypothesis about the concepts that are being measured, and then testing these hypotheses and correlating these results with the initial measure. People who have been critical of case studies often point to the fact that a case study investigation fails to develop a sufficiently operational set of measures, and that subjective judgements are used to collect the data. According to Yin (1994:34), there are two steps that an investigator should be sure to cover to meet the test of construct validity. First, to select the specific types of changes that are to be studied in relation to the original objective of the study, and secondly, to demonstrate that the selected measures of these changes do indeed reflect the specific type of changes that have been selected. Three tactics are available to increase construct validity in case study research. The first is the use of multiple sources, in a manner encouraging converging lines of

inquiry, and this tactic is relevant during data collection. A second tactic is to establish a chain of evidence, also relevant during data collection. The third tactic is to have the draft case study report reviewed by informants.

2.6.2. INTERNAL VALIDITY IN CASE STUDY RESEARCH.

Internal validity is a concern in causal or explanatory studies, where an investigator is trying to determine whether event “X” led to event “Y”. If an investigator incorrectly concludes that there is a causal relationship between “X” and “Y”, without knowing that some third factor – “Z” – may actually have caused “Y”, the research design has failed to deal with some threat to internal validity. As Yin (1994:145) notes, this logic is not applicable to descriptive or exploratory studies, which are not concerned with making causal statements.

Second, concern over internal validity for case study research may be extended to the broader problem of making inferences. Basically, a case study involves an inference each time an event cannot be directly observed. Thus an investigator will infer that a particular event resulted from some earlier occurrence, based on interviews and documentary evidence collected as part of the case study. In this case, the research design would have to anticipate following questions: Is the inference correct? Have all rival explanations and possibilities been considered? Is the evidence convergent? Does it appear to be airtight? A research design that has anticipated these questions has begun to deal with the overall problem of inferences and therefore the specific problem of internal validity.

2.6.3. EXTERNAL VALIDITY IN CASE STUDY RESEARCH.

This deals with the problem of knowing whether a study’s findings are generalisable beyond the immediate case study. The external validity problem has been a major barrier in doing case studies. Critics typically state that single cases offer a poor basis for generalising. Yin (1994:145) has shown that such critics are implicitly contrasting the situation to survey research, where a sample, if selected correctly, readily generalises to a larger universe. This analogy to samples and universes is incorrect when dealing with

case studies. This is because survey research relies on statistical generalisation, whereas case studies only rely on analytical generalisation. In analytical generalisation, the investigator is striving to generalise a particular set of results to some broader theory. However, the generalisation is not automatic. A theory must be tested through replication of findings in a second or even a third “neighbourhood”, where the theory has specified that the same results should occur. Once such replication has been made the results might be accepted for a much larger number of similar neighbourhoods, even though further replications have not been performed. Thus, the ability to conduct six or ten case studies arranged effectively within a multiple-case design is analogous to the ability to conduct six to ten experiments on related topics. A few cases, i.e. two or more cases would be literal replications, whereas a few other cases, i.e. four to six would be designed to pursue two different patterns of theoretical replications. If all cases turn out as predicted, these six to ten cases in the aggregate would have provided compelling support for initial propositions. If the cases are in some way contradictory the initial propositions must be revised and re-tested with another set of cases.

Yin (1994:150) has argued that an important step in these replication procedures is the development of a rich theoretical framework. The framework needs to state the conditions under which a particular phenomenon is likely to be found (a literal replication), as well as the conditions when it is likely not to be found (a theoretical replication). The theoretical framework later becomes the vehicle for generalising to new cases.

The replication logic, whether applied to experiments or case studies, must be distinguished from the sampling logic, commonly used in surveys. A number of respondents in the sampling logic are assumed to represent a larger pool of respondents (or subjects) so that the data from a smaller number of persons are assumed to represent the data that might be collected from the entire pool. The sampling logic demands an operational enumeration of the entire universe, or pool of potential respondents, and then a statistical procedure for selecting the specific respondents to be surveyed. The logic is applicable whenever an investigator is interested in determining the prevalence or frequency of a particular phenomenon, and when it is too expensive or impractical to

survey the entire universe or pool. The resulting data from the sample that is actually surveyed are assumed to reflect the entire universe or pool, with inferential statistics used to establish the confidence intervals for which this representation is actually accurate.

According to Yin (1994:151), any application of this sampling logic to case studies would be misplaced. First, case studies are not generally used to assess the incidence of phenomena. Second, a case study would have to cover both the phenomenon of interest and its context, yielding a large number of potentially relevant variables. In turn, this would require an impossibly large number of cases – too large to allow any statistical consideration of the relevant variables.

We also note that each individual case study in the replication approach consists of a “whole” study, in which convergent evidence is sought regarding the facts and conclusions for the case; each case’s conclusions are then considered to be the information needing replication by other individual cases. Both the individual cases and multiple case results can and should be the focus of a summary report. For each individual case, the report should indicate how and why a particular proposition was demonstrated or not demonstrated. Across cases, the report should indicate the extent of the replication logic and why certain cases were predicted to have certain results whereas other cases were predicted to have contrary results.

2.7. RELIABILITY IN CASE STUDIES.

Reliability, as explained by Schumacher and McMillan (1993:385), is “... the extent to which independent researchers could discover the same phenomena and to which there is agreement on the description of the phenomena between the researcher and the participants”. As put by Yin (1994:145), the goal of reliability is: “... to minimise the errors and bias in a study. The objective is to be sure that if a later investigator followed exactly the same procedure as described by an earlier investigator, and conducted the same case study all over again, the later investigator should arrive at the same findings and conclusions”.

To increase the reliability of the information in the case study, a chain of evidence should be maintained. Yin (1994:98) says that: "... the principle is to allow an external observer – the reader of the case study, for example – to follow the derivation of any evidence from the initial research question to the ultimate case study conclusions. Moreover, this external observer should be able to trace the steps in either direction, i.e. from conclusion back to initial research questions, or from questions to conclusions. The process should be tight enough that evidence presented in a case study report is assuredly the same evidence that was collected during the data collection process. Conversely, no original evidence should have been lost through carelessness or bias and therefore fail to receive appropriate attention in considering the facts of the case".

As suggested by Yin (1994:34), the manner in which the report is written also has an effect on the reliability of the case study. To increase the reliability of the study, the report would have to meet the following conditions:

- To be based on the database, citing specific documents, interviews and observations.
- The database must reveal the actual evidence and also indicate the circumstances under which the evidence was collected. It may be shown as to when the interview was conducted, and how many people were involved. Where did the interview take place?
- It would have to be shown that the collection of data followed the procedure stipulated in the protocol.
- The content of the protocol used to collect information must be clearly related to the study question. Simply put, it should not be addressing something different from the intentions of the study

2.8. METHODS OF DATA ANALYSIS IN CASE STUDY RESEARCH.

2.8.1. STRATEGIES FOR ANALYSING INTERVIEWS.

The first decision to be made in analysing interviews is whether to begin with case analysis or cross case analysis. Beginning with case analysis means writing a case study for each person interviewed or each unit studied. Beginning with cross-case analysis means grouping together answers from different people to common questions or analysing different perspectives on central issues. Patton (1990:376) says that: "... it is fairly easy to do cross-case analysis for each question in the interview if a standardised open-ended interview is used. With an interview guide approach, answers from different people can be grouped by topics from the guide, but the relevant data won't be found in the same place in each interview. The interview guide actually constitutes a descriptive analytic framework for analysis. It would be appropriate to begin with individual case studies where variations in individuals are the primary focus of the study. This strategy requires writing case analysis using all the data for each individual person before doing cross-case analysis. On the other hand, if the focus is on a programme, the analysis might begin with a description of variations in answer to common questions".

2.8.2. STRATEGIES FOR ANALYSING OBSERVATIONS.

Initial analysis of observed data is greatly facilitated by clarity about how it will be most helpful to present the findings. Options suggested by Patton (1990:377), include the following:

- Chronologies – describing what was observed chronologically over time, to tell the story from beginning to the end.
- Key events – presenting the data by critical events, not necessarily in order of occurrence, but in order of importance.
- Various settings – describing various places, sites, settings or locations before doing

cross-setting pattern analysis.

- People - if individuals or groups are the primary units of analysis, then case studies of people or groups may be the focus of the case studies.
- Process – the data may be organised to describe important processes, e.g. control, recruitment, decision-making, socialisation or communication.
- Issues – the observation may be pulled together to illuminate key issues, often the equivalent of the primary evaluation questions such as: “how did participants change?”

2.8.3. PATTERN MATCHING.

For case study analysis, one of the most desirable strategies is to use a pattern matching logic. Yin (1994:106) shows that such logic compares an empirically based pattern with a predicted one, or several alternative predictions. If the case study is an exploratory one, the pattern may be related to the dependent or the independent variables of the study or both. If the case study is a descriptive one, pattern matching is still relevant, as long as the predicted pattern of specific variables is defined prior to data collection.

There are in fact two main ways of looking at pattern matching. The first one is the non-equivalent dependent variables as a pattern, and the second is rival explanations as a pattern. The dependent variables design may be derived from one of the more potent quasi-experimental research designs. In this design, an experiment or quasi-experiment may have multiple dependent variables, that is, a variety of outcomes. If for each outcome, the initial predicted values are found, and at the same time alternative patterns of predicted values have not been found, strong causal inferences can be made.

In the rival explanation pattern, the focus is on independent variables. In such a situation, several cases may be known to have had a certain type of outcome, and the investigation has focussed on how this outcome occurred in each case. Yin (1994:108) maintains that: “... this analysis requires the development of rival theoretical propositions, articulated in operational terms. The important characteristic of these rival explanations is that each involves a pattern of independent variables that is mutually exclusive. If one explanation

is valid, the others cannot be. This means that the presence of certain independent variables precludes the presence of other independent variables. The independent variables may involve several or many different types of characteristics or events; each assessed with different measures and instruments. The concern of the case study analysis however, is with the overall pattern of results and the degree to which a pattern matches the predicted one. With a single case, the successful matching of the pattern to one of the rival explanations would be evidence for concluding that this explanation was the correct one and that the other explanations were incorrect. Again, even with a single case, threats to validity – basically constituting another group of rival explanations – should be ruled out”.

2.8.4. EXPLANATION BUILDING.

In explanation building, the goal is to analyse the data by building an explanation about the case. According to Yin (1994:110), to explain a phenomenon is to stipulate a set of causal links about it. These causal links are similar to the independent variables. One important characteristic of explanation building is that the final explanation is a result of a series of interactions. I.e.,

- Making an initial theoretical statement or an initial proposition about policy or social behaviour.
- Comparing the findings of an initial case against such a statement or proposition.
- Revising the statement or proposition.
- Comparing other details of the case against the revision.
- Again revising the statement or proposition.
- Comparing the revision to the facts of a second, third or more cases.
- Repeating this process as many times as is needed.

What this means is that the case study evidence is examined, theoretical positions are revised, and the evidence is examined again from a new perspective in this iterative mode. The gradual building of an explanation is similar to the process of refining a set of ideas, in which an important aspect is again to entertain other plausible or rival explanations.

The objective is to show how these explanations cannot be built, given the actual set of case study evidence.

2.8.5. TIME SERIES ANALYSIS.

This is analogous to the time-series analysis conducted in quasi-experiments. Yin (1994:113) has shown that in the simple time-series, there may only be a single dependent or independent variable. But the pattern can be more complicated in cases where the multiple changes in the single variable over time may have no clear starting or ending points. The ability to trace changes over time is a major strength of case studies, which are limited to cross-sectional or static assessments of a particular situation. If the events over time have been traced in detail and with precision, some type of time-series analysis may always be possible.

The essential logic underlying a time series design is the match between a trend of data, compared with a theoretically significant trend specified before the onset of the investigation, versus some rival trend, also specified earlier, versus any trend based on some artefact or threat to internal validity.

2.8.6. CHRONOLOGIES.

The analysis of chronological events is a frequent technique in case studies, and may be considered a special form of time-series analysis. The arranging of events into chronologies permits the investigator to determine causal events over time, because the basic sequence of a cause and its effect cannot be temporally inverted. The analytic goal is to compare the chronology with that predicted by some explanatory theory. If the actual events of a case study as carefully documented and determined by an investigator have followed one predicted sequence of events, and not those of a compelling rival sequence, the single case study can again become the initial basis for causal inference.

2.9. THE REPORT.

The hallmark of most qualitative research is the narrative presentation of data and the lack of statistical tables. But as Schumacher and McMillan (1993:506) have shown, some studies present quantitative data, but that quantitative data is primarily used to support or confirm an interpretation based on the qualitative data. Data are presented as quotations of participants' language; citing field notes and interview transcripts as sources. The actual statements of the people observed and interviewed present their construction of their world; the meanings they give to social situations and events.

As Patton (1990:426) has argued: "... the reader does not have to know absolutely everything that was done or said – yet the description must not be so "thin" as to remove context and meaning. Qualitative analysis presents a "thick description". This thick description sets up and makes possible interpretation. It contains the necessary ingredients for thick interpretation. A thick description does more than record what a person is doing. It goes beyond mere fact and surface appearance. It presents detail, context, emotion and the webs of social relationships that join persons to one another. It establishes the significance of an experience or the sequence of events, for the person or persons in question. In thick descriptions the voices, feelings, actions and meanings of interacting individuals are heard. The researcher's task is to arrange these views in a logical manner, making participants' meanings unmistakable to the reader". As put by Yin (1994:150): "... the critical pieces of evidence for a case study must still be contained within the case study report. The evidence should be presented neutrally, with both supporting and challenging data. The reader should then be able to conclude, independently, whether a particular interpretation is valid. One valuable approach is the consideration of rival propositions and the analysis of the evidence in terms of such rivals. A case study that fails to account for different perspectives may raise a critical reader's suspicions. To present different perspectives adequately, an investigator must seek those alternatives that most seriously challenge the design of the case study. These perspectives may be found in alternative cultural views, different theories, variations among the people or decision makers who are part of the case study".

2.10. CONCLUSION.

Discussions in this chapter have revolved around an attempt at describing the case study design. Points that came to the fore are the following:

- A case study is a type of research in which data are gathered directly from individuals or social communities in their natural environment for the purpose of studying the interactions, attitudes or characteristics of individuals or groups.
- There are four types of the case study design. These are (a) single case, (b) single case embedded, (c) multiple case holistic and (d) multiple case embedded.
- This study is based on the multiple case design as two sites are used, one site being the programme school, and the second case being the comparison school.
- The study has used several methods of data collection. These included: observation, participant observation, documents and interviews. Such use of multiple sources of information has helped in addressing the problem of construct validity, as the multiple sources of evidence provided measures of the same phenomenon.
- Methods of data analysis in case study research include pattern matching, explanation building, time-series analysis and chronologies.

Issues of validity and reliability were also discussed. Validity is the overall concept used to refer to how good an answer the study yields. This contains three sub-concepts: (a) construct validity, (b) internal validity and (c) external validity. Construct validity is based on the forming of hypotheses about concepts that are being measured, and then testing these hypotheses and correlating these results with the initial measure. On the other hand, internal validity is a concern for causal or explanatory studies, where an investigator is trying to determine whether event "X" led to event: "Y". External validity deals with the problem of knowing whether a study's findings are generalisable beyond the immediate case study. Reliability is the extent to which independent researchers could discover the

same phenomena between researcher and the participants.

The advantages and disadvantages of the case study design were also discussed. It became clear that if the disadvantages are well handled and recognised, they should not pose a big threat to the success of the study.

The chapter that follows will be a presentation of a review of literature related to school effectiveness.

CHAPTER 3.

LITERATURE REVIEW

3.1. INTRODUCTION.

In this chapter, I shall be presenting a review of literature related to the topic of this study. There are several reasons that make such a review necessary. Such a review may be helpful in defining and limiting the problem, placing the study in a historical perspective, avoiding unintentional and unnecessary replication, selecting promising methods and measures, as well as in relating the findings to previous knowledge and to suggest further research. The issues discussed in this chapter include the following: An explanation of the term “school effectiveness” management and leadership, the school effectiveness movement and the school effectiveness knowledge base.

3.2. SCHOOL EFFECTIVENESS.

“Effectiveness” has always been an elusive term; and it must be clarified before we can understand the significance of what is meant by effective schools. According to Barnard, quoted by Beare et al (1991: 11) “an action is effective if it accomplishes its specific objective aim”. To effect means to bring about to accomplish; thus to be effective an action or an institution or an individual must bring something about, must accomplish. The term implies that the action is deliberate. You are effective if you set yourself a target and then hit it. Definition of a target is a prior requirement before it is possible to be effective. As Beare et al (1991:13) put it, if educators want recognition, effective and excellent schools, they must define more precisely what their objectives are, with concurrence at least among their parent population for those objectives, teach to the objectives and then regularly apply indicators or measures which quite clearly demonstrate whether progress is being made towards those objectives. You cannot have an “effective school” unless it has specific aims and unless progress is monitored.

According to Potter and Powell (1992:5) effectiveness means that the school satisfies external criteria such as the demands of parents and student; and does well against comparable institutions in key areas of performance such as examination results.

Cuttance (1992:72) points out that the attainment of pupils in public examinations provides a prominent measure of both pupil and school academic success. Examination outcomes are subsequently used in the selection and channelling of pupils in post-school educational and occupational careers, which means that they have real effects on the lives of pupils once they have left school.

Beare et al (1991:13) argue that being effective as a school does not mean seeking more resources; it assumes achieving better outcomes with the resources you already have. Being effective assumes a re-concentration of what is basic to schooling; it means getting rid of the frills and homing in on what is the school's essential task-teaching children and improving scholastic performance. Being effective often means literally improving student performances in reading and mathematics.

There is a distinct difference between "effectiveness" and "efficiency". Both involve accomplishment, but the word "efficient" also implies productivity, accomplishing an end without waste of effort or resources. It implies getting value for money. Thus Beare et al (1991:12) point out that a school can be effective but also inefficient i.e. it achieves its objectives but at too great a cost. A school can be efficient i.e. sparing in its resources, but not necessarily effective i.e. good at achieving results. A school that is efficient and effective may not necessarily be excellent in the sense of being the best among its peers. But most important of all, a school cannot be either effective or efficient unless it has objectives; targets to achievement. So there needs to be at least some outcome measures which can be used to separate effective schools from the mediocre or ineffective ones.

3.3. THE SCHOOL EFFECTIVENESS MOVEMENT.

According to Reynolds (1992:1), research in school effectiveness and school improvement began to emerge in Britain in the 1980s. But school effectiveness and school improvement have been large and established disciplines from the 1970s onwards in the United States. While school effectiveness research has begun to gain momentum later in Britain than in some countries, the 1980s have seen the growth of a substantial knowledge in the field.

The 1970s produced some significant studies aimed at showing that the schools do make a difference to pupil achievement and at pinpointing what characteristics were common to those schools that were shown to be effective. Michael Rutter and a team from the University of London conducted one of the most important of these studies in twelve inner London schools over an eight-year period. The Rutter study was unusual in that it was longitudinal over eight years from 1970 onwards; dealt with secondary rather than primary schools and subjected its data to careful statistical and objective analysis. It concentrated on changes – increments – in pupil achievement to demonstrate the school's quality. The school effects, which the team looked for, were delinquent students at the school's results in public examinations. The team found that some characteristics – like age of the school buildings – had no effect on the outcome measure. The following seemed to characterise the good schools:

- Their lessons were work oriented with time focussed on subject matter rather than on behaviour or administration.
- Teachers worked and planned together, and there was strong supervision and co-ordination by their senior teachers.
- Formal rewards systems, public commendations and immediate feed back to students on good performance existed in good schools.
- Students were expected to take responsibility for day-to-day matters in the school – like looking after their own books and facilities.
- Homework was set and followed – up. The good school openly emphasised academic performance and students were expected to work hard and to succeed.
- The good school had a good atmosphere and ethos.

Another study was conducted by George Weber in 1971. This was principally concerned with how well the inner city children could be taught to read; effectiveness was therefore measured by a reading achievement test. The study concerned four city schools i.e. two in New York, one in Kansas City and one in Los Angeles. The common factors he observed in the four schools making up his case studies were: strong leadership, high teacher expectations of the students, an orderly purposeful school climate and strong stress on reading.

In 1978, Gilbert Austin conducted a study in Maryland and he identified eighteen high achieving and low achieving schools, which he found to be “out-liers” from the state’s accountability data. The factors which accounted for differences among schools were: strong principals who participated in instructional programmes, high expectations held by those principals themselves together with the teachers and students; and a school programme which emphasised intellectual rather than affective goals.

Brookover and Lezotte conducted a study in 1979, in six improving primary schools and two declining schools in Michigan, using a case study method which allowed the researcher to conclude that the improving schools were likely to have principals who were curriculum leaders, who assert themselves in that role, who maintained tough discipline and who assumed responsibility for evaluating pupil achievements.

The well-known Phi Delta Kappa study was conducted in 1980. The study included case studies of eight exceptional primary schools as well as material from 59 other cases, and about 40 research or evaluation studies. It also used 11 experts. The study claimed that effective leaders were those who set goals and performance standards, and maintained a good working environment. They were “enablers”, giving teachers room to get on with their teaching and marshalling political, parental and financial support for their schools.

Ronald Edmond conducted a study in 1979. As senior assistant for instruction in the New York City public schools he developed one of the first formal school improvement projects in the U.S.A. His research on effective schools began in 1974 with case studies,

which were academically effective with the full range of their pupil population, including poor, and minority children. Edmond's belief that pupil performance depends more on the character of the school than on the nature of the pupil's family captured the imagination of educators. He did not deny the significance of family background in the adaptation of children, but he gave greater weight to the school's response to family background of children as the determining factor in pupil performance. Edmonds argued that there were five characteristics, which seem to be most tangible and indispensable in the effective school which has been the subject of detailed research. He described those features as follows:

- They have a strong administrative leadership.
- They have a climate of expectation in which no children are permitted to fall below minimum but effective levels of achievement.
- The school's atmosphere is orderly without being rigid, quiet without being oppressive and generally conducive to the instructional business at hand.
- The school has a pervasive and broadly understood instructional focus, and he comments that the school is prepared to divert its energy and resource away from other areas in order to further that instructional objective. Pupils' acquisition of basic school skills takes precedence over all other school activities.
- Effective schools ensure that pupil progress can be frequently monitored. They have the means whereby the principal and teachers remain constantly aware of pupil progress in relation to instructional objectives.

Although that growth in knowledge has produced as many unanswered questions as questions answered, there is a sense of genuine progression in the body of knowledge and in the methodological sophistication of the work over time.

According to Reynolds and Packer (1992:176) the 1990s would provide an even more difficult agenda for school effectiveness researchers and practitioners than that caused by attempting to unravel the unresolved problems of the 1980s research base. This is so because of two factors:

One, the range of outcomes expected from schools is likely to be significantly enlarged by the addition of various competencies perceived as needed by the world of work (such as ability to access information or social outcomes like ability to work as part of a team and by the addition of further competencies required by an increasingly information-oriented society such as knowing how to learn, how to find out etc). If the future society needs “active” individuals who have acquired learning-to-learn skills; an ability to work co-operatively and a more active learner directed mode of operation, then new instructional methods will be required; which turn passive learning into active learning; which entail putting more responsibility upon the students and which entail putting the teacher constantly in the role of helping students learn how to learn. With the need for new outcomes, will come a need to reassess the usefulness of the organisation processes on which we have concentrated our past efforts at describing and analysing, and we will have to move on to attempt the most difficult task of all: that of describing which classroom and school processes may actually be effective in generating the ability to learn as well as the ability to think.

The second factor making for disciplinary difficulty is that our research agenda will be further complicated by the changed nature of leadership and management tasks required by teachers and particularly of senior teachers in their schools. These changes are produced by the effects upon management style of the ways in which the schools increasingly have to compete against each other in forms of educational “markets”. The move from having a situation of one “producer” of education, in the form of a district, state or local education authority having influences over all schools, to a situation of multiple producers of the goods of “education” is ultimately bound to result in increased competition between the producers all of whom will be chasing the client (the pupil) or more likely the client’s parents.


The result of this process of market competition between schools is to change vastly. New managerial skills, which will be needed, are:

- a. Heightened public relations or marketing orientation and ability to “sell” the product.
- b. The capacity to relate to parents.

- c. The capacity to find sources of support in local communities.
- d. The capacity to manage rapid change, not to manage steady state.
- e. The capacity to motivate staff in times when instrumental rewards like promotion or advancement are scarce and rare.
- f. The capacity to relate to pupils, since the wave of future consumerism will increasingly involve consumer opinion surveys with pupils.

3.4. CHARACTERISTICS OF EFFECTIVE SCHOOLS.

According to Potter and Powell (1992:11) there are certain common factors that are characteristic of the “good school”, that is to say, the school that achieves academic success for its students once home background and ability factors have been taken into account. The common factors are:

- Aims and objectives.
 - Communication.
 - Discipline.
 - State of repair.
 - Effective use of time.
 - Feedback on pupils’ performance.
 - The curriculum.
 - Strong leadership.
- 

A discussion of these factors follows:

3.4.1. SHARED AIMS AND OBJECTIVES.

The school has a set of commonly held aims, which are understood by teachers and students. These collective values are founded upon the belief that all individuals are worthy of respect and have a contribution to make to the school.

As stated by Tikunoff (1979:170) instruction in classrooms is typically organised around a carefully organised set of goals and objectives within a content area and/or across content areas. These are usually predetermined by the teacher and may or may not be related to overall curriculum goals of a school district. However, students also have goals, which may or may not be consonant with those of the teacher. Attention both to teacher and student goals and expectations is necessary in order to establish the construct validity of what is to be learned. Teachers who nurture an atmosphere in which meaning can be negotiated between these two, often-diverse, sets of goals illustrate an understanding of the two sub-systems of goal setting, operating in a classroom. According to Tikunoff (1979:169) consonance between the two sub-systems of goals is reflected in a classroom in which students and teacher share a common, convivial spirit and co-operate with each other. Students are engaged, working and playing with purpose and are therefore not defiant of adults. Teachers encourage students to assume increasing responsibility for their behaviour and for working at instructional tasks.

According to Goodman and Pennings (1982:320) effectiveness is not a single attribute; hence a one-dimensional definition is not adequate. Rather a school or any organisation can be both effective and ineffective, depending on the criteria used; which may be independent of one another. Without a theoretical model as a guide it is impossible to state that one school is more effective than another, or to say that a given indicator is a measure of effectiveness, or to plan ways to change the school. The goal model provides a basis for making these judgements and for taking action necessary to work towards school effectiveness. Traditionally, organisational effectiveness has been defined in terms of the degree of goal attainment. An organisation is effective if the observable outcomes of its activities meet or exceed organisational goals. There are three common types of organisational goals i.e. official goal, operative goals and operational goals.

Official goals are formal statements of purpose by the board of education concerning the nature of the school mission. These statements usually appear in board of education publications and faculty and staff handbooks. Typically official goals can be characterised as abstract and aspirational in nature. They are usually timeless and serve the purpose of securing support and legitimacy from the public rather than guiding

administrators and teacher behaviour. According to Goodman and Pennings (1982:321) operative goals reflect the true intentions of a school organisation. The operative goals mirror the actual tasks and activities performed in the school, irrespective of what it claims to be doing. Hence official goals in schools may be operative or inoperative, depending on the extent to which they accurately represent actual educational practices.

Operational goals carry with them approved criteria and evaluation procedures that clearly delineate how the level of accomplishment will be measured. For a school, the administration can specify in a reasonably precise fashion, what the operational goals are and how their attainment will be measured. A contemporary illustration is; “75 per cent of the students will pass the state’s competency based examination in language and arts”.

Two assumptions underlie the goal model. First, a rational group of decision-makers in the organisation have in mind a set of goals that they wish to pursue. Second, the goals are few in numbers to be administered and are defined concretely enough to be understood by participants. If the assumptions are accepted, it follows that the decision-makers should be able to assess organisational effectiveness and to develop measures to determine how well the goals are being achieved.

Goodman and Pennings (1982:322) point out, that amongst criticisms of using goals to assess organisational effectiveness are the following:

- a. Too often the focus is on the administrators’ goals rather than those set by teachers, students and the school patrons. Researchers tend to ask only administrators the content of school goals rather than other constituencies. They fail to account for the diverse expectations that are expressed in the operative goal of a school.
- b. In many instances, researchers overlook the multiplicity of goals and their contradictory nature. The goal model tends to be logical and internally consistent but in reality a school’s goals are often in conflict.
- c. Organisational goals are dynamic while the goal model is static. Goals change as

contextual factors and behaviour vary but the model remains the same.

- d. Organisational goals are retrospective. They serve to justify schools and educator action, not to direct it.
- e. The official goals of organisations may not be it's operative goals. Since the analysis of actual operations is complex and difficult, a researcher may be unable to identify accurately the operative goals and therefore may have to rely on personal judgements about what ends are implied by the operational practices. As a result, official goals may be given greater emphasis than the important operative goals.

Hall (1991:377) has shown that given these strong criticisms, scholars have argued that the goal model of organisational effectiveness is inadequate. Instead, he proposes a systems resource model.

The systems resource model defines effectiveness as the organisation's ability to secure an advantageous bargaining position in its environment and to capitalise on that position to acquire scarce and valued resources. The concept of bargaining position implies the exclusion of specific goals as the ultimate effectiveness criteria. Rather, the systems resource model directs attention towards a more general capacity of the organisation to procure resources. Consequently, this definition of effectiveness emphasises the continuous, never-ending process of exchange of and competition over scarce resources and valued resources. Educational organisations compete in an environment of state politics with transportation, social welfare, correctional and other agencies and organisations to acquire the valued commodity of state aid. When public school enrolments decline, as they do periodically, and the employment prospects weaken for educators, competition for students intensifies. According to the systems resource model, the most effective schools would sustain growth or minimise decline by advantageous bargaining with the parents and students or legislators. Hence the criterion for effectiveness becomes the organisation's ability to acquire resources.

There are however, serious criticisms of the systems resource model. The model has

several defects, especially when applied to educational organisations. Hall (1991:378) has shown that placing too much emphasis on inputs may have damaging effects on outcomes. When the organisation becomes consumed by the acquisition of resources, other functions may be neglected. Critics also allege that since increasing input or acquiring resources is an operative goal for the organisation, the system resource model is actually a goal model. Thus, the difference between the goal model and the system-resource approach may present an argument over semantics. Indeed, a possible, even highly desirable, approach is to conceptualise organisational effectiveness by combining the two perspectives.

Both the goal and system resource model share one crucial assumption, namely that it is desirable to arrive at a single set of evaluative criteria, and thus at a single statement of organisational effectiveness. Hall (1991:379) says that several theorists have attempted to integrate the two approaches and although their ideas differ slightly, they agree that the use of goals cannot be avoided. Behaviour is explicitly or implicitly goal-directed and organisational behaviour is no exception. However, from a system resource framework, goals become more diverse and dynamic, they are not static ultimate states, but are subject to change over time. Moreover, attainment of some short-term goals can represent new resources to achieve subsequent goals. Thus when a system framework is used, a cyclic nature characterises goals in organisations.

In order to convey an understanding of the subtle nuances of organisational effectiveness, the integrated model must be expanded to include three additional characteristics – a time dimension, multiple constituencies and multiple criteria.

A neglected factor in the study of organisations and assessment of their effectiveness is time. Yet issues of time are absolutely of central importance. As Hall (1991:379) puts it, evaluators know that certain times of the school year hold greater potential for crises, disruption of the system and reduced goal attainment. The last few days of the school year for example provide conditions for chaos. Knowing this, educators develop coping mechanisms to handle these, short-term performance problems, for example, strict

interpretation of discipline rules, field trips, and other special activities.

The influence of time on organisational effectiveness can be conceptualised with a continuum of success, ranging from short-term, through intermediate, to long-term. For schools, representative indicators of short-term effectiveness include student achievement, moral, job satisfaction and loyalty. Criteria for intermediate success encompass adaptability and development of the school organisation and instructional programmes; career advancement of the educators, and success of the former students. From the system resource framework, the ultimate long-term criterion is survival of the organisation. Declining enrolments, schools closing and consolidation of small school district represent long-term problems of survival.

We also note that the effectiveness criteria always reflect the values and biases of constituencies or stakeholders, that is, interested individuals and groups within and outside the school, who have a stake in the organisational effectiveness. Hall (1991:380) says that for schools, or other organisations with multiple constituencies or interest groups, the effectiveness criteria typically are drawn from a number of perspectives. This means that multiple stakeholders play critical roles that define the goals and also provide information for their assessment. Schools are viewed as battlegrounds for both inside and outside stakeholders who compete to influence the criteria for effectiveness in ways that will advance their own interests. Effectiveness becomes less a scientific and more political concept. Therefore, a combination of the goal and system resource model requires the inclusion of multiple constituencies, who define and evaluate school effectiveness using a variety of criteria. This perspective has been termed relativistic multiple – approach to organisational effectiveness. This relativistic approach assumes that no single statement about organisational effectiveness is possible or desirable. In other words, various stakeholders in and around the school organisation require different kinds of effectiveness measures. No single effectiveness measure or a simple general list will suffice. Power and politics affect both the identification and definition and measurement of effectiveness.

A basic assumption is that organisational effectiveness is a multi-dimensional concept.

No single ultimate criterion such as student achievement or overall performance can capture the complex nature of school effectiveness. In the combined goal-system resource approach, effectiveness indicators must be derived for each phase of the open-system cycle, input, transformation and output. Virtually every phase, process or outcome variable can and has been used as an indicator of effectiveness.

3.4.2. COMMUNICATION.

As Hoy and Miskel (1982:290) have indicated, communication permeates every aspect of school life. For example:

- Teachers instruct using oral, written and other media such as videotapes.
- Students demonstrate their learning through similar media mentioned above.

The principal of a school has to communicate with parents of the learners at his / her school. As Barnard (1991:420) has argued, there are many reasons why a principal would have to communicate with parents. First we realise that parents have a responsibility to bring up their children. In that process, they have to pass knowledge to the children. This is the kind of knowledge that will see them through life. Some of the knowledge required is very specialised and the parents do not have it. Thus children are sent to school, and are placed under the guidance of teachers and the principal. From time to time, the principal has to inform the parents about progress made at school. The principal would also have to report on problems experienced. Such reporting can only be achieved if there is communication.

Parents also have to participate in other matters that are related to the school if the school is to operate smoothly. We think here of issues like the school policy. This has got to be known by the parents. They do not only have to know it, in some cases they also have to make contributions when such a policy is drawn. They also have to participate in parents' meetings. All these have got to be communicated to the parents by the principal. Further

more, parents have come to have a stronger say in the affairs of the school. It should be noted that parents have to elect the members of the School Governing Body. They have a say in the advertisement of posts for principals and teachers. They also have say in the appointment of teachers and principals. They are afforded this opportunity through participation of the SGB in such matters. The SGB also has a say in determining the amount of money payable as school fees. They have a say in the drawing of budgets and use of the money. Parents have got to help the school in fund raising and even in making recommendations for trips and excursions undertaken by learners at the school. Parents can only participate properly in the affairs of the school if they receive information through the principal of the school. Thus the principal has to communicate adequately and effectively with parents.

The principal also has to communicate with the world outside the school. For example, he / she has got to communicate with the Department of Education. It is the Department of Education that provides posts for the employment of teachers and principals. The principal has to present information with regard to the appointment of teachers, misbehaviour of teachers, appointment of teachers as hostel masters and hostel matrons, the appointment of administrative personnel, misbehaviour of the administrative personnel, the ordering and control of school furniture and other physical facilities and even the maintenance of facilities on the school premises. There is need for effective and adequate communication between the principal and the department if all that was mentioned is to take place smoothly and correctly.

Barnard (1991:432) has also shown that the principal has got to communicate with the civil defence services. We call to mind services such as the police services, the emergency services etc. Such communication becomes very necessary in instances where the school is befallen by problems for example violence, burglary, accidents, drug abuse, drug addiction and drug sales.

The school has got several needs that can be satisfied by commerce and industry. The school has need for food to be consumed at functions or in the hostels. The school has to buy stationary. The machines like photocopiers and duplicators have to be repaired and

serviced. The school needs to have uniforms for the learners, equipment for sport has to be bought. For all these to take place, the principal must communicate with commerce and industry.

The principal may also have to communicate with the community. In the first instance it must be realised that the school is located within the community. It draws its learners from the community. It is this community that may be helping the school to raise funds. More than that, the community is interested in the courses or programmes offered by the school. The community needs to be informed of the goals of the school. Members of the community need to know of the standards and expectations of the school. In the same way, it is very important for the school to know what the community expects of the school. All this can only be known if there is communication between the school and the community. This kind of communication may also be helpful in instances where areas of deviations from the norm are to be determined. Thus a correction of the deviation may be effected. It should be noted that the school's effectiveness might be judged by the community, with such a judgement based on the school's ability to attain the expectations as set by the community.

From the foregoing discussion, it is very clear that there is need to have a better understanding of communication in the schools. This is the case as communication is very central to the administration.

Boles and Davenport (1983:177) have said that a leader in an administrative position has four basic needs for communication. These are identified as:

- Giving instructions.
- Changing opinions and attitudes.
- Seeking information.
- Giving information.

Individuals need communication, which provides a positive reinforcement. It is important

for individuals to be satisfied in their job situations. One way of ensuring such satisfaction may be by way of receiving feedback from management. It is through positive feedback on performance of individuals from management that the individuals' morale may be boosted. Morale may be low in cases where such positive feedback is scarce from management.

Leaders also have to change opinions, attitudes and behaviour of some of the persons in the organisation. This may be a necessary step to take if the organisation is to perform to the best of its ability or optimally. Such a change of attitudes can be achieved through communication.

The leader of an organisation like a school also needs to gather information that shall be helpful to him / her in the performance of his / her duties, thereby leading to better performance of the organisation. As put by Boles and Davenport (1983:179) the leader may seek information to:

- Have his / her own uncertainties reduced i.e. expectations held by others for him / her, and even for each other.
- Know about how others perceive his / her performance.
- Learn of individuals' concerns and problems, seek their opinions regarding their own organisational goals, and to develop the means through which such goals can be reached.
- Seek judgement and data that may be very pertinent in cases where critical decisions have to be made.
- Get feedback on individuals' perceptions in cases where decisions have already been taken and where actions have already been made as well.
- Solicit responses from people in cases where change is in the offing. It should be noted that in such cases, the people to be involved, who are to be affected by the pending change, might help in pointing out possible consequences of the proposed change. They may also help in obviating possible future problems that may accrue from the proposed action.
- Communicate messages to the subordinates. This becomes even more evident when

we consider the fact that the organisation given has or would have a set of goals to pursue and achieve. The subordinates may only know these goals if they are communicated to them. It would also be important for the subordinates not only to know of the goals, but also to understand the goals. The subordinates also need to know what is expected of them.

- To inform the subordinates of the outcomes advocated for. The urgency with which the outcomes are expected should be well communicated to the subordinates.
- Announce decisions made and action taken to the subordinates. Reasons are to be provided as to why these decisions or actions were taken. If this is done, it may help to reduce uncertainties, calm fears and obviate rumours.

All these become very important when we consider the fact that there is at present much more emphasis on accountability and evaluation in organisations.

There are several factors that may stifle communication in an organisation such as a school. Boles and Davenport (1983:183) have listed these as:

- Sender-receiver discrepancies.
- Inability to listen.
- Impediments.
- Degree of familiarity.

It should be realised that there may be differences between the sender and the recipient of information. Such differences may be in the form of skills, attitudes, knowledge level and socio-cultural systems. It is quite possible that a mismatch in any of the identified factors between the sender and the receiver will result in noise or misunderstanding between the two.

There is also the problem of inability to listen. What may come to mind is an inability to listen that is restricted to the physical hearing. For example we may be thinking of a case where a person fails to hear because he / she is deaf. That is not the argument here. It is to be argued that while a person needs ears that are functional to hear, or uses a hearing

device to hear, such a person would have to understand what the words mean. A misunderstanding of words is often occasioned by a lack of skill to listen. Predisposition may also contribute to the inability to listen. Again, differences of status may also bring about the inability to hear or listen.

There may also be impediments on the part of the sender. Such impediments will make it difficult for the receiver to receive the information. There may be physiological impediments such as stammering, which may make communication difficult. There are also self-developed problems, which may affect communication negatively. Such self-developed impediments include mannerisms like “you know”; “like”; “I mean”. The problem is that an individual may punctuate his / her speech so much with these interjections so much that his / her speech cannot be comprehended.

Familiarity is also a problem to communication. This may occur in cases where for example a leader calls people or subordinates by their first names, not considering age differences, or even the number of years subordinates might have spent to achieve the particular status or educational level. In the same way, it would be better if a principal for example would be able to address pupils and teachers or even people he / she deals with by their first names. The inability of the principal to pronounce or spell the names correctly may also bring about an inability to communicate.

The hierarchical order of organisation is mainly there to facilitate the smooth running of the organisations. It is most unfortunate that the same hierarchical order can stifle communication within the organisation. As Hoy and Miskel (1982:84) have shown, this would be evident in cases where the information from the lower ranks may be filtered to a point where the information in the lower levels is not the same as information presented to the top levels of the hierarchy. This would occur in cases where the junior people in the organisation would present information in such a way that the bad things about them are screened out and they only present what puts them as good people to the authorities that be. They may also be presenting only those things that they believe the authority would want to hear.

There are methods that can be employed within a school to improve communication. Hoy and Miskel (1982:313) have suggested that:

- Communication channels within the school should be known.
- The communication line should be direct and as short as possible.
- The complete communication channel should be used as much as possible.
- Every communication act should be authenticated as being from the correct person and within his or her authority.
- The movement of personnel should be regulated.
- The use of mechanical connections such as the telephone and intercom should be in place.
- There should be in-service training programmes to improve communication skills for the existing staff.

Teachers and students foster an atmosphere of mutual trust and respect through open communication. According to Ramsey (1981:29), the centrepiece of the school's programme for maintaining a mellow behavioural atmosphere must be positive, free and frequent communication among all parties involved. Students must not only have meaningful opportunities to express themselves, but they must also believe that they are really heard. Sooner or later, communication problems become discipline problems. To avoid both, many schools find the techniques listed below workable and worthwhile:

- A school cabinet comprised of students and faculty to deal with touchy issues in the school.
- An effective, simple student grievance procedure.
- A periodic open forum on school rules conducted by the principal.
- Elected student advisors to the school board. Pupils granted formal ex-officio status on the board to express the views of the student body.
- A student council with clout.
- Notes to the principal that provide an open opportunity for student suggestions and

comments on any issue.

- A viable student newspaper that permits the free expression of opinions, as long as legal requirements and the standard of ethical journalism are satisfied.
- Student evaluation of teachers.

3.4.3. DISCIPLINE.

There is good discipline in the effective school, achieved through the maintenance of safe and sensible rules. Mackenzie (1983:14) has suggested that an orderly and disciplined environment in both the school and the classroom obviously allow more time for learning. The principles of good school discipline are deceptively simple: Clear and consistent school policies that reinforce the authority of teachers, collective involvement in shared responsibility for learning in an atmosphere of success, and positive support and encouragement for purposive and productive behaviour. When an agreed-upon standard of behaviour and discipline prevail among staff and students, schools can devote less time to keeping order and more time to promoting achievement. At the same time, school administrators lead primarily through example. Formal expressions of order, purpose and discipline are more likely to flourish when the urgencies of paperwork, politics and student social life are not allowed to overshadow the educational work of the school.

The classroom as a learning environment is nested in the larger environment of the school, which is embedded in turn in political administrative structure through which it relates to the surrounding environment. It will be difficult if not impossible to provide effective classroom teaching in a disorderly, disorganised and disoriented school environment, and it may be nearly as difficult to organise good schools in an atmosphere of political and management indifference.

According to Van Scotter et al (1979:42) proper dress by students and teachers is related to orderly disciplined learning. The way one dresses indicates a certain attitude; an appropriate, though different dress for teachers and students shows that a school is a special place where serious activity is conducted.

In other ways, schools should be places where, academic skills are cherished and intellectual disposition is nurtured. Discipline and learning are not served when teachers dress like students, use language of the streets or try to emulate the mass media to hold the interest of the students.

3.4.4. STATE OF REPAIR.

The environment is kept in a good state of repair and is respected by students. Kalb (1984:232) believes that a well functioning and maintained school building contributes to the educational development of children. Both students and teachers spend many hours of the days of the year within that structure; so a clean and appealing building contributes to the performance and spirit of both the staff and the youngsters.

3.4.5. EFFECTIVE USE OF TIME.

According to Potter and Powell (1992:11) a high proportion of lesson time is spent upon teaching and learning; a purposeful pace is maintained. Little time is spent on disciplinary matters or lesson preparation during lesson time.

According to Atkinson et al (1992:32) teachers should be encouraged to use a variety of strategies to get and keep pupils involved throughout the lesson; it is important to note that mere involvement of pupils is not sufficient. A pupil's use of time is a critical factor in determining the extent of his/her involvement. In analysing relationships between time and pupil's achievement, researchers have identified two types of time that impact on pupil achievement. One is called engaged time or time on task, which is defined as the portion of the instructional time during which pupils are paying attention, particularly in class or working on assigned tasks. The other, academic learning time is defined as the percentage of the time during which a pupil is not only focussed on the learning task, but also experiences a high rate (about 80 %) success on an activity that is linked to success

on some external criterion.

Of the two types of time, academic learning time has been shown correlate best with pupil achievement. In other words, to increase pupil achievement, teachers must first provide pupils with activities that are linked to the instructional objective and then work to increase the proportion of time pupils are successfully involved with these activities.

3.4.6. FEED BACK ON PUPILS' PERFORMANCE.

Students receive clear feedback on their performance and are shown what is expected of them. Assessment is regular, formative and diagnostic.

Atkinson et al (1992:34) points out that an effective teacher must be skilled in providing feedback to pupils. Feedback serves two primary purposes. Firstly, to reinforce correct or appropriate pupil responses and secondly, to correct incorrect or inappropriate pupil responses.

A number of studies have found that reinforcing desired pupil behaviours increases the likelihood that pupils will repeat those behaviours. Effective teachers reinforce behaviours verbally by using brief phrases like "nice job", "great answer". Sometimes more powerful than verbal re-enforcers such as physical messages sent by teachers through cues like eye contact, facial expressions and body position. Pupils pay attention to whether the teacher smiles or frowns, whether the teacher looks at the pupil or avoids eye contact with him/ her, whether the teacher seems approachable or distant. Based upon their verbal and non-verbal feedback to pupils, teachers either encourage or inhibit pupil participation.

Feedback can be used not only to reinforce correct or appropriate learning, but also to correct incorrect and inappropriate learning. Once pupils respond to questions, they wait to have their answers validated; if answers are incorrect, teachers then have the opportunity to provide pupils with correct feedback. There is no single best approach to use when providing feedback. The strategies most recommended are probing and cueing

pupils. The teacher might provide hints; rephrase the question or provide additional wait time. Throughout their presentations, effective teachers monitor their lessons, to determine how well the lesson is going, and if pupils are achieving the objectives. In addition to asking questions and monitoring their pupils' non-verbal responses, teachers might check pupil understanding through written or performance evaluations. Based upon teacher's assessment of school performance, teachers assign students grades or marks.

Atkinson et al (1992:36) maintains that marks can have significant implications for students. In addition to providing students and parents with information relating to a teacher's assessment of pupils achievement, marks are also used for determining promotion, for awarding membership in certain groups or organisations, and for reporting to employers and universities. Because of the seriousness of marks, care should be taken in assigning them. For example:

- Marks should reflect as neatly as possible mastery of content.
- Multiple source of evidence should be used to determine a mark.
- The meaning of each symbol should be defined in behavioural terms, and those meanings communicated to students and parents.
- Symbols of marking and reporting conduct, attitudes, personal habits and other effective outcomes should be different from symbols for reporting achievement in the cognitive and psychomotor domains.
- Teachers should reduce the threatening nature of marks whenever possible.

3.4.7. THE CURRICULUM.

According to Potter and Powell (1992:11) the curriculum is seen to be relevant to students' immediate and long-term needs. Mackenzie (1980:10) says that any curriculum works better if it is implemented with enthusiasm. Here the overall climate and atmosphere of the school can be seen as a crucible for the personal efficacy of those who work there. Efficacy in the classroom is stimulated by visible rewards for attaining achievement goals, combined with a variety of teaching strategies for achieving those

goals. Strategies combining co-operative activity and group involvement in learning tasks with reward systems in which students at different levels of initial ability compete against their own prior performance and can combine strong instructional focus with responsiveness to individual needs.

As argued by Purkey and Smith (1983:27) at the secondary school level, a planned, purposeful program of courses seems to be academically more beneficial than an approach that offers many electives and few requirements. If students are expected to learn science, maths and / or history, then they need to take those courses. If elementary school students are expected to acquire basic and complex skills, the curriculum must focus on those skills, they must receive sufficient time for instruction in those skills and those skills must be co-ordinated across grade levels and pervade the entire curriculum.

3.4.8. STRONG LEADERSHIP.

Researchers say that students make significant gains in schools where principals articulate a clear school mission, are a visible presence in classrooms and hall ways, hold high expectations for teachers and students, spend a major portion of the day working with teachers to improve instruction, are actively involved in diagnosing instructional problems and create a positive school climate. According to Sadker and Sadker (1991:247), successful principals provide instructional leadership. They spend more of their time working with students and less of their time in the office. They observe what is going on in the classrooms, hold high expectations for teacher performance and student achievement and provide necessary resources, including their own skill and knowledge. They are active and involved. As a result they create schools and make positive differences in the lives of students.

It should be noted that the principals are managers and leaders of their schools. It would therefore be important to look at the two concepts that are strongly associated with the office of principal.

According to Paisey (1981:92) management is a human behaviour and it is effective when human needs are met. In essence, therefore, management is the organisational process of formulating objectives, acquiring and committing resources required to reach them and ensuring that the objectives are actually reached. It is a process of matching objectives and resources and is inevitably a social process. In this process, objectives may have to be limited to the resources, which are available, or it may be necessary to procure more resources to make it possible to attain the desired objectives. In this context, “good management” is obtaining exceptional results (objectives) with unexceptional resources.

Williams (1995:149) points out that in a managing activity, status, power and authority are derived essentially from the designated organisational position of the holder of an appointment. These are commonly seen in the relative hierarchical positions held, the degree of control over others, and line accountability defined in the job description and delineated through organisational rules and procedures. Frequently and especially in education, they are also linked with stable tenured positions.

In managing, there is a designated positional relationship, dependent on relative formal status. The relationship is amenable to impersonal, prescriptive and task achievement requirements; with conformity focussed on rewards for compliance and sanctions available for uncooperative behaviour. It is a controlling relationship, resting on the realities of degrees of power and authority vested in differences in designated status position between managers and sub-ordinates.

Williams (1975:149) indicates that in the activity of leading, there is no requirement for direct links with formal status, designated appointment or authority of “office”. Thus leadership rests on the power to influence the thinking and behaviour of others to achieve mutually desired objectives.

According to Williams (1975:149) the relationship between a leader and the subordinates is a mutual one. There is to be mutual respect and understanding. Much depends on the way the leader conducts himself / herself. The leader has got to show interest in the needs

of the subordinates. The leader has to accommodate the contribution made by the subordinates in their quest to make the enterprise a success. The leader would gain respect of the followers if he she treats them with respect and considers their voices.

There appears to be a very strong relationship between management and leadership. Squelch and Lemmer (1994:10) have argued that in practice, effective management requires good leadership and vice-versa. As put by Williams (1995:149) managers and leaders in all organisations, including schools, use both positional and earned authority in their activities on a daily basis.

Guthrie and Reed, (1986) quoted by Squelch and Lemmer (1994:11) point out that school principals must be both managers and leaders. As managers they must ensure that fiscal and human resources are used effectively for achieving organisational goals. As leaders they must display the vision and skills necessary to create and maintain a suitable teaching and learning environment, to develop goals, and to inspire others to achieve these goals.

Van der Westhuizen (1991:55) points out that educational management can be defined as a specific type of work, in education, which comprises those regulative tasks or actions executed by a person or body in a position of authority in a specific field or area; so as to allow formative education to take place.

According to Paisey (1981:104) the scope of managerial responsibility for a school is formally defined in general terms by the local education authority, and is initially vested in the head of the school, who remains formally accountable to the authority irrespective of the kind of managerial strategy that he or she decides to adopt to create a working organisation.

According to Paisey (1981:105) the framework of rules, procedures and guidance issued by a Local Education Authority is invariably substantial. Within this framework, which at once provides a set of constraints the operational set of opportunities - the operational management of the school is conducted. The various rules and items of guidance and

procedural requirements, which together make up the administrative provisions for a school, may be drawn together as a handbook. This may be modified and up-dated from time to time as necessitated by changes in financial or other areas of local government policy concerning education. By implication, the handbook of administrative documents issued to schools shows the nature and extent of the managerial work, which must be undertaken to keep the school at a level of operational effectiveness.

According to Paisey (1981:110) the task of management is to maintain the academic and teaching zone and also a systems and procedure zone for the school. But in addition, it must be ready to meet repercussions for the school, which are generated by policies, opinions or actions adopted, expressed and taken by external bodies. Items in this zone of external effects may attract public attention and become the subject of controversy in the mass media. They give rise to an added dimension of managerial responsibility in the school: the need to shape, develop and protect the school's public image. It is noted that developments in ideas about the place of the school in the community as well as economic and financial considerations have led to changes in the use of the school buildings. The extended use of school buildings both in terms of time beyond the normal school day, and in terms of activity beyond those of the usual scholastic kind, place additional management responsibilities on the school. These may be indirect and negative in many cases, suffering the dislocation or after effects (such as broken equipment) as well as direct; in the sense of needing to co-ordinate the extended use to which the school plant is put.

Again, as Paisey (1981:113) puts it, industrial action by teachers has added seemingly to higher teacher absenteeism. Industrial action in other industries and shortages of fuel and other materials make the work of managing schools more demanding

3.5. SCHOOL MANAGEMENT TRAINING PROGRAMME.

Traditionally, the educational leader was merely the head teacher and the task of the school principal was of limited complexity. The educational leader required only professional training and experience to manage his school. The ability needed by an educational leader

to perform certain administrative and managerial tasks could be developed through experience. Van der Westhuizen (1991:2) points out that extensive research in the Republic of South Africa has firmly established that the task of the principal has undergone an evolutionary change; and that his present task is mainly a managerial one. The principal's task has changed from being pedagogical-didactical to more managerial in nature. This tendency is clearly discernible in the current manuals for school organisation in which the principal's task is described in managerial terms.

Schools are faced with situations in which effective and efficient school management requires new and improved skills, knowledge and attitudes to cope with a wide range of new demands and challenges. These include improving and maintaining high standards of education, working more closely with parents, assuming greater financial responsibility, coping with increasing multicultural school population, managing change and conflict, coping with having fewer resources and in general being more accountable to the community they serve. In the light of such changes, school managers and teachers are under increasing pressure to cope with these challenges while simultaneously building and maintaining effective schools.

Van der Westhuizen (1991:3) says that it must be kept in mind that the effective functioning of a school greatly depends on the professional conduct of the school principal and the leadership and management roles he fulfils. Thus Squelch and Lemmer (1994:viii) point out that; effective leaders manage effective schools. Good leadership however, does not happen by chance. People in positions that require leadership skills need to continuously reflect on their skills and attributes and to improve and develop those skills that are essential for good leadership and management.

Thus Van der Westhuizen (1991:4) points out that the educational leader can no longer be expected to perform his duties in a hit or miss fashion. In this regard, there is an urgent necessity for the educational leaders to receive both academic and professional training in educational management.

3.6 THE SCHOOL EFFECTIVENESS MOVEMENT

The need for research and development in the area of school effectiveness and school improvement is clearly well proven by the results of the research in the 1970s and 1980s. The 'research' or 'evidence' on which the results will be based:

From studies in a wide range of countries, it seems that a number of factors are associated with high school effectiveness, which are:

- On the size of school effects: A well known early belief that school effects are large as those of community influences were abandoned, and a study of 1000s of studies showed only a 10% effect of variation in pupil achievement due to school differences.
- Reynolds and Parker (1992:174) point out that the early work by Reynolds (1982) seem that early findings that "schools" or "institutions" affected the development of children considerably less than the first five to seven years were correct, since it is over school performance that they quite rapidly.
- On the relative consistency of the performance of schools across a range of outcome measures, Reynolds and Parker (1992:174) point out that it used to be thought that "effectiveness" was a range of both academic and social outcomes, but now we have much evidence that schools could not be effective or ineffective across a broad range.
- On the question of effectiveness across different groups of pupils, Reynolds and Parker (1992:174) comment that the traditional belief that schools are effective or ineffective for all subgroups of pupils within them, is no longer tenable, in view of the evidence that there can be different school effects for children of different ethnic groups, ability ranges and socio-economic status within the same school.

3.6. THE SCHOOL EFFECTIVENESS KNOWLEDGE BASE.

The need for research and development in the general disciplinary areas of school effectiveness and school improvement is likely to be greater in the 1990s than it has been the case in the 1970s and 1980s. The increased pressure for educational systems to attain results will be there.

From studies in a wide range of countries, it seems that a number of early simplistic assumptions that were based upon school effectiveness research are now no longer tenable:

- On the size of school effects, it seems that early beliefs that school influence might be as large as family or community influences were misplaced, since a very large number of studies show only 8-15 per cent of variation in pupil outcomes due to in between school differences.
- Reynolds and Packer (1992:173) point out that on the consistency of school effects, it seems that early beliefs that “effective” or “ineffective” schools stayed so over quite a considerable time periods of five to seven years were invalid, since it appears that school performance can vary quite rapidly.
- On the relative consistency of the performance of schools across a range of outcomes measures, Reynolds and Packer (1992:174) point out that it used to be thought that the “effective school was so across a range of both academic and social outcomes; yet now we have much evidence that schools need not be effective or ineffective across the board”.
- On the question of effectiveness across different groups of pupils, Reynolds and Packer (1992:174) comment that the traditional belief that schools are effective or ineffective for all subgroups of pupils within them, is no longer tenable, in view of the evidence that there can be different school effects for children of different ethnic groups, ability ranges and socio-economic status within the same school.

- On the question of what factors make a school more or less effective, Reynolds and Packer (1992:174) point out that the traditional belief that there was a blueprint or recipe, independent of school history, context or personnel, is no longer tenable, since what is effective may vary with the context of social environment of the school's catchment area, with the stage of development of the school itself and with the particular outcome measure being considered.
- On the issue of what makes schools effective, Reynolds and Packer (1992:174) state that it is abundantly clear that there is no cross-cultural agreement on this matter. Assertive instructional leadership from the head teacher recurs repeatedly in North American theories of school effectiveness and is empirically verified in recent American school effectiveness research; but is not an important factor determining school effectiveness in by far the greater part of the Dutch research on school practices.

3.7. CONCLUSION.

The discussions in this chapter can be summarised as follows:

- An attempt has been made to explain the terms: school effectiveness, management and leadership.
- The domain of school effectiveness has been researched for quite some time. Various variables have been researched for their effect on school effectiveness. These include shared aims and objectives, communication, discipline, state of repair, effective use of time, feedback on pupils' performance and the curriculum. It has become evident that there is a broad agreement on the fundamental elements of effective schooling, but at the same time there is seldom, clear agreement on the precise definition of the constructs and variables in school effectiveness.
- It has become very necessary for school leaders and managers to be trained. It is no

longer possible to have effective schools with managers relying on experience. Academic and professional training in educational management have become very necessary.

- Several studies have been conducted on school effectiveness. Six such studies have been identified in this chapter. These are:
 - (a) Michael Rutter's study in London in 1970. This study concentrated on changes in pupils' achievement, to demonstrate the school's ability.
 - (b) George Weber's study in the U.S.A. in 1971. This study measured school effectiveness by a reading test.
 - (c) Gilbert Austin's study in Maryland in 1978. He looked for factors that accounted for differences among schools.
 - (d) Brookover and Lezotte's study in Michigan in 1979. This study looked at the kind of principal most likely / necessary for an improving school.
 - (e) The Phi Delta Kappa study conducted in 1980. This study made a claim that effective school leaders are those who set goals and performance standards, and maintain a good working environment.
 - (f) Ronald Edmond's study in the U.S.A. in 1979. This study gave greater weight to the school's response to family background of children as the determining factor in pupil performance.
- The 21st century will provide an even more difficult agenda for school effectiveness researchers. This will be the case because of two factors: Firstly, the range of outcomes expected of schools is likely to be increased by demands of the world of work. Secondly, the research agenda will be complicated by the changed nature of leadership and management tasks required by teachers in their schools.
- The need for research in the area of school effectiveness and schooling improvement is likely to be greater in the 21st century. This will be the case as most of the early assumptions based on school effectiveness research are no longer tenable.

The chapter that follows will be a presentation of an attempt at describing the TOPS school

management programme in South Africa.

CHAPTER 4

THE TOPS MANAGEMENT PROGRAMME

4.1 INTRODUCTION

The main purpose of this chapter is to describe the TOPS programme and to evaluate its impact. It is intended to show that the TOPS management programme has been successful in its objectives. The programme has been in operation for over 10 years and has had a significant impact on the education in the Republic of South Africa. This chapter will describe the programme and its impact on what occurred in the past when the educational system was in a state of crisis. There were several departments of education, the Western, Natal, Indian and Transvaal. Each department had its own curriculum and standards. In 1976 there was the 11th anniversary of the 1965-66 school year which was described as 'the year of the 11th anniversary of the 1965-66 school year'. Of course there were many other things that happened in 1976. Reports were very favourable about the programme of development. There were many who were made to improve on education in the management of the school system. The school system has been the implementation of the programme of already existing schools.

The programme is a series of projects. Some are operative at the local level while others are operative at the national level. We only select a few to illustrate as a way of illustrating the work of the programme that are operative at the local level. These are:

- The winter school project classes for grade 12 learners.
- Saturday classes for grade 12 learners.
- The MATHS schools project.
- Mathematics and science project.
- Developmental specialist for educators.
- Code campaign.

CHAPTER 4

THE TOPS MANAGEMENT PROGRAMME

4.1. INTRODUCTION.

The main purpose of this chapter is to describe the TOPS school management programme. It should be noted that the TOPS management programme is but one of the many programmes that came into being in an attempt to redress imbalances of the past in education in the Republic of South Africa. This may be better understood if a reflection is made on what obtained in the past when there was a very divided education system. There were several departments of education. There were for example education departments for the Whites, Blacks, Indians and Coloureds. There were even education departments for the different homelands. In most cases it was the education department for blacks that was beset with multitudes of problems. One of the nagging problems was that of poor performance. Of course there was the problem of poor funding for that department. Resources were very scarce. With the inception of democracy in 1994, several attempts were made to improve on conditions in the education of black people in this country. One such attempt has been the implementation of the programmes as already alluded to earlier.

The programmes are quite numerous. Some are operative at national level while others are operative at provincial level. We may select a few examples as a way of illustration. We look briefly at some of the programmes that are operative or have been operative in the Northern Province. These are:

- The winter enrichment classes for grade 12 learners.
- Saturday classes for grade 12 learners.
- The MASTEC schools project.
- Mathematics and science project.
- Developmental appraisal for educators.
- Colts campaign

What should be realised is that these programmes involve money. Besides that, teachers are involved in these programmes. Valuable time is spent in these programmes. In some cases, teachers have had to leave their classes to attend courses in these programmes. What should be established is how effective these courses or programmes are, or have, been.

One realises that there appears to have been very little in terms of reports based on evaluations that were made on such programmes. Perhaps such evaluations have been made, but what is very evident at this juncture is that if such evaluations were made, then the reports of these evaluations are not widely available. My conviction, in the absence of reports, is that there are generally very few evaluations.

The reason why I selected the TOPS as a programme is that I wanted to see how such programmes could be seen to be effective or not effective. My belief is that in case no evaluations are made, then it is about time those in authority started commissioning evaluations of programmes in place. I strongly believe that a study such as this may be of help in terms of setting an example in the hope that those in authority may care to read or go through this study. The TOPS management programme has only been selected as an example from a myriad of programmes available. The idea is to check whether the programme is or has yielded the kind of results that were contemplated when the programme was put in place. One would have to see whether the programme improved the lot of black education, as the intention was.

The issues discussed in this chapter are the following:

- A background of the TOPS management programme.
- Needs assessment.
- Common responses from teachers, heads of departments and principals.
- Mission statement of the programme.
- Programme goals.
- Aims and objectives of the TOPS school management programme.
- Expectations of the TOPS initial training.

4.2. BACKGROUND OF THE TOPS SCHOOL MANAGEMENT PROGRAMME.

Teacher Opportunity Programs was a non-governmental organisation that was founded in 1982, as a private-sector service initiative, following discussions between the Urban foundation, the Mobil foundation, teacher associations and leading educators (Gold et al 1996:2). Since its inception, its primary focus has been to assist black teachers in South Africa to obtain matric; however, it eventually became apparent that improving the quality of education in the majority of schools would require more than just simply helping teachers to upgrade their academic qualification. As a result of this insight, two other components were introduced: The methodology component, providing skills in English; Mathematics and Science for primary school teachers; and the management and leadership component offering a repertoire of appropriate skills for principals, deputy principals and departmental heads.

The TOPS school management programme was conducted in eight (8) areas in the Republic of South Africa. The eight areas are: Northern Transvaal, Southern Transvaal, Eastern Cape, Western Cape, Orange Free State, Qwa-Qwa, Northern Natal and Southern Natal.

A reasonable number of participants went through the TOPS school management course. Gilmour and Soudien (1994:4) have shown that a total of 1376 people went through the course between the years 1987 and 1994. About 99 centres were used, while 148 facilitators took part in those years.

The management programme was developed collaboratively between TOPS principals; project staff and some faculty members of the University of South Carolina. A comprehensive needs assessment research project was done in 1989, to identify the most important and difficult management issues facing black schools in South Africa. This was followed by the development of a package entitled: "The effective principal", and the training of South African trainers in 1992. All of these culminated in the establishment of the TOPS management programme.

4.3. NEEDS ASSESSMENT.

According to Atkinson et al (1993:3) the initial TOPS needs assessment research was conducted by Judy Wyatt of TOPS and the University of South Carolina U.S.A, and involved meetings and interviews with more than 150 teachers and principals throughout South Africa. Such wide-spread grassroots participation helped ensure that real problems were identified and provided the means for grounding any subsequent training programme in the expressed needs of practising teachers and principals. This approach, moreover demonstrated TOPS' commitment from the outset, to develop a school management and leadership-training programme in which broad-based participatory involvement plays central role. The results of the needs assessment revealed both similarities and differences among teachers and principals in terms of what these two groups saw as the main problems and issues affecting the running of their schools. The problem areas that were repeatedly identified by both groups tended to be broad; underlying difficulties affecting almost all black South African Schools. These include:

- A scarcity of resources including such areas as personnel; classroom space; books and other equipment; teaching aids; electricity; water and toilet facilities.
- Political and economic uncertainty and disruption.
- The authoritarian nature, rigid bureaucracy and rule-bound hierarchy of the various education departments.
- The lack of management and teaching materials.
- The isolation of principals from colleagues.

4.4. COMMON RESPONSES FROM TEACHERS INCLUDING HEADS OF DEPARTMENTS AND PRINCIPALS.

Atkinson et al (1993:4) point out that the most common responses from teachers, including heads of departments were the following:

- a. Principals lack leadership and administrative skills.
- b. Principals / inspectors are domineering.
- c. Principals were possessive concerning the school.
- d. Principals showed favouritism and discrimination; did not treat teachers fairly and equally.
- e. Principals were autocratic.
- f. School inspectors used to threaten teachers.
- g. The division of labour was not fair or equal.
- h. There was a lack of communication in the school; principals did not give feedback to the teachers.
- i. Teachers wanted the principal to welcome ideas and inputs from the staff; wanted staff to be involved in planning; organising and discussing problems; and in general wanted more co-operation and democratic participation in running the school.
- j. The staff wanted the principal to treat the staff with respect, regardless of gender.
- k. There was no appropriate system for dealing with grievances.

According to Atkinson et al (1993:4) principals and deputy principals often emphasised their need for training in various areas and tended to express a different set of concerns. The most commonly identified areas where training was needed were:

- a. The financial aspect of the school.
- b. Crisis management; dealing with conflict situations.
- c. Dealing with grievances from teachers and students.
- d. Staff development, motivation and guidance.
- e. Developing community / parent relations.

In addition many principals expressed concern about:

- a. Lack of orientation for new principals.
- b. The need for more study leave for principals.
- c. Bullying and domineering inspectors.
- d. The need for more communicational consultation with the Department of Education and Training.
- e. The lack of responsibility shown by many teachers.

4.5. MISSION STATEMENT OF THE PROGRAMME.

The TOPS management brochure indicates that the mission of TOPS was:

“To produce quality education in schools by equipping principals, deputy principals and departmental heads with a repertoire of appropriate skills which enable them to create productive and satisfactory working environments for the teachers; thus empowering teachers to generate and inspire desirable learning conditions and outcomes for pupils”.

4.6. PROGRAMME GOALS.

The TOPS management brochure outlines the goals of the programme as follows:

- To enhance leadership and managerial skills of school administrators.
- To promote involvement / participation of teachers in school affairs.
- To enhance professional growth and development.
- To promote relations between the school and the community.
- To promote the culture of learning in schools.
- To train and develop effective trainers / facilitators.
- To train and develop effective trainers of trainers.

4.7. AIMS AND OBJECTIVES OF THE TOPS MANAGEMENT PROGRAMME.

The TOPS management brochure outlines the aims and objectives as follows:

- To seek the establishment of a single non-racial, non-sexist, democratic system of education.
- To be an agent of change in South Africa.
- To empower teachers to be active agents in the transformation of the present order.
- To respond to the expressed needs of teachers with regard to their academic, personal and professional development.
- To encourage teachers, as professional persons to be involved in ongoing curriculum reform and to produce relevant curricular material.
- To contribute to the development of schools through provision of relevant and democratic management programmes.
- To critically reflect on all its educational activities and its commitment to bring about changes.
- Both in terms of its programmes and structures to ensure that control is placed in the hands of the community that it serves.
- To align itself with other community organisations with similar goals.

4.8. EXPECTATIONS OF THE TOPS INITIAL TRAINING PROGRAMME.

According to Gold et al (1996:3) specific outcomes were expected at the school level as a result of initial training. These are:

- Principal should interact with teachers about their work and that of students.
- Principal should interact with students about their work through class visits.
- Principal should communicate with all staff about school matters, hold regular meetings.
- The principal should involve the community in decision-making through management bodies.
- Principal should advise teachers on instructional matters through seminars.

- Principal should arrange instructional in-service opportunities for teachers.
- Principal should arrange regular staff development seminars.
- The principal should co-ordinate induction sessions for new teachers.
- The principal should delegate authority roles, responsibility to other staff through committees.
- The principal should share decision making with teachers and other structures.

4.9. EVALUATION OF THE TRAINING PROGRAMME.

The TOPS school management programme has been evaluated. There are at least two known evaluations of the programme. Gilmour and Soudien carried out the first evaluation in 1994. Gold, Khoza and Evans conducted the second evaluation in 1995.

The first evaluation by Gilmour and Soudien was conducted in accordance with requirements of the Joint Education Trust, as well as TOPS. The evaluation had two sections i.e. the quantitative section and the qualitative section.

The quantitative part of the evaluation involved:

Examination of the impact of the Joint Education Trust funding in terms of:

- Facilitator training.
- Teachers trained by region.
- Training courses / sessions by region.
- Schools and students reached through training of teachers.

(a) Review of the funding base of TOPS, to establish:

- Long-term sustainability.
- Cost effectiveness (Cost per head).

On the other hand, the qualitative evaluation involved effectiveness of the programme in the following areas:

- Curriculum relevance.
- Training effectiveness of facilitators and participants.
- Organisational effectiveness.
- The impact of participants themselves and perceived transferability to schools.

(b) Evaluation of training programme in action.

It must be pointed out that the evaluation by Gilmour and Soudien was conducted in only three (3) of the eight areas where TOPS was operative. The three areas are Western Cape, the Eastern Cape and the Orange Free State. The evaluators acknowledged the fact that the three selected areas may not be representative of the TOPS programme as a whole, but would provide some indication of the impact of the intervention.

The main methods of investigation used were interviews and school based observation. Those interviewed and observed included: Regional officials, facilitators, and participants in the programme and teachers not involved with TOPS.

The findings of the evaluation, as regards school effectiveness were that the schools visited were extremely efficient. The following points are indicative of such efficiency:

- Sophisticated record keeping techniques were used in one school and were being developed in another.
- One school had computerised its report system, student files, examination and test results.
- The schools were on the whole extremely neat and intensive organisation was in place.
- The schools had sophisticated committees in place – a development that was directly attributed to the influence of TOPS.

- Regular staff meetings were the norm at the schools visited, and staff members complimented the principals on their practice of involving them in decision-making.
- Participants at one school were emphatic that the programme had helped them to produce a better academic environment at their school; teachers were now sharing ideas in standard (grade) committees where responsibilities were being shared.
- Principals employed a system of management by objectives.
- The course had refined the management / leadership skills of people recently promoted to the position of principal.
- Planning was done much better in schools, staff morale had improved and involvement in the programme had increased a sense of identification with the school.
- Efforts were being made to draw the wider community of parents and civic organisations in to the school affairs.
- Senior administrators had learned how to handle differences of opinion in a constructive way.

I observed the following with regard to this evaluation:

- The evaluators have acknowledged that they had problems of time and other constraints such as political uncertainty. They could not complete examination of TOPS records as satisfactorily as it would have been desirable. Again, comparative annual data was difficult to obtain as the basis of reporting had changed over the years.
- The evaluators have in the main, presented material that is indicative of what is perceived to be the new order obtaining as a result of TOPS training. The problem is that they have not gone on to present the conditions that obtained prior to the introduction of the programme. That would have been helpful because we would now have some concrete idea that whatever change came in to being after introduction of the program could to a great extent be ascribed to the effects of the programme.

- A number of programmes that rivalled TOPS were identified. For example, there were management courses conducted by the Rand Afrikaans University, the University of Port Elizabeth and Technikon South Africa. The problem is that the evaluators have not attempted to show how these rival programmes could have influenced conditions in the schools. It should be realised that the positive influence of these programmes could easily be mistaken to be the effects of TOPS in such schools.

This leaves us in doubt of the credibility of the results as they are presented. The evaluators should have attended to the concerns that were raised here; to show that TOPS has been as effective as it is purported to have been.

Sipho Hlophe evaluated the section on facilitator training in 1994. The purpose of this evaluation was to assess the impact of the facilitator-training programme on trainees. The methodology to collect data involved interviews, questionnaires, observations and document analysis.

The co-ordinating committee, trainers and trainees were interviewed. The interview schedule had structured and unstructured questions. Those interviewed were randomly selected. Three sets of questionnaires were used. One questionnaire had to do with trainee profile; the second questionnaire dealt with trainee view of the programme, while the third questionnaire dealt with trainer view of the programme. Three sessions were observed where trainees were facilitating and where the trainers gave feedback. Document analysis involved inspection of the training manual that formed the core of facilitation programme.

This evaluation revealed the following:

- a. Trainers were very impressed by the trainees in that they demonstrated the ability to grasp the concepts of school management and leadership; and some even showed creativity and innovation. Trainees worked together, were well motivated and eager to learn.

- b. Regarding the materials, trainees felt that the materials were just right in that they deal with real school situations and have been contextualised to South African context. The materials are well written, readable and worthwhile.
- c. Trainees felt that the pace was right for it went hand in hand with the comprehension of trainees. Trainers were satisfied with the time allocated to them.
- d. The trainers said that they had achieved their goal, and that is, to impart facilitation skills to the trainees.
- e. Trainees appreciated the support and help they got from the co-ordinating committee and trainers. The training helped them grow personally and professionally, and they felt that it was excellent. It boosted their confidence in being school leaders and certainly equipped them with skills to make them effective.
- f. Trainees found the material was relevant, readable and understandable. Trainers were highly praised in terms of their professionalism, warmth, expertise and leadership qualities. The course was well planned and executed.

My observations with this evaluation are:

- The evaluator has clearly indicated that the purpose of his evaluation was to assess the impact of the two-weeks facilitator-training program of the trainee principals, deputy principals and heads of department. Surely, if a good evaluation of the process were to be achieved, we would expect the evaluator to be there during the whole two – weeks period. Unfortunately, the evaluator has clearly said that he arrived at the workshop in the second week and the trainer work was almost done; it was the turn of the trainees to model their trainers.
- The evaluator has shown that 36 of the trainees had received preparation or training for management positions before coming into the TOPS programme. He further pointed out that 11 of the trainees had exposure to financial and clerical courses

before joining the TOPS management programme. It would be very important to find out what effect these two other courses had on the efficiency of the principals. It would have to be seen how such training could have contaminated training by TOPS. The evaluator has not reflected on this.

- The evaluator has also not taken cognisance of other programmes that went on in the area, programmes that were rivals to the TOPS programme.
- The evaluator has presented a list of other evaluation reports of the TOPS management programme that he still had to review. It would be right to think that he should have seen these other reports even before going through his own evaluation. If he had done that, he probably could have come up with a position not very similar to the one that he has adopted.

Gold, Khoza and Evans carried out the second evaluation of the TOPS school management programme in 1995. This evaluation was carried out under the auspices of the Institute for International Research, and was prepared for the United States Agency for International Development.

The purpose of the second evaluation was to determine if TOPS training of principals promoted:

- Interaction with teachers, students, parents and communities.
- Instructional leadership.
- Shared decision-making and delegation of authority.

The evaluation was based on a survey. A sample of thirteen (13) principals who participated in the training was used in the evaluation. It was noticed that baseline data on principals' management and leadership was not available. Thus a comparison group of five principals who had not received any TOPS management training was selected randomly. Besides the principals, teachers were also involved. Ten (10) teachers, whose principals had not received initial training in TOPS were included. Again, twenty-six

(26) teachers, whose principals received initial training, were also included in the sample. The reports by teachers were used to validate principals' self-reports.

The evaluation made use of three instruments i.e. principal profile, principal questionnaire and teacher interview guide. The purpose of the principal profile was to gather demographic information of principals. The purpose of the principal questionnaire was to gather information on perception of principals' instructional leadership, interaction with teachers, students, and committees and shared decision-making. The purpose of the teacher interview guide was to gather information regarding perceptions of teachers about their principal's management and leadership.

The findings of the evaluation showed that with TOPS training, there was a trend towards:

- Increased interaction.
- Increased communication.
- Increased instructional in-service.
- Increased delegation of authority.
- Shared decision – making.

It was further revealed that there was:

- Community involvement regardless of TOPS training.
- Less staff development regardless of TOPS training.

My observation with regard to this evaluation is as follows:

- The evaluator acknowledges that there was no baseline data. They therefore decided to introduce a comparison group. The problem is that the comparison group was not quite similar to the group in the programme. For example, there were 13 principals in the programme group while there were 5 principals in the comparison group. Again, there were 26 teachers in the programme group while there were only 10 teachers in

the comparison group. Surely the numbers should have been equal.

- The evaluator informs us that the selection was made from primary and secondary schools. It is not clarified which schools or how many schools came from the primary phase or the secondary phase. It is possible that the school phase would have an effect on the apparent management efficiency of a school.
- The principals who participated in this evaluation were selected from the Free State. This was contrary to the election of principals for inclusion in the comparison group in the sense that these were from the Qwa-Qwa area only. The evaluators clearly pointed out that they did this as they tried to ensure that the area is distinct so as to avoid a possible brush-off of the effect from principals who had received TOPS management training. The understanding was that most of the principals in the Qwa-Qwa area had not received TOPS training. Unfortunately this obviously brought in a problem of a difference in terms of the geographic locality from which participants were drawn for the evaluation.
- In presenting their findings, the evaluators spoke of trends that showed increments in certain aspects e.g. "increased interaction". They obviously could not come up with such an assertion if they had baseline data. Thus they would have been able to compare the condition after the intervention to the condition that prevailed prior to the intervention. What is noticed is that the evaluation took place in the Free State only while the programme was operative throughout the Republic of South Africa. The programme was implemented after a survey of 150 teachers and principals was conducted throughout the country. The survey revealed a lack of requisite managerial skills on the part of the principals. Principals themselves expressed a need for assistance and training in the management of schools. The evaluators do not even indicate whether they attempted to check whether the conditions at the schools where the programme was implemented were similar to those prevailing in the 150 schools in the survey. Instead, they even found it easier and convenient to introduce a comparison group.

- There is a further problem in the selection of the sample in the evaluation. First, stratified purpose sampling was used to select TOPS trained principals, while the non- – TOPS group was randomly selected. Methods of selection should preferably have been similar. Secondly, the gender principle and the type of school (primary / secondary) were taken in to account in the selection of TOPS trained principals. This was not reported with regard to the selection of non- TOPS principals. Instead, we are informed that they were selected randomly. I reiterate that methods of selection should have been similar if the results were to be credible.

4.10. TOPS MANAGEMENT PROGRAMME IN THE PROGRAMME SCHOOL.

It is very important to show that the TOPS school management programme was indeed implemented in the programme school. Logically it would not be possible to be talking of the effect or impact of the programme if there is no evidence of the programme having been implemented properly.

The programme was indeed implemented in the programme school. Evidence for this is obtained from documents and interviews with the principal of the programme school. The first point worth mentioning is that the principal of the programme school underwent training in the TOPS school management programme in 1995. His name appears on the list of names of trainees in 1995. Upon return to his school, he gave feedback to the staff on what he and the others had been trained in. In actual fact, he conducted several workshops. There is a chart in the principal's office, which shows dates on which the workshops were conducted. The number of teachers that attended is also reflected. This also includes the topics discussed. The table below shows these:

Table 2. Workshops conducted in the programme school

	TOPIC	DATE	NUMBER ATTENDED
01	Time management.	28/05/96	10
02	Leadership skills.	25/07/96	10
03	Teacher redeployment.	28/08/96	11
04	Conflict management / resolution.	26/10/97	07
05	Sentence construction.	26/05/97	08
06	How to employ group work in class.	03/06/97	09
07	Creating a cordial atmosphere in class.	25/07/97	09
08	Ecology.	05/09/97	11
09	Constructivist approach.	09/09/97	08
10	Fund raising.	25/09/97	06
11	Assessment.	25/10/97	07
12	Managing self-performance.	N/A	10
13	Managing extra – curricular activities.	27/08/98	11
14	Building learning teams	14/09/98	11
15	Teacher appraisal	18/03/99	11

Several committees have also been formed in the programme school. These are:

- The timetable committee.
- Guidance committee.
- Finance committee.
- Sports committee.
- Book committee.
- Editorial committee.

Through TOPS training, the school has been able to develop a mission statement. It has been able to spell out the vision. These are seen hanging from the wall in the foyer and in the principal's office. The mission statement and vision read as follows:

MISSION STATEMENT

Our school strives:

To provide high-quality teaching and learning

To develop the mind, body and spiritual component of the learners

To help all learners fully realise their potentials.

To be of good service to learners, parents, staff and the entire community

VISION

The school fulfils its mission by:

Creating an environment that is conducive to teaching and learning.

Offering a wide range of educational support services.

Offering a wide choice of learning areas and extra curricular activities.

Establishing partnerships and relationships with all institutions with interest in education.

The school has improved channels of communication. This is evidenced by:

- The presence of a suggestion box in the foyer to the principal's office.
- The establishment of a newsletter for the school.
- The presence of an action plan for the school. The action plan for the third and fourth quarters for 1999 was produced. This clearly showed activities, targets, implementers and dates for the activities.
- The motto for the school is clearly displayed at the gate and is very easily accessible to anyone going past the gate or walking into the schoolyard. It reads:

"We shall seek knowledge like a shining silver star".

4.11. CONCLUSION.

From the discussion in this chapter, it has become evident that:

- TOPS school management programme was run by a non-governmental organisation in South Africa. It folded in 1996.
- The programme had well-stated aims and objectives mission statement and expected outcomes.
- A need assessment was conducted before the programme was implemented. In this case, teachers, heads of departments and principals were given the chance to express their views on the perceived need for such a programme.
- The programme operated throughout the Republic of South Africa. Evidence shows that at least 1376 people went through the course; it had 148 facilitators, while about 99 centres were used.
- The programme has been evaluated. There are at least two known evaluations. One by Gilmour and Soudien, while the second was by Gold, Khoza and Evans. Facilitator-training was evaluated by Siphon Hlophe. The evaluation showed that the programme had a positive impact on the schools in which it was operational. The schools performed better.
- There is adequate proof that the TOPS school management programme was indeed implemented in the programme school.

The following chapter explains how the data was collected for this study. This data is also presented in that chapter.

CHAPTER 5

DATA COLLECTION AND PRESENTATION

5.1. INTRPODUCTION

This chapter presents data that was collected from two selected schools. The data was collected by means of interviews with principals, and observations at the schools. Schedules were used for that purpose. The schedule for principals aimed at gathering information with regard to issues related to school management. It had three sections namely, background, educational management experience and organisation and development. The information gathered through the use of this schedule was to help bring to light the kind of management attitudes and practices that obtained in each of the two schools involved in this study. This schedule aimed at focusing on issues of: Physical resources available, school discipline and information on pupils and staff. The purpose was to record as accurately as possible; conditions that obtained in the two schools with regard to the three (3) identified areas. I report on the background of the management in the schools, the educational management experience, the organisation and development of management in the schools, the school environment, the school day, assembly, break and afternoon studies.

5.2. BACKGROUND.

At both schools, the principal was interviewed. Both principals are at post-level 4. The programme school experienced no staff changes due to restructuring / redeployment. This is in contrast to the comparison school, which experienced staff changes. The comparison school lost two (2) teachers. This impacted on the school as it lost what the principal called "effective teachers". They were "well qualified" in the words of the principal, and he could not protect them as the principle of last in first out (LIFO) was applied. As regards the post-level structure of the schools, the following was observed: The programme school has got no appointed H.O.D.s. The principal is at post level 4 and is a male person. Three (3) teachers who receive no extra remuneration for the extra responsibility are helping him.

Two of these teachers are male while the other one is female. This is different from the comparison school, where the senior management team is made up of the male principal at post level 4 and two H.O.D.s. One is male while the other is female. These H.O.D.s are permanently appointed in their posts and are receiving remuneration for the extra responsibility attached to the appointments. Both principals belong to a professional educational union. The principal in the programme school does not get support for educational management and development from his union. The principal said that his union is much more concerned with the material needs of its members, than educational management. This is different from the comparison school, where the principal receives support from the union. The principal said that this support has been felt in cases where there were disciplinary problems with teachers. One such case involved absenteeism by a teacher. In cases where a teacher absented himself / herself, and was reluctant to fill in the necessary leave forms after such an absence, he was able to call the union in to help. On many occasions they (the union) were able to solve the problem. The union has also been called in cases of disputes, and they were able to arbitrate.

5.3. EDUCATIONAL MANAGEMENT EXPERIENCE.

The principal in the programme school has been in his position for a period of nine (9) years. This is in contrast to the principal in the comparison school, who has been in his position for a period of fourteen (14) years. One H.O.D. in the comparison school has been in his position for a period of nine (9) years, while the other H.O.D. has been in that position for a period of eight (8) years.

The principal in the programme school has attended a total of four (4) management courses in the years 1994 to 1999.

- In 1995, the principal attended a course on school management, provided by TOPS.
- Again in 1995, the principal attended a course on basic management, provided by Shuter and Shooter.
- In the years 1996 to 1997, the principal attended a course on school management. This was provided by School Management programme (M.S.T.P.).

- In 1999 the principal attended a course on personnel training management. This was offered by Damelin and it was mainly for his private studies.

The principal pointed out that he found the course provided by MSTP to be the most influential / useful in his career thus far.

The principal in the comparison school did not attend management-training courses. He only attended briefings by the educational area office. Examples of such briefings include:

- The education summit that was held in 1996.
- A briefing on structural changes where emphasis was on school vision, which was conducted in 1995.
- A meeting on redeployment in 1995.
- A meeting on right sizing in 1996.

The principal in the programme school received support from TOPS in the following areas: developing a school mission statement, general planning, management training and school administration. In terms of ranking, he found the support useful in the following areas: developing a mission statement, general planning. Management training and school administration were ranked as being very useful.

The principal in the comparison school indicated that he did not attend the TOPS school management programme. The reason for this non-participation in the programme is that he was not invited to attend such a course.

In assessing his school's management performance, the principal in the programme school rated the following areas as good: the school's vision and mission statement, the school's development plan, staff competence, school loyalty, school administration and relations with the community. The two other areas i.e. staff discipline and pupil discipline were rated excellent. The principal was able to produce a copy of the school's mission statement and vision. This mission statement could be seen hanging from a wall in the foyer to the principal's office. It could also be seen hanging from a wall in the principal's office.

As regards the school's development plan, a chart showing training sessions for staff can be seen hanging from the wall in the principal's office. This chart shows the name of the course, the date on which the course was conducted, and the number of teachers that attended the course. These are presented in the form of a bar graph.

The staff in the programme school appeared to be well disciplined. At least on the day of the visit, a teacher came to the principal's office and asked to be released so that he could go and consult a doctor as he was not feeling well. Again on the day of the visit, while there were no pupils at the school, the teachers stayed at the school the whole day and knocked off at the right time i.e. at 14H00. The teachers spent the day in the staff-room and were not seen loitering.

For advice and support in his management, the principal in the programme school relies on a colleague, the department of education, a university and an N.G.O. The University involved is the Witwatersrand University, which offered courses in conjunction with M.S.T.P. The N.G.O. involved is the Anglo American Platinum Mines (AMPLATS). This was in contrast to the principal in the comparison school, who relied on a colleague.

The programme school has a plan in place to improve and maintain the quality of educational management. According to the principal, the plan also caters for educational management. The school is currently working with St. Barnabas College, at the request of AMPLATS, in provision of educational management support. The principal in the comparison school said that his school has a plan in place for improving and maintaining the quality of educational management. His plan is to increase school fees, in order to buy facilities related to education. He believes that by way of having enough money to buy for example, more duplicating paper, his teachers will be able to give pupils more tests and quarterly tests. He believes the school shall be able to employ a night watch man, a move that will reduce the level of vandalism at his school. He also believes that an increased fee will enable the school to put up new physical structures like an administration block, from which they would be able to work more efficiently. He also said that they might be able to repair the dilapidated buildings or maintain them. He believes they shall be able to

purchase new machines and even maintain or repair the available ones. They may even be able to purchase computers.

The programme school does its planning for the coming year at the end of the year. The principal produced a document that showed all activities of the year 1999. At the end of the document, one could see that there were dates set aside for planning for the year 2000. One other evidence of planning for the year 2000 was the presence of parents on the school premises. Most of these parents could be seen in the foyer to the principal's office. The principal explained that those parents had come to register their children for admission into the school in the year 2000. The principal pointed out that before training by TOPS, they used to do their planning at the beginning of the year in January. The principal said that TOPS training has helped much in changing the mindset and style of management. He said that TOPS has greatly encouraged the school to do planning in time and to establish school-community relations.

The principal in the comparison school said that he does planning for the coming year at the end of the year and also at the beginning of the year. He pointed out that such planning involved meeting members of the school governing body to inform them of the problems encountered during the course of the year. They also tried to get solutions to such problems and sought ways of avoiding such problems in future. The principal said they also did admissions for the coming year at the end of the year. There were no documents to back up what the principal said regarding planning.

In the programme school, junior members of staff are involved in the planning. Staff members form part of planning. They sit in various committees where they compile their committees' plans, which ultimately form part of the total year plan. In the comparison school, the principal explained that the junior members of staff are involved in planning. This is mainly on the form of consultation on issues that arose in the school. This was evident from minutes of the various previous meetings, where teachers made contributions in the deliberations. There was no mention of committees and their contribution to the year plan as is the case with the programme school.

5.4. ORGANISATION AND DEVELOPMENT OF MANAGEMENT IN SCHOOLS.

The programme school has policies on the following: school discipline, school uniform, extramural activities and staff development. The principal was able to produce copies of these. This programme school did not have policies on language, use of resources, code of conduct for teachers and pupils' development. Observation in the comparison school revealed a difference. In this case, the principal said that they have policies on school uniform, use of resources, code of conduct for teachers, extra-mural activities and pupil development. There were no documents to back-up the principal's claim. This comparison school has no policies on school discipline, language and staff development.

Both schools have management teams. The management team in the programme school meets fortnightly, while the one in the comparison school meets irregularly. In the programme school, the following issues are often discussed: finances, discipline, staff issues, planning, curriculum, administration, delegation of tasks, training, staff development and parental development. Legal issues are discussed sometimes. In the comparison school, issues often discussed are the following: finances, discipline, staff issues, planning, administration, delegation of tasks and parental development. Issues discussed sometimes are curriculum, training and staff development. Legal issues are seldom discussed.

Several committees are in place in the programme school. These include fund raising, sports, extra-mural activities, functions, discipline, finance, admission, timetable and library. The school does not have committees for staff development, past pupils and community liaison. In the comparison school, the following committees are available: sport, community liaison and finance. The school does not have committees for: fund raising, extra-mural activities, catering, functions, staff development, past pupils and discipline.

The programme school uses the following means of communication: morning information meetings, individual meetings with teachers and a newsletter. The newsletter has been in place for sometime. The school has produced its third newsletter. The principal was able to

produce a copy of the newsletter and it addressed a whole range of issues. In the copy that was availed, issues addressed included a comment on management, committees available in the school, a report on visitors to the school, the functioning of the guidance committee, teenage pregnancy and sports news. The school does not have an intercom system. It also has no notice boards. Instead some notices could be seen pasted directly on the walls. In the principal's office there was a chart on the wall, and it is based on Curriculum 2005. The other chart is on the history of education in South Africa, which shows the gradual change in education from colonial days in the 1800s to the education under the current democratic government with its policies. There was also a newspaper article explaining the involvement of AMPLATS with the school. A suggestion box could also be seen in the foyer to the principal's office. The principal explained that teachers mainly used this suggestion box. The comparison school uses morning information meetings for communication. It also uses individual meetings with teachers. The school does not have an intercom system or notice boards. Instead, of notice boards, notices could be seen pasted on windowpanes. An example on the use of windowpanes for dissemination of information was the November 1999 examination timetable. This had been put on a windowpane in the principal's office. Pupils used to congregate outside to copy the timetable. Some notices could be seen pasted to the door of a steel cupboard in the principal's office. The principal said that he did not make use of memos, but he produced a book through which he communicated with the staff. In this book, a whole range of issues are handled for example:

- The number of tests required by the circuit office.
- The principal's feedback on his observations regarding the amount of work done by teachers.
- Matters pertaining to examinations.
- Teachers' attendance of lessons.
- Reminding teachers that they have got to complete the syllabus.
- Filling in of leave forms by absent teachers.
- A report on a visit by schools' inspector, reminding the teachers to mark attendance registers at the right time.

This book has been in use for quite some time. It was first used on the 14th of February 1986.

The last memo was dated the 04th of November 1999.

Staff meetings are held once per month in the programme school. The frequency is not enough, since the staff often has to have emergency staff meetings to address urgent issues. This differs from the situation in the comparison school where staff meetings are held irregularly. The frequency in this case is seen as adequate in the sense that problems can be addressed head-on when they arise.

The following issues are often on the agenda in meetings in the programme school: discipline, staff issues, planning, curriculum, task delegation, training, staff development and sport. Issues that feature some times on the agenda are finances, administration and legal issues. Parental development seldom features on the agenda. In the comparison school, the issues often on the agenda are the following: finances, discipline, staff issues, planning, curriculum, administration, task delegation, parental development and sport. Training is some times on the agenda, while staff development and legal issues are seldom on the agenda.

Minutes are sometimes taken in staff meetings in the programme school. The principal was able to present a minute book. This contained a record of minutes of meetings as from the 06th February 1991 to the 14th October 1999. All the minutes had the principal's signature attached to them. These are also distributed before meetings. In the comparison school, minutes were taken less regularly. The principal was able to produce a minute book in which the minutes of previous meetings have been recorded. The book has records of meetings held from the 06th January 1992 to the 17th May 1999.

A budget was available in the programme school. According to the principal, this budget is not sufficient in meeting the needs of the school. This budget is seen to be insufficient because the budget is based on school fees. The problem is that the amount paid by the learners (R55.00) is very little. The principal pointed out that there was very little possibility of increasing the fee as it had just been raised the previous year (1998), when the school had electricity and the telephone installed. The amount was raised with the intention of making it easier for the school to pay its telephone and electricity bills. What made it even more

difficult to raise the amount further is the fact that most of the parents are unemployed.

The comparison school also had a budget. This is not sufficient in meeting the needs of the school. The school fees in this case were R20-00. The school does not have extra finances from any quarters. The principal pointed out that this low fee was a direct result of politicians canvassing in the area, who promised free education.

The finance committee makes final decisions on the use of funds in the programme school. This is in contrast to the comparison school where such a decision is made by the principal and the governing body.

In both schools, the financial books were audited. The principal in the programme school said that TOPS training programme helped a lot in terms of proper financial management.

The principal in the programme school said that the TOPS school management programme has significantly impacted in the areas of staff relations, school management, general school culture and atmosphere, physical care of buildings and grounds as well as parental involvement. This impact has been moderate on the frequency of assessment of performance, while it has limited or no impact on teaching skills.

In-service programmes were arranged for teachers in the programme school. In 1996, four (4) M.S.T.P. courses were held in the school and were provided by M.S.T.P. facilitators. In 1997, seven (7) courses were offered by both SMT and M.S.T.P. in 1998 two courses were conducted by SMT, while in 1999 St. Barnabas College and the department of education conducted two (2) courses. This was in contrast to the comparison school, where the principal could not arrange for in service training for his teachers. He said that they could not have in-service training programmes, as they had not been informed about the right to do so.

The principal in the programme school conducted the induction of new teachers. This happened in the years 1993 to 1999. In those induction sessions, teachers were briefed on the mission and vision of the school, the school policy, school discipline and the school premises. In the comparison school, the principal did not have an understanding of what

teacher induction meant. Thus it was not arranged in the years 1993 to 1999. In his response, the principal said that they could not conduct teacher induction because they have not been invited.

Class visits were conducted in the programme school in the years 1993 to 1999. The principal's objectives in conducting such class visits had been to identify strengths and weaknesses of teachers with regard to subject methodology and classroom management. It was during those class visits that the principal realised that teachers in his school generally showed to have made a paradigm shift in terms of implementing the OBE. The principal was able to show that a course was conducted at his school on the 3rd of June 1997. This course had to do with the use of group work in class. The aspects that were handled were:

- Why use group work?
- Dynamics of group work.
- Self-evaluation.
- The best size for a group.
- How should groups be divided?
- Peer teaching.
- What is the teacher's role in group work?
- What about reporting back?
- Guidelines for effective group work.

We notice that OBE (Outcomes Based Education) is marketed under the brand name "Curriculum 2005". The following points distinguish OBE from the previously popular method of teaching i.e. lecturing:

- OBE regards learning as essentially an iterative process between and among educators and learners, with the learner at the centre of the process and the teacher serving as facilitator.
- The focus is on what the learner should know and do.
- It places strong emphasis on co-operative learning, especially group work and common

tasks.

- The goal is to produce active, life long learning, with a thirst for knowledge and a love of learning.

It should be noted that at the time the study was conducted, OBE had just been introduced in the lower grades of the primary school i.e. in grades 1 and 2. It had not yet been introduced in the higher grades of the primary school or the lower grades of the secondary school. In fact OBE was being introduced in phases. The intention was to achieve full course coverage of grades 1 to 12 by the year 2005. Even if that were the case, the principal showed that he visited teachers in their classes and he found:

- Teachers using group work extensively.
- The presentation by teachers was learner centred.
- The physical arrangement of learners and furniture was in-groups.
- Teachers made use of work sheets.
- Teachers engaged the learners in self-evaluation and peer evaluation.

From the foregoing discussion, it can be seen that group work as was taught to the teachers, exhibited some of the principles of OBE. More than that, the actual practice of the teachers in class was in line with the principles of OBE. It is for that reason that the principal made the assertion that teachers had embraced the principles of OBE.

The principal showed that he had a good idea of what is involved in OBE. This stems from the fact that besides training that was given to the teachers by St. Barnabas College, representatives of St. Barnabas College also visited the school to show the teachers what was expected of them. More than that, information with regard to the OBE programme was readily available. The electronic media, in particular the SABC, had been very supportive of the programme. Again the print media, through publication of supplementary materials had also been supportive of the OBE programme.

The principal was thus able to recognise the strengths of his teachers. The teachers were praised for embracing the OBE principles and practices.

Such class visits were not conducted in the comparison school. Instead, the principal only controlled books used by the pupils. The principal pointed out that since he had a subject to offer, he did not have time to conduct class visits.

The principal in the programme school pointed out that the TOPS school management programme served as a breakthrough in his school. It ushered in a new spirit of collective leadership, strong teacher-pupil and school-community relationships. This programme has really made the school what it is today. The principal was able to present explanations on these claims:

Collective leadership.

The principal pointed out that he is not the only leader at the school. He has been able to get other people to lead the school collectively with him. The examples he presented were:

- Teachers control late coming.
- Learners with problems are referred to the guidance committee. A number of problems are solved at that level and do not have to be taken to the principal.
- Learners are allowed to conduct morning devotions.
- The school has got several committees. In any instance, issues are raised by the committees and are presented to the principal and the staff as a whole. It is not so much a matter of the principal handing down decisions to the staff.
- The school has a rotation of chairpersons of management meetings.
- The principal, H.O.D.s and senior teachers meet to attend to matters such as planning, organising and implementation of activities of both short and long term nature.
- The teaching staff meet five minutes before assembly for purposes of disseminating information. The principal clearly pointed out that he wants to avoid a situation where an announcement is made to the learners and teachers, with both sections hearing it for the first time. His preference is to brief the teachers first before the learners are informed.
- The principal often allows teachers to make relevant announcements at the morning devotions. It is not just the principal who makes announcements.

- The school has a staff development programme. The purpose of the school development programme is to develop teachers, to make them more effective, so that the school can realise its goal. To this end, school based workshops are held. It is the individual departments at the school that determine areas of need that have to be accommodated on the school development programme.
- Members of staff are always given an opportunity to make suggestions on items to be included on the agenda for discussions in staff meetings. Members are given notice of meetings a week prior to the date of the meeting.
- There is a briefing session at the school every Tuesday. The teachers come together at 10:30 (Break) and are informed of the developments at the school.

Learner educator relations.

The principal showed that there are very good relations between the learners and the educators. The examples he cited were:

- Learners are allowed to conduct morning devotions. They alternate with teachers.
- Meetings are held with the Learners' Representative Council. The idea is to solicit inputs on the general development of the school.
- The learners through the guidance of teachers participate in Readathon celebrations.
- The learners in the different sporting codes are invited to meetings to draw itineraries for the year.
- Learners have been divided into groups for the purpose of keeping the premises clean. The premises are indeed very clean.
- Teachers are able to spot learners with problems. These are then referred to the guidance committee. In many instances the problems are solved at that level and do not need to be taken to the principal. At other times, teachers have to make follow-ups to the learners' home. Discussions at homes have often revealed the real problems troubling the learners at school. Teachers were then able to solve the learner's problems at school, in collaboration with the parents.
- The school keeps in touch with former learners, who have proceeded to tertiary

institutions. The principal cited a case where one of the former learners was enrolled at a university. The learner was to participate in a beauty contest. She phoned the principal to inform him of the event. She even requested the principal to inform learners at the school about the event and even to invite them to attend the occasion. The principal reported that learners from the school attended the occasion.

- Former learners of the school pay regular visits to the school

School community relations

The principal showed that there were good relations between the school and the community. There is co-operation. The examples he cited were:

- He did not hesitate to express his sincere thanks to the then school committee. He pointed out that it is through the efforts of the school committee that the school was able to procure help from AMPLATS. AMPLATS was thus able to help much with the physical development of the school by way of building more classrooms and an administration block. Of course we know that the school governing body has now replaced the school committee.
- AMPLATS visited the school on the 4th of February 1998 to guide and recruit learners in grade 11 and grade 12. Learners were made aware of job opportunities and bursaries.
- A training officer from the Atok Mine Community Affairs office visited the school to collect the 1998 management programme.
- Representatives visited the school from the Inter-Village Advice Centre. They offered special lessons on the constitution, human rights and the bill of rights.
- Learners from Mankweng visited the school on the 5th of February 1998. In conjunction with the Department of Health and Social Welfare they staged a drama on the HIV / AIDS awareness.

- The school has experienced a growing drop-out rate of girls who have fallen pregnant. The girls are of the ages between 16 and 20. The school has made a call on all the parents to stem this tide. It is to this end that the guidance committee arranged a number of health campaigns with the Moroke health centre.
- Parents are invited to regular meetings at the school. Audited financial reports are given at such meetings. A report on the general school development is given.
- The school has conducted a raffle draws. Learners and parents participated. The intention was to raise funds for the school.
- Parents are urged to develop more interest in the education of their children. Parents are urged to collaborate with educators to encourage learners to attend school lessons, to be on time, to do their written work, to observe school hours, to respect school property and to obey the rules and regulations of the school. Parents are prodded to run the show regarding the future of their children.
- Some nearby schools do not have duplicating machines. They rely on the school for help. In many instances, they do their own typing but take along their own stencil and duplicating paper to the school for duplication.
- The school is used as a transit point during examination time. This involves the Grade 12 examinations. The officers from the district office visit the school in the morning and leave the question papers for other schools in the area i.e. question papers that are to be written that day. Principals from neighbouring schools then collect the question papers for their schools here. Once the learners have written their exams the answer scripts are submitted to the principal at the programme school in the afternoon and the district office officials then collect these scripts.
- The school often allows learners to dress casually on certain Fridays in the year. The purpose is to raise funds for the school. Teachers are also allowed to dress casually.

Teachers have to pay one Rand while learners have to pay fifty cents to dress casually. This information is given to the parents so that they must not be surprised when learners ask for money to pay for having dressed casually while going to school.

- There are several community-based organisations in the village. These organisations often ask for permission to hold their meetings on the school premises. The requests are always granted.

5.5. THE SCHOOL ENVIRONMENT.

The environment in both schools was seen to be conducive to learning. There were no major disruptions or noises. During the researcher's visit, the only noises observable came from passing traffic. This is the case as the schools are located near the main road. The schools are located within 100 to 150m from the road. These are provincial roads linking major centres in the province.

No littering could be observed in the two schools. It was only in the comparison school where rubble could be observed within the schoolyard. This rubble has been dumped next to the main gate. The rubble is also observable between the classrooms and the principal's office. A teacher explained that this rubble resulted from a building that had its roof blown away on two occasions. Besides the rubble, one could see pieces of broken chairs, desks and tables. These were strewn across the yard. There is also a small dam between the classrooms and the principal's office. This dam was used for storing water when the school was under construction. An accumulation of refuse could be seen in this dam.

Both schools have got short grass. There is no garden in either school. In the programme school, some trees have been planted in front of the administration building. Some flowers have also been planted in front of the principal's office. On the day of the visit, a hose could be seen running from the tap to the trees, which were being watered.

Both schools have fences, which are 2.5m high. The programme school even has razor wire

on top of the fence. The gates in the programme school are securely locked and are kept closed all day. The emblem of the school is also displayed at the main gate. The motto of the school on the emblem reads: "*We shall seek knowledge like a shining Silver Star*". There is also a plate at the gate, which gives a clear message that the school is a project sponsored by Lebowa Platinum Mines (Pty) Ltd. This is in contrast to the comparison school where the gates are not locked. They are left open, even at night. The reason given by a teacher was that it was difficult to lock the gates as people from the village have a bad habit of taking a short-cut route through the school yard when they move from one end of the village to the other. The principal also pointed at a big hole in the fence near the gate. Some people from the village had made this deliberately. He said that it did not help to lock the gates in the absence of a night watchman.

There was no security guard on duty in either school. The principal in the programme school said that they have a night watchman. He said that they used to have some vandalism but it stopped as soon as they had appointed the night watchman. In neither school is there any designated parking area for members of staff. In the programme school, cars are parked in the little bit of shade next to the building. In contrast, the comparison school has a big tree and members of staff park their cars under its shade. Generally, the school buildings are clean, but since it was examination time, the classrooms had not been swept for some time and an accumulation of dust was visible on the floors.

Staff toilets were in a working condition in the programme school. The toilets are located within the administration building. These are flush toilets and they have a very strong flow of water and are clean. In contrast, the toilets in the comparison school are only pit toilets. There are two toilets for members of staff: one for males, the other one for females. At the time of the visit, only one toilet was in a usable condition as the other one had had its seat smashed in a deliberate act of vandalism.

Toilets for pupils were in a working condition in the programme school. These are modern toilets using the enviro-loo system. The toilets also have hand basins. There was some water leakage from the basins and the floor was full of water. There was also an accumulation of dust on the floor. The mixing of water and dust resulted in mud on the floor. The principal

pointed out that the dust had accumulated, as the pupils had not been to school regularly as they were writing their examination, thus it had been impossible for them to clean the toilets. The principal said that pupils from different classes were responsible for the cleaning of the toilets on given days of the week. A look through the minute book of the school confirmed this.

Toilets in the comparison school were very dirty. They were not even in use. A teacher explained that the pupils preferred to relieve themselves in the nearby bushes. The toilets are located outside the school fence. This is because, when the fence was erected, the school did not have enough money to erect a fence that covered the whole area designated as the schoolyard. Thus the toilets are located on ground belonging to the school but outside the fence.

There are no signs of vandalism on the school grounds and buildings in the programme school. Only five (5) broken windowpanes could be seen. The principal explained that these got broken when the wind forced the windows to close at great speed. Only one door had been knocked out of the doorframe. This was caused by the constant, forced swinging of the door by wind. The door was still intact and the principal showed a newly installed door latch that would help to stop the door from such wild swings.

Vandalism was very evident in the comparison school. Many windowpanes were broken; out of a total of 720 classroom panes, 189 were broken. Most of the windowpanes were observed to have been painted with a splash of red or green paint. The principal explained that this was their attempt at stopping thieves from stealing the windowpanes. The idea is that the paint will help in their identification in case they are stolen and installed in a house in the village. A teacher pointed out that some learners had said that they would break the windowpanes since the paint made it difficult for them to steal them. The principal also explained that the hinges of some of the windows had been welded closed as the handles had been stolen. Three of the windows had had their hinges ripped off. One such hinge was seen lying on the ground between the blocks of classroom buildings. The comparison school has nine (9) classrooms. Only three (3) classrooms have doors. The rest have been stolen. The doors have been ripped out of their frames and the three remaining doors have no locks.

One teacher explained that vandalism was bad that some people in the village have gone to the extent of defecating in the classrooms. This shocking deed was experienced in all classes except one during the year 1999.

The toilets meant for the pupils have been extensively vandalised. The doors, together with their frames, have been stolen. The roof has also been stolen. The toilet seats have been broken. Even the school fence has been vandalised. Besides the holes in the fence, the principal also pointed out that the even the poles were being stolen. He pointed out two black poles in the fence. These were different from the rest, which had been painted grey. Explanation was that these black poles had been stolen and were retrieved. By the time they retrieved them, they had already been painted in a different colour. The mode of operation of the thieves was to steal one or two poles from one section of the fence, skip one section and then steal more poles from another section. They do this so as to make it difficult for the school community to see straightaway that the fence is being stolen.

The comparison school has no running water, despite the fact that there are three pipes that serve as evidence that the school once had three taps with running water. A date inscribed on the concrete supporting the pipes shows that the pipes were installed in October 1995. A teacher confirmed that indeed they had running water, trenches for which were dug up by the teachers and pupils. They laid the main supply line. Unfortunately the taps have been stolen but the bigger problem is that some people from the village have cut the main supply line, hence the absence of running water in his school. This is in great contrast to the situation in the program school, where there is running water. The school has three bore-holes and three tanks on stands to allow the water to flow by the force of gravity. There are three taps and they are all well maintained. The principal explained that a bore-hole and two tanks were donated by AMPLATS. The other borehole and tank were provided by the Department of Education through its programme of poverty relief. The principal explained that he did not know what method the department used to select schools for such help.

There was no sign of graffiti on the school buildings in the programme school. This is different from the comparison school, where some graffiti was observed on the walls. This

was based on “YIZO YIZO”, a recent television play that sought to show the level of violence that teachers and pupils had to grapple with in our schools. Besides this, there was some obscene language inscribed onto the walls of the school buildings.

The vandalism in the comparison school is so bad that on the day of the visit, a new time book had just come into use. The principal explained that the actual time-book that had been in use for quite some time disappeared from his office the previous week. It disappeared together with the log book. The principal’s attempt at reducing the level of vandalism was observable from the manner in which his office had become a cage, with all openings fitted with burgler bars.

Both schools do not have special facilities like a gym, music room, art room, biology laboratory, and geography room or home economics centre. While the comparison school does not have a physical science laboratory, such a laboratory is available in the programme school. This laboratory has got all equipment necessary. A cupboard full of chemicals could be seen. There are many other things like beakers, tripod stands, Bunsen burners, electricity boards etc. The principal explained that some of these were supplied by AMPLATS. The one big shortcoming was the absence of furniture in this laboratory. Because of this, the laboratory was not fully functional. It had come to double as a staffroom for some teachers and partly as a storeroom. Some sporting equipment could be seen stored in the laboratory.

The programme school has a library. The problem with the library is that it is not fully equipped and it has no shelves. Some books could be seen on the floor. There are about 200 books in the library. These include fiction, subject literature, subject encyclopaedia and atlases. There are no newspapers except a few cuttings made by teachers. These are mainly for purposes of assignments. Teachers donated the few magazines that are there. These have also been cut-up. This is so as some teachers actually requested such a donation, as they wanted the pupils to do some assignments. These assignments involved such cuttings. The programme school also has a teacher librarian. Provisioning of issue cards has been made in the books that were donated by AMPLATS. The library patrons are also provided with cards, especially for the books donated by AMPLATS. Rules on conduct in the library are

not displayed. There are also no rules on the use of the library. In contrast, the comparison school does not have a library.

Both schools do not have areas specially designated for pupils' recess. During break, some learners stay in class while the others go to the nearby shops to buy food. Both schools have space for physical and athletic activities. In both schools there is a netball court and a football field. The athletic track has not been well developed. In the programme school, the principal pointed out that they have a promise from AMPLATS that the sports field will be fully developed. The development of sports field shall be the second phase of development. The first has been the erection of the administration building and the two classroom blocks. It may be mentioned at this point that AMPLATS was actually approached by the school for financial assistance and they responded very positively. Pupils have got equal access to the sporting facilities in both schools. Explanation in the comparison school was that the pupils did not make adequate use of the sports field. In most cases, the teachers have to push the pupils to the sports field to participate in sport, especially when there are upcoming matches.

Pupils in the comparison school were mostly not in uniform especially the boys. A teacher explained that uniform is not enforced. This was in contrast to the programme school where most pupils were in uniform. The principal pointed out that there were cases where some pupils came to school without uniform. He said parents who are very poor and cannot afford to buy the required uniform are encouraged to approach the school authority and state their position. The principal also indicated that casual wear was introduced in 1998. This occurs on designated Fridays. It is a way of raising funds, where pupils who decide to wear casually on such days are made to pay fifty cents. Teachers are made to pay one Rand. The principal said the system works well. On the days of the visits, the teachers in both schools were well dressed.

Both schools do not have administrative support people like a secretary, clerk or receptionist.

There are time-books for teachers in both schools. The principals control these, though not

everyday. The programme school has a telephone. This is well controlled. Teachers are not allowed to make outgoing calls but are allowed to receive incoming calls. The principal has a register in which he records all outgoing calls that are made. Only official calls are made. This telephone is located in the principal's office. This is in contrast to the comparison school where there is no telephone.

Neither school has a copier but both have duplicators. There are no standing rules on the use of these duplicators in both schools. In the programme school some two teachers have been assigned to do the duplication for other teachers. They are always to be given exact numbers that they have to duplicate. A small notice could be seen on the wall next to the duplicator. This was a reminder that teachers from neighbouring schools, who need to be helped with duplication, had to bring their own ink and paper. This was so, as the school could not carry the financial burden of other schools. More than that, the programme school still had to pay for its electricity used in the duplication.

Both schools have manual typewriters. There are no control measures in place for the use of the typewriters. Teachers just use them very freely and it would not be very easy to tell at once which teacher had the typewriter at one given moment.

The offices were fairly clean in both schools. The office in the comparison school had to double as a storeroom and duplicating room. The two duplicators could be seen in the principal's office. More than that, piles of boxes containing duplicating paper could be seen. Drums containing cleaning material are also located in the office.

The offices in the programme school have no shelves. The principal has got two steel cabinets in the strong room. He said this was for reasons of security. This was unlike the comparison school where the offices have strong steel shelves and cupboards. All the books and documents are well stored on the shelves or in the cupboards.

The two schools have got well developed filing systems. In both cases, the principal could locate documents very easily. The principal in the comparison school has opened files with the following headings: annual quarterly returns, circulars from the department, examination

circulars, religious education, schedules, official computerised examination schedules, inspection reports, buildings and sites, equipment and departmental supplies, school file for pupils, school governing body, establishment / staff and grants, financial matters, registration and closing. The principal in the programme school has files under the following headings: results and examination entries, circulars, staff development, book committee matters, fundraising, timetables, guidance matters, legal documents, question papers, teaching post applications, syllabi, environment committee, learning teams activities, specimens, school governing body matters, news letter, invoices, bank statements and AMPLATS. There are also files for financial matters from 1991 to 1998, a file for each year.

Neither school has a storeroom. In the comparison school, the principal's office also serves as a storeroom, while in the programme school the strong room is used. There are no standing measures of control on the use of material from the stores. In the programme school the principal keeps the key to the strong room and he opens for whoever wants to get something from there. He is not always able to do this as he has lessons to offer. Thus he often gives the key to some other teachers to open and close the strong room. In the comparison school, everything is in the principal's office and he is always watching. The problem is that he also has lessons to offer and he is thus often out of the office.

5.6. THE SCHOOL DAY.

The school day starts officially at 7H50 in the programme school, while it is 7H45 in the comparison school. In both schools, it was not possible to record the actual starting time for pupils, as it was examination time. In both cases the principal arrived early while the teachers arrived on time.

No teacher was late in both schools on the day of the visit. The principals pointed out that some teachers often came late. When this happened, the teacher is called to the principal's office and is given some advice. If a teacher reports late in the comparison school, he / she often has to explain to the principal as to why he / she arrived late.

Principals in both schools said that they have mechanisms to deal with late coming by pupils. In the programme school, there is a timetable for teachers to control late coming. Late pupils are made to wait at the gate till the morning devotion is over. Their names are taken and are compared to the attendance register. This is done to check whether the pupils who come late are in the habit of such late coming or absenting themselves from school. Pupils who are found to be having problems are referred to the guidance committee for advice. The guidance committee is very effective in the sense that some of the problems do not have to be taken to the principal as they are solved at committee level. If the problem persists the parents are called in. Parental involvement is also seen to be effective as some of the causes of late coming are seen to be social in nature. Instances have been noted where pupils came late because they had been sent on errands by their grannies in the morning before they could go to school. There is also punishment in the form of manual labour for late pupils. This involves the cleaning of the surroundings and watering of trees. The principal pointed out that manual punishment is still accepted by the pupils.

Pupils who come late in the comparison school are made to pick up paper and to cut the grass. A teacher explained that the cutting of grass often presented a problem in the sense that the school does not have implements and often has to rely on those borrowed from nearby homes. Another measure that is in place involves the closing of the gate, so that late pupils cannot enter the school grounds while the morning devotion is in progress. The pupils are then only allowed in during short break i.e. after the first three (3) periods of the day. A teacher said that as staff they are aware that this practice means individual pupils lose much learning time, but the problem is that their classes are too congested with no passage to allow movement in between the desks. This often means that a pupil has to walk on top of the desks to get to his / her place in class. This causes much disruption. Thus belief is that one pupil would better lose learning time than to have the rest of the class being disturbed in this manner.

5.7. ASSEMBLY.

This could not be observed, as it was examination time. The principals in both schools explained that they have morning devotion everyday of the week. This is conducted in the

open in both schools. In both schools, English and the mother tongue are used to address the learners. Learners are described as attentive during devotions. Activities during assembly involved announcements, motivation, encouraging learners to dress properly and to comb their hair i.e. in both schools. One significant observation is that in the programme school the learners are given an opportunity to conduct morning devotions. The principal showed a morning devotion timetable that had names of pupils on it. The timetable showed the class the pupils belonged to and the days and dates on which they were to conduct the morning devotion. This was not the case in the comparison school.

5.8. BREAK.

The principal in the programme school displayed a timetable in his office. This showed that there was only one break at the school. It starts at 10H55 and ends at 11H40. It is 45 minutes long. On the other hand, the comparison school has two breaks. The first break starts at 10H15 and ends at 10H25. It is 10 minutes long. The second break starts at 12H40 and ends at 14H05. It is 75 minutes long.

In both schools, the principal often stays in the office and continues with office work. At times they have their lunch. They also do marking as they offer lessons. The majority of the teachers have their lunch. Some get themselves prepared for the next lessons while some stay in the staff room. The majority of the learners go home for their lunch during long break. In the comparison school, the short break is mainly used by pupils to relieve themselves.

5.9. AFTER SCHOOL.

The official closing time is 14H00 in the programme school. The principal said that this was the actual closing time. The learners have supervised study after school. This takes place between 14H00 and 14H30. The learners actually have learning teams. The teachers have been divided into study supervision groups. A timetable for this could be seen on the wall in the principal's office. In the comparison school the official closing time is 15H00. There is no after school study in the comparison school. The explanation given by one teacher is that

the teachers stay very far from the school and have to travel. In most cases, they make use of a common means of transport. The problem is that this common means of transport collects teachers from different schools. This has an effect on individual teachers in the sense that the teacher has to leave the school as soon as the means of transport arrives.

Learners in the programme school engage in extra-mural activities. The school timetable observable in the principal's office shows activities like Students' Christian Movement (SCM) debate and sports. The sporting codes include soccer, netball, softball, and *tennisquoit*. They also have indoor games like chess and Monopoly. The comparison school also has extra-mural activities like soccer and netball. A teacher explained that it was very difficult to get the learners to participate in sports. They only engage in sport after much persuasion, when they are to have an up-coming match. There is also a great problem of teachers who show no interest in sport. Thus the pupils also do not participate.

The principal in the programme school often stays behind after school. This he does because he has got lessons to offer and does not have much time to do office work during the day. In the comparison school, the principal also stays behind. This is mainly for purposes of control. He checks whether teachers have attended to the attendance registers. He also takes this time to log whichever teacher was absent from duty. He also has to make sure that his office together with the staff room are locked and are clean. The school has one (1) H.O.D. and one (1) deputy principal who do not remain after school.

Some teachers, e.g. the treasurer, stay behind in the programme school. The treasurer stays behind to look into the financial matters of the school. Other teachers stay behind for extra lessons and to solve problems of particular pupils. In the comparison school, some teachers stay behind only on sports days. It is only the mathematics teacher who often stays behind for purposes of offering lessons.

5.10. MAJOR EVENTS ON THE DAY OF THE VISIT.

On the day of the visit, a number of parents visited the programme school throughout the day. They came in and went out one after the other. At times the foyer to the principal's

office was full of these parents who were attended to by three teachers. As explained earlier, these parents had come to have their children registered for the year 2000; this was being done to avoid much waste of time at the beginning of the New Year. The principal said that they wanted to start with lessons right away. He pointed out that this was in keeping with a directive from the department of education.

Secondly, a principal from a neighbouring school came in to collect a Standard 10 history examination question paper. The principal in the programme school explained that their school was used as a transit point for examination question papers and answer scripts. The area office officials left the question papers with him so that principals from neighbouring schools could collect them from him. As soon as the examination session came to an end, the principals brought the answer scripts to him so that departmental officials could pick them up. The principal had a register in which he recorded all papers received and taken. All papers were signed for. There was no significant event in the comparison school.

5.11. CONCLUSION.

In this chapter, the similarities and differences between the two schools were considered. The similarities include the appointment of the principals at post level four (4), the rural location of the two schools at a point close to the road. They have well-developed filing systems and all keep minutes of their meetings. They are also similar in terms of lack of administrative support personnel.

The differences are numerous and far-reaching. For example, the management teams are different. In the programme school, the principal is helped by three teachers who serve as H.O.D.s but are not appointed. This is unlike in the comparison school where the deputy principal helps the principal and an appointed H.O.D. the principal in the programme school receives no management support from his union, while the principal in the comparison school gets support from his union. The principal in the programme school has had management training, not only from TOPS but also from other institutions as well. The principal in the comparison school has not had any such training. There is clear planning in the programme school, while such planning has not been very evident in the

comparison school. A mission statement and policies have been well drawn in the programme school, a feature that is lacking in the comparison school. The programme school also has several committees in place, while they are lacking in the comparison school. Again, the programme school is well kept, while the comparison school has been greatly vandalised. The programme school has a well-developed modern administration block, a feature conspicuously absent in the comparison school.

CHAPTER 6

INTERPRETATION

6.1. INTRODUCTION

This chapter is a presentation of the analysed data that was presented in Chapter 5. A discussion on the observed characteristics of an excellent school is put forward. The programme school is compared to these characteristics to see which of these the school satisfies. Secondly, a look is made at the expected outcomes of the TOPS school management programme. An attempt is made at finding out as to which of these is / are observable within the programme school. Lastly, several propositions are put forward, to see which of these could be responsible for the observed better performance / effectiveness of the programme school.

6.2. OBSERVABLE CHARACTERISTICS OF AN EFFECTIVE SCHOOL.

The concluding part in the previous chapter highlighted similarities and differences between the two selected schools. It looks like the differences are more than the similarities. More than that, the differences are such that the programme school appears to be functioning better than the comparison school. From the data presented, the programme school fared better in areas like:

- Aims.
- Communication.
- Discipline.
- Environment.
- Effective use of time.
- The curriculum.
- Strong leadership.

It should be remembered that these selected areas were identified as characteristics of an effective school. It may therefore be correct to assume that a school may be deemed to be effective if it shows those characteristics.

Aims.

As regards the aims, we have seen that the programme school has a well drawn vision and mission statement.

Communication.

The many meetings held at the school are testimony to the fact that there is good communication at the school. Added to this is the presence of the newsletter. The various committees and their valued, accepted contribution in the running of the school also show that there is good communication. Parents have also been shown to be communicating well with the school for example in cases where their children come to school without uniform, with such parents being able to approach the school's authorities to state their case.

Discipline.

Discipline is well maintained at the programme school. This is greatly underpinned by well-drawn policies which clearly outline what is expected and acceptable at the school. Reference has been made to teachers who seemed to behave well on the day of the visit. The school policy clearly outlines expected behaviour on the part of the pupils. The attire of the teachers is also acceptable. The principal's explanation on how they treat late coming and how this is acceptable to the learners shows that there is good discipline at the school. The clean surroundings and absence of vandalism also indicate that there is good discipline. The school environment is conducive to learning.

Good use of time.

There is good use of time in the programme school. A simple illustration of this could be the

break. There is just one break in the programme school, lasting only 45 minutes. The availability of afternoon studies, where study groups are used shows that there is effective use of time. Of course it has been shown that there are teachers monitoring these study groups. This helps to ensure that the learners do not waste valuable time.

The curriculum.

The curriculum in the programme school is a good one. This is so as it caters for a wide range of pupils. The curriculum is structured in such a way that it accommodates learners in the general stream with conventional subjects like History and Geography. The curriculum also provides for the field of science, where subjects like Mathematics and Physical Science with Biology are available. The curriculum is also making an attempt at vocational education where a subject like the Electrician's work is included.

Table 3 shows the curriculum in the two schools.

Table 3. Subjects in the two schools

PROGRAMME SCHOOL	COMPARISON SCHOOL
1. Sepedi	1. Sepedi
2. English.	2. English
3. Afrikaans.	3. Afrikaans.
4. Mathematics.	4. Mathematics.
5. General Science.	5. General Science.
6. Biology.	6. Biology.
7. Geography.	7. Geography.
8. Physical Science.	8. History.
9. Electrician's work.	

10. Guidance.	
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Strong leadership.

The programme school has a strong leadership. This is clearly reflected in the bold strides taken by the principal and his management team. The management team works in collaboration with the established committees at the school. The management team has been able to co-ordinate activities in such a way that the school could secure funds to put up the needed extra buildings, the fence and one borehole. The management team has also been able to arrange for in-service training of the teachers, several seminars were held. A number of organisations often engaged the teachers in training. The ability to plan ahead and produce a well-drawn plan for the year is further testimony to a well-managed school. The general appearance of the school reflects clearly coordinated activities.

It is not surprising that even in the area of examinations at standard ten (10) level, the programme school performs much better than the comparison school. Table 4 below shows the performance of these schools in the years 1995 to 1998.

Table 4. Pass percentages at Standard 10 level

YEAR	PROGRAMME SCHOOL	COMPARISON SCHOOL	DIFFERENCE IN %
1995	69.2	29.89	39.31
1996	52.4	37	15.4
1997	45.7	31.11	14.59
1998	70.6	35.2	35.4

Table 4 clearly shows that over the four years, the programme school has consistently

performed significantly better than the comparison school. The difference in terms of performance was even much more significant in the years 1995 and 1998. The average difference in performance in the four years is 26%, which is quite significant.

6.3. EVIDENT TOPS OUTCOMES IN THE PROGRAMME SCHOOL.

It may be helpful at this stage, to look at some of the expected outcomes of the TOPS programme. The purpose is to see whether such outcomes are evident in the programme school after a successful implementation of the programme.

The first outcome is that the principal should interact with teachers about their work and that of the students. The programme school satisfied this requirement in the sense that the minutes of some meetings revealed that issues pertaining to the work of teachers and that of the learners were discussed. Issues involved in discussions included for example memoranda. The setting of question papers, the selection of committees to deal with certain aspects of the schoolwork etc.

The second outcome is that the principal should interact with students about their work through class visits. The principal in the programme school satisfied this requirement in the sense that he conducted class visits, and he could see that teachers generally showed to have made a paradigm shift in terms of implementing OBE. He also found the group method to be the most prevalent in the classrooms. As already said, this helped the principal to recognise the teachers' strength. Thus teachers were praised for embracing OBE principles and practices.

The third outcome is that the principal should communicate with all staff members about school matters and hold regular meetings. The principal in the programme school does communicate with the staff about such matters and does hold regular meetings. Staff meetings are held at least once a month. Emergency meetings are also held when necessary. The holding of such meetings is attested to by the minute book.

Fourthly, the principal has to involve the community in decision making through

management bodies. The principal in the programme school has done this. He has had parents' meetings. He also has a school governing body.

The principal is also expected to advise teachers on instructional matters, through seminars. More than that, the principal has to arrange instructional in-service opportunities and regular staff seminars for teachers. The principal in the programme school has done these. The principals have also coordinated induction sessions for new teachers, wherein they were briefed on the mission and vision of the school, the school policy and the school premises.

The principal in the programme school has successfully delegated authority roles, and responsibility to other staff through committees. There are several committees in the programme school. A good example is the guidance committee, which is able to solve some problems even before they reach the level of the principal.

The principal in the programme school shares decision making with teachers and other structures as expected. The school has got several committees, which make plans that are in turn presented to the whole school. Besides the committees, there are some training organisations, which help the principal in training the staff. Parents are also involved in decision-making.

6.4. AN EXAMINATION OF POSSIBLE CAUSES OF EFFECTIVENESS IN THE PROGRAMME SCHOOL.

At this stage, it is important to find out as to what it is that makes the difference in the two schools. What makes the programme school better? It should be remembered that at the beginning of this study, it was explained that it would be seen whether a successful implementation of the TOPS school management programme would lead to better performance by the schools. Thus an attempt shall be made to see what could possibly be responsible for this effectiveness. In order to do that, a number of variables, which seem to have an influence in such a way that they may bring about better performance shall be examined. Such an examination is based on the data presented in Chapter 5.

It looks like the post level of the principal has an influence on the effectiveness of a school. We note that in this case, the two principals are appointed at post level four (4). Thus we would expect the two schools to perform equally, as there are no differences as regards the principal's post level. Yet there is a great difference. It would appear as though the post level is not so much of an issue here.

The redeployment of teachers is another factor. It is clear that the programme school has lost no teacher, while the comparison school has lost two (2) teachers through restructuring. This may not be seen to have led to the programme school performing better than the comparison school. This is the case, especially when one realises that, teachers in the Northern Province were declared in excess around July / August 1999. In fact no teacher movement had taken place as yet, at the time this study was conducted.

The principal's membership to a union perhaps has an influence on the effectiveness of the school. The principal in the programme school has shown that while he belongs to a union, he receives absolutely no help in management matters from his union. He clearly pointed out that his union is most interested in the material conditions of its members, with school management not being on their priority list. While that is the case, the programme school is more effective. The principal in the comparison school has shown to be receiving advice on management matters from his union. Yet his school is not as effective as the programme school. Union membership of the principal in the programme school is therefore ruled out as a cause of the effectiveness of the school.

Perhaps the experience of the management team has an effect on the effectiveness of the school. What this would mean is that the longer the experience of the management team, the more effective the school shall be. We note that this is not the case. The principal in the comparison school has been in his position for a period of fourteen (14) years. On the other hand, the principal of the programme school has been in his position for a period of nine (9) years, yet the programme school is more effective than the comparison school. More than that, the one H.O.D. in the comparison school has been in that position for a period of eight (8) years. It should be remembered that there is no appointed H.O.D. in the programme school, but the programme school is more effective. It can therefore be seen

that a lengthy experience in terms of years of experience served in a management position has not led to the observed effectiveness of the programme school.

The several briefings by the department of education in the province cannot be overlooked. The principal in the comparison school has shown that many such briefings were attended by principals. If all principals attended such briefings, then that would make them equal in that respect. We would expect all schools to perform equally. The problem is that this comparison school is not as effective as the programme school. We therefore rule out such briefings as the cause of such school effectiveness as realised in the programme school.

The other factor that may have caused the difference is the physical or geographical location of the school. When the comparison school was included in this study, the main reason for doing that was to help in the explanation of whatever differences that may be noticed. The attempt was to make it easy to ascribe such differences to the programme introduced in the programme school. It was therefore important to have both schools located in either a rural or urban area, so that a difference in location should not present a difference in an unnoticed manner.

As already explained, the schools are located in a rural area. Thus it appears location would not have any unobservable influence on the performance of the schools. It has come to light that while these schools are located in the rural area, there is a difference in the sense that the programme school is located near the platinum mine. What has emerged is that the platinum mine has embarked on a social investment programme, wherein the Mine has decided to improve the quality of the schools in the neighbouring villages. The programme school involved in this study happens to be one of the four schools in the programme provided by the Mine. In Chapter 5, there was explanation on how the Mine has financed development in the programme school. The development involved the erection of two classroom blocks, erection of the administration block, the fence, and the borehole and two tanks on stands. Some library books and laboratory equipment were also included.

These developments in the programme school clearly put it in an advantageous position, far ahead of the comparison school. In this way, the location of the school seems to have

favoured the programme school. It would also appear that the programme school did not do anything extraordinary to have such a positive relationship with the Mine. It would be so as the other schools around the Mine shall also be benefiting from the investment programme of the Mine.

The chronological development of events in the programme school did not occur by chance, and the location of the school did not necessarily lead to the current better position. As the principal in the programme school explained, it is the school through its fund raising committee that made the first move. The school wrote a letter to AMPLATS, asking for financial help. They pointed out that they wanted to put up the two classroom blocks and the administration block. This was when the school still consisted of only two classroom blocks of three classrooms each, and a small office. AMPLATS agreed to their request and the needs of the school were met. This whole development caused problems in the village and neighbouring villages. Upon hearing of developments taking place in the programme school, a group of people calling themselves the R.D.P. almost derailed the process. This group went directly to the Mine and demanded that instead of this development at the school, they (R.D.P.) should be given the money to establish a training centre in the village. Schools in the neighbouring villages, who witnessed the development at the programme school also demanded that they also be given similar assistance by the same mine. The principal explained that there was great tension in the village and AMPLATS almost pulled out of the deal to develop their school. A series of meetings took place and as a compromise, the demand for a training centre was dropped. The Mine agreed to help in developing three other schools. Hence, the current involvement of the other schools in the social investment drives by the Mine.

The foregoing discussion clearly shows that the location of the school in itself cannot be seen to have given the programme school an advantage over the comparison school. It was much more the efforts of the teaching staff together with school management team that ignited the development witnessed. This happened after training by TOPS had taken place.

It would be helpful to look at the profile of the two schools, as the profile may affect the effectiveness of a school. One example of such an influence could be where there was a

shortage of classes or the number of classrooms differed greatly. The table below presents the obtaining conditions at the two schools.

Table 5. Profile of the schools

	PROGRAMME SCHOOL	COMPARISON SCHOOL
Number of classes	12 (Only 8 in use)	09
Number of teachers	12	14
Number of pupils	385	400

It is clear from Table 5 that there is no great difference between the two schools as regards the number of classes. While it was explained earlier in Chapter 5, that there is great congestion in the classrooms in the comparison school, a similar condition obtains in the programme school, where there are about 50 pupils in a class. As the table shows, only eight classrooms are in use at the programme school, with the construction of the other four (4) having been just completed. What this means is that up to the time of this study, the comparison school had an advantage of an extra classroom as it had 9 classrooms. It is thus very clear that the programme school cannot be seen to have been more effective simply because it had more classrooms or its classes were less congested.

Secondly, there is the issue of the number of teachers in the schools. As Table 5 shows, the teachers in the comparison school are more than those in the programme school. The number of teachers could have been seen to be causing the difference if those in the programme school were more than those in the comparison school. Of course more teachers would have meant less workload per teacher and therefore better performance and effectiveness/ perhaps this issue can be tied to the number of pupils in the schools. Table 5 shows that there are just 15 pupils that separate the two schools. This means that for the extra 15 pupils, the comparison school has extra two (2) teachers. If the comparison school could be seen to have been disadvantaged by the extra fifteen (15) pupils, such a disadvantage has been greatly cancelled by a huge advantage of extra two (2) teachers. It is therefore not even surprising that in the restructuring programme, the

comparison school is to lose two (2) teachers.

From the foregoing discussion, it is very clear that issues like the number of teachers, classrooms and the number of pupils have not necessarily favoured the programme school, to help it perform better than the comparison school.

The data collected has shown that the principal in the programme school attended four (4) management courses from 1993 to 1999. The principal in the comparison school did not attend any management-training course. If this is the case, and the programme school performs better, then logic would tell that it should be these management courses that brought about the difference between the schools.

It should be kept in mind that this study used the TOPS management course as an example. Observation has revealed that TOPS was not the only management course at the school. There was for example the management course by Shuter and Shooter. The principal in the programme school explained that this course was meant for all principals in the education area. There was also the M.S.T.P. course. This was a course based on conflict management. Then there was the DAMELIN course, which was mainly for personnel management. What is evident is that the TOPS programme came first and was followed by other courses. While TOPS could be seen to have laid the foundation, it cannot be denied that these other courses could have strengthened the principal and his management team.

6.5. CONCLUSION.

Discussions in this chapter have revealed that the programme school exhibits characteristics of an effective school as were stated in Chapter 3. It has also come to light that most of the expected outcomes of a well-implemented TOPS management programme are clearly observable in the programme school. Lastly an examination of the possible causes of better performance / effectiveness in the programme school revealed that training by TOPS could be a major cause of such effectiveness. It is recognised that other forms of training took place at the school. The other training obviously could have strengthened the

initial effects of TOPS. What is quite evident is that the management training by TOPS laid the foundation for the observed effectiveness in the programme school.

In the following chapter, the general conclusions of this study are presented.

CHAPTER 7

GENERAL CONCLUSIONS

The programme evaluated is the TOPS school management course. The evaluation carried out in this study has highlighted certain principles aligned to evaluation studies. A brief discussion that follows is based on each of these selected principles. The principles are:

- a. Timing.
- b. Data collection instruments.
- c. The unit of evaluation.
- d. Concept clarity.
- e. Focus on design and methodology.
- f. Focus on the strengths of a qualitative evaluation.

7.1. Timing.

It would be better if an evaluation starts before implementation of a programme, go through the lifespan of the programme and terminate after the completion of the programme. One main advantage of such evaluation is that it would give clear reports on the success and failures of the programme. The results may even be seen to be much closer to the truth. More than that, the continuous evaluation would be helpful to the implementers of the programme, the funders or any other interested parties. In such a case, it would be possible to spot problems early and to suggest and implement corrective measures at the right time. This approach would constitute what has been termed “formative” evaluation.

As explained in this study, the evaluation carried out here took place after the programme had ended. The programme ended in 1996. This has made it difficult to come in to contact with for example, the implementers of the programme. It was also not possible to come into

contact with managers of the programme. One other problem that was experienced is that when the schools were visited, it was already examination time. This was not per choice. I wrote a letter to the Department of Education in the Northern Province in April 1999. In that letter I requested that I be allowed to conduct research in the province. There was no response to the initial letter. A second letter even had to be written. A positive response only came in October, when examinations had commenced. Hence the late visits to the schools.

All the same, not all was lost, as the mode adopted was that of a summative research. It was still possible to gather data through interviews, document analysis and observation. It is believed that such a supply of information from different sources helped to present data that is reliable, and results that are not far from the truth.

7.2. Data collection instruments

Two instruments were used. First, a schedule for interviews with principals was used. Secondly, there was an observation schedule for schools. These instruments were not piloted. The reason is that the instruments were in the main, adapted from an evaluation of the Thousand Schools Project. This is an evaluation that covered the nine provinces of South Africa. The evaluation was coordinated by Professor Johann Mouton of the University of Stellenbosch. The instruments were used with great success in that evaluation. More than that, the instruments have been standardised for data collection in the Thousand Schools Project. The instruments were developed as a joint effort between the provinces and the central coordinating agency. The draft versions of the instruments were discussed at national workshops. It may therefore be correct to assume that the instruments were well structured and had been tested for use before.

7.3. The unit of evaluation

This study has identified TOPS school management programme as the unit of evaluation. It must be made clear that the intention of the study, as the topic indicates, was to check on the impact of the school management programme on school effectiveness. To succeed in that endeavour, an example had to be found. The example thus used is the TOPS school

management programme.

What is clear is that a programme such as the TOPS school management course can be evaluated from different perspectives i.e. from point of conception of the programme, the planning, needs assessment, compilation of material, recruitment, attrition, funding, training of facilitators, actual implementation, management of the programme, establishment of centres and impact. I believe that this study made its intentions very clear. The purpose is to evaluate the impact of the programme. That is the unit of evaluation of this study.

7.4. Conceptual clarity

If a programme is to be successful, then it must have well-stated goals. The goals should be achievable and must be measurable. It is on the basis of the goals being achieved that the programme may be seen to have been successful. It may then be possible to measure the extent of the success of the programme.

In the case of the TOPS school management programme, the goals were clearly stated. The goals were very realistic and practical. More than that, the programme had well-stated expected outcomes. When the study was carried out, two schools were selected. One school did not participate in the programme, while the second one participated in the programme. This study has clearly shown that the expected outcomes are clearly observable in the school that participated in the programme, while such outcomes are not observable in the school that did not participate in the programme. This is what sets the two schools apart. It is therefore clear that the programme was successful in the sense that the goals were achieved. The achievement of goals is reflected by the presence of the expected outcomes in the programme school. It is this presence of the expected outcomes in the programme school that is indicative of the impact of the programme. The impact becomes even more evident when one considers the fact that there was a discernible change in the school between the periods before and after the implementation of the programme. More than that, the outcomes could not be observed in the school that did not participate in the programme.

7.5. Focus on design and methodology.

It has been necessary to explain the design that was to be followed in this study. Chapter 2 gave a detailed description of the case study design. This was necessary as the design chosen serves as the blue print of how the study is to be carried out. It shows how data is to be collected and it also gives reflections on the analysis to be done. More than that, some time was devoted to the various methods of data collection that fall within the case study design. This had to be the case as this study is based in the domain of social research methodology.

What also became evident in this study is the fact that the study took place long after the programme had been implemented and had come to an end. It should be remembered that the purpose of this study was to evaluate the impact of the programme on school effectiveness. One point would have to be made clear at this stage. If a clear and proper assessment of the impact of the programme were to be made, then we would have to know what the situation was in the programme school before the implementation of the programme. We should have made a pre-test. We should have had base-line data. This base-line data or pre-test conditions would be compared to the post-test conditions to see what changes have taken place after the intervention. If there were observed changes, the assumption would be that the changes took place as a result of the intervention. Of course such an assumption would hold provided we are able to show that no other factor could be seen to have brought the obtaining new conditions in to being.

This study has shown that no base-line data existed. More than that, there was no time to do any pre-test as the study took place after the programme had ended. This meant that if any knowledge was to be gained on conditions that obtained in the programme school prior to the intervention, then such knowledge could only be gained from self-reports of the individuals at the programme school.

A way had to be sought to strengthen our knowledge on conditions that prevailed in the programme school prior to the intervention. The one viable route to follow was to bring in a comparison school. The idea here is that the school that has not participated in the TOPS school management programme would somehow show the kind of conditions that prevailed before intervention, or even show how the conditions would continue to be without intervention.

The introduction of the second school has not quite solved the problem. What we need to note is that we do not know if the schools were similar / equal during the period before the intervention at the programme school. It could be that the schools were very similar. If that is the case, and the intervention took place at the programme school, then we could assume that the difference came as a result of the intervention, provided there is no other known factor that could have precipitated the difference.

We should also note that it could be that the schools were already different during the period prior to the intervention. If that were the case, then the difference may be seen to have continued to the period after the intervention. In that case, it would be very difficult to ascribe the obtaining difference to the intervention solely.

This brief discussion shows that it is much better for evaluation studies to be involved in intervention studies in a much early stage. This would strengthen our endeavours in finding causal relationships or conditions.

7.6. Focus on the strengths of a qualitative evaluation.

This study was conducted within the realm of qualitative research. It is important to note several lessons learnt from such a more qualitative approach. We have come to notice the enormous strengths of qualitative methods:

Seeing through the eyes of the subjects.

The most important lesson is that qualitative methods attempt to present a condition through the eyes of the subjects. The researcher moves in and assumes the view of the subjects. This is very helpful in the sense that one does not have to impose meaning to a situation, but rather to have meaning emanating from the studied environment. Of course this comes at a price. The price is often having to find the individual or group through whose eyes the evaluator / researcher has to see. This is the case where there are divergent views. Luckily there are always techniques to circumvent such dilemmas that may present themselves. An example is the use of the interview that may be used to clarify the positions of certain individuals or groups, and to understand them further and more.

Such an approach has a great potential of helping projects to succeed. Such a potential is based on the fact that the investigation and report that may be done before the implementation of the project would help to identify the beliefs, ideals and aspirations of the locals. These could then be weighed-up against the beliefs of the “specialists” coming from outside. In that context, measures may be put in place to ensure the success of the project. It must be noted that such qualitative evaluations and reporting can be made to run through the lengthy and breadth of the project, from beginning to the end. This would help to provide the essential information needed for the success of the project. It must be borne in mind that such information may lead towards the success of the project, provided other agendas like political influences are not allowed to sway the direction of the project.

Description.

Qualitative research methods often strive to present detailed descriptions of the settings that are investigated. The important thing here is that the detailed description is often very helpful in making the setting very understandable to those who would read the report. Again, in an attempt to present such detailed descriptions, the researcher would have to attend very thoroughly to some very minute pieces of information, which in the end may be very crucial in presenting the situation as it stands and should be understood. It should be

borne in mind that such detailed descriptions are to be done in agreement with the obtaining view of the subjects in the area studied. Qualitative researchers attempt to understand any event in the context of the meaning attached to it socially or historically.

We further note that the description is such that the reader is not left in doubt about the purpose of the study. Often clear statements are made on the purpose of the study. Such a statement is often accompanied by an explanation of the assumed significance of the study.

Process.

Social research views events in life as fluid and not static. It sees things as ever changing. This is in line with daily happenings / events as may be interpreted / understood by subjects.

Flexibility.

The approach is very flexible. It is usually employed by way of coming up with open questions that will allow the subjects to present as much information as possible. One good advantage is that by so doing, the subjects may even bring to light aspects about the study that the researcher could not have thought of.

7.7. In conclusion

An attempt was made to conduct this study in such a way that the results be optimised. The various threats to the validity of the results were considered. As this discussion has shown, it is not possible to eliminate all sources of possible error. Several sources of threat to validity were discussed. This was matched by a presentation of several methods that may be employed to eliminate or minimise such threats to validity. What we have learnt is that while evaluation studies may have many problems that go with them, a lot can still be learnt from such evaluations. We may still be able to assess the success or failure of an intervention.

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