

**THE INFLUENCE OF A CHANGING SCHOOL
ENVIRONMENT ON SCHOOL MANAGEMENT**

by

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PROMOTER: PROF C VAN WYK

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**DEDICATED TO MY WIFE HUFSA AND CHILDREN
KAMAL, NAZLEE AND ANISA**

DECLARATION OF ORIGINALITY

“I declare that ‘The influence of a changing school environment on school management’ is my own work and that all the sources that I have used or quoted have been indicated and acknowledged by means of complete references.”

K.P. GOVENDER

PRETORIA

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SUMMARY

South Africa, a country in transition, is characterised by drastic policy shifts in the social, economic and political arenas. These policy shifts are also directed towards educational reform.

The South African Schools Act of 1996 is the first step towards educational change. Other changes focus on the curriculum, new appraisal procedures for educators, and the establishment of the South African Council for Educators. All of the above constitute a new working paradigm for school principals.

This study sought to determine the influence of this changing school environment on school principals. It looked at how principals perceive the change and examines the impact of change on their management role.

A literature study was made of the restructuring process in the USA and in England and Wales. The transformation of the South African education system was also examined.

A qualitative investigation was pursued with secondary school principals. Data gathering was done through participant-observation, questionnaires and in-depth interviews. Data was analysed, discussed and later synthesised.

The major findings with respect to the SA Schools Act are:

- * The lack of capacity of governing body members to participate meaningfully at meetings.

- * Principals believe the ban on corporal punishment has weakened their authority.

- * School fees and fundraising pose a problem to some principals.
- * Most principals welcome the code of conduct for learners.
- * Schools have not developed language policies.
- * Principals accept the freedom of conscience clause in the Act.
- * SRC's are not very effective.

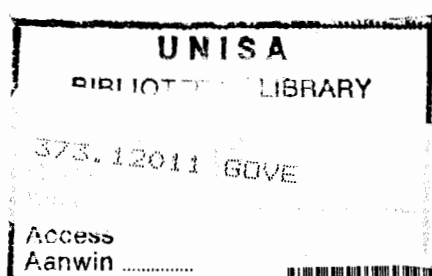
The other findings are:

- * Power relations between and among various stakeholders impact negatively on school management.
- * A breakdown in the culture of learning and teaching especially in former DET and HOD schools.
- * Teachers are not adequately trained to handle OBE and the new system of assessments.

The study concluded with recommendations being made to improve the situation.

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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS USED

AAAS	American Association for the Advancement of Sciences
CAP	California Assessment Programme
CASS	The Continuous Assessment Model
CHED	Committee of Heads of Education Departments
DES	Department of Education and Science
DNE	Department of National Education
EIC	Education Information Centre
ELRC	Education Labour Relations Council
EPU	Education Policy Unit
ERA	Education Reform Act
ERS	Education Renewal Strategy
ESEA	Elementary and Secondary Education Act
ETQA	Education and Training Qualification Assurers
FAS	Funding Agency for Schools
GDP	Gross Domestic Product
GM	Grant Maintained
HSRC	Human Sciences Research Council
LEA	Local Education Authorities
LMS	Local Management of Schools
MBO	Management by Objectives
MEC	Member of Executive Committee
NAPTOSA	National Professional Teachers Organisation of South Africa
NASSP	National Association of Secondary School Principals
NBPTS	The National Board for Professional Teaching Standards
NCC	National Curriculum Council
NESIC	National Education Standards and Improvement Council
NRT's	Non-Referenced Tests

NSB	National Standard Bodies
NQF	National Qualifications Framework
OBE	Outcomes-Based Education
OFSTED	The Office for Standards in Education
PAFT	Pennsylvania Federation of Teachers
PTSA	Parent-Teacher-Student-Association
RSA	Republic of South Africa
SACE	South African Council for Educators
SADTU	South African Democratic Teachers Union
SAOU	Suid-Afrikaanse Onderwysunie
SATS	Standard Assessment Tests
SATU	South African Teachers Union
SAQA	South African Qualifications Authority
TOPS	Trying Out Positive Solutions

KEYWORDS

School environment; Educational change; School restructuring/reform/transformation; Organisational culture; The Curriculum; Outcomes-based education; Educational assessments and Standards; Educator Appraisals; Culture of learning and teaching; The S A Schools Act; Racial Tensions.

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CHAPTER 1

1.1 INTRODUCTION

Most, if not all, organisations inevitably face the need for change. Change is brought about by the impact of environmental circumstances and/or through the advent of innovative technology [Smit & Cronje 1992:236]. South Africa has, for the first time in its history, a democratic government in place and one of its very important tasks is to transform education and training such that its peoples, its new found democracy and the Reconstruction and Development Programme may be served.

The doubts and uncertainties generated by this process are noted in paragraph 19 of the Government's White Paper on Education and Training which reads:

It is understandable that many parents, school principals, teachers and students are uncertain about what the changes in the system of education will mean for their schools and themselves. Those who are accustomed to stable schools, which have close links with the social, cultural and religious life of their communities, and honoured traditions, may feel that what is precious to them is threatened by unknown changes they may be unable to influence or control. Communities which have been favoured by the past political dispensation, and who know that a democratically elected government, representing an overwhelmingly poor electorate, cannot be expected to fund their privileges, may be particularly apprehensive about what is in store [South Africa 1995a:91].

But the process also brings with it high expectations of improvement, a point which is also recognised in the White Paper:

Equally, parents, teachers and students who have had to cope with appalling conditions, the result of decades of under-resourcing, instability, wasted human potential and low morale, have high expectations from a government they believe rightly is committed to redress [South Africa 1995a:92].

Both these responses make it obvious that the management environment insofar as it affects the school is going to be dynamic and turbulent during the process of transformation. The challenges facing school management are going to be plentiful and at times may lead to despair. To survive in this turbulent environment, school managers will have to be proactive and develop effective strategies in coping with the vicissitudes of change such that the goals of education are achieved.

Therefore, Prof. Bengu [1995a:5], Minister of Education and Training has emphasised that managers need to find “practical, educationally acceptable solutions for changes which are occurring as a result of the New Constitution and the policies of the new national and provincial governments.” This will be especially challenging for the government as the “new government will be faced with the legacy of a distorted education system” and must “find new strategies” to change it [Graham-Brown 1991:154-155].

1.2 ACTUALITY OF THE RESEARCH

This study seeks to determine the influence of a changing school environment on school management in some selected secondary schools. In order to better understand the changing school environment one needs to sketch briefly the history of the struggle for equal education in the broader South African context. It is this push for the democratisation of the education system prior to the democratic elections of April 1994 that created a turbulent environment which impacted on all spheres of school management.

Because of its pivotal role in sustaining the apartheid system, education has always been a central political issue, and is perceived by all parties to the conflict as a terrain over which political struggle occurs [Graham - Brown 1991:155].

According to Graham-Brown [1991], the focus of Black resistance in the 1950s was on Bantu education. In the 1960s the protest was pushed underground after the Sharpeville massacre and the banning of anti-apartheid organisations. The resistance to apartheid education was renewed in the 1970s [Graham-Brown 1991].

The most striking was the 1976-7 Soweto student uprising sparked off by secondary school pupils. This uprising set the tone for the 1980s school boycotts in most of the country [Graham-Brown 1991:155-156].

The crisis of the 1976-7 Soweto Riots and the school boycotts of 1980 focussed attention on the youth and demonstrated the extent to which educational institutions had become sites of struggle in South Africa [Kallaway 1990:19-20].

Similarly, Unterhalter and Wolpe [1991:3], see education as a “terrain of struggle” where the terrain is “defined by internal and external structures and conditions.” They identify three periods that are characterised by the contestations taking place. These three periods are:

- * Political repression, economic growth, and demands for educational expansion during the period 1960 to 1976.
- * Divisions in the ruling block and boycotts of apartheid education during the period 1976 to 1983.
- * People’s education for people’s power in a climate of mounting repression during the period 1983 to 1988 [Unterhalter & Wolpe 1991:4-11].

Heese [1992:vii] contends that the South African educational picture is dominated by the fact that the process has largely broken down in many communities. He cites the following for the breakdown:

- * Large numbers of school-going age children are not accommodated at schools and in fact cannot be accommodated at schools.
- * Of the children who are theoretically accommodated in schools, vast numbers are not making effective use of the opportunities.

- * In many schools teachers are not teaching and in fact they are often not present in the classroom to teach.
- * In any educational environment, shortages of required educational material make it very difficult for teaching of any significance to take place.
- * The destruction of goods, morale and structures has led to the virtual discontinuation of education in a meaningful way in many schools [Heese 1992:vii-viii].

The politicisation of education for the liberation of the people becomes increasingly evident and although the reasons for the struggle are understandable it left many children illiterate and totally disoriented [Van Niekerk 1993:436]. The fundamental aim of mass-based liberation movements was essentially to transfer power to the majority in the country and thereafter to establish a non-racist, non-ethnic, unitary education system [Van Niekerk 1993:438-439].

Moreover, youth participation in the struggle intensified the burden placed on educational institutions. According to Sonn [1994:4], “there can be no doubt that over time it (the struggles) hardened the culture of learning and teaching.” With the demise of apartheid and the transition to a non-racial and fully democratic South Africa, the context in education became “a deliberate transition from the discourse of contestation and resistance to the discourse of reconstruction” [Sonn 1994:4]. Among the Black communities, the quest to reconstruct the system of education generated much debate and discussion.

The goal of transforming the system of education, however, began well before the elections of 1994. At a National Education Conference held in March 1992 the commission that dealt with the development and implementation of a code of conduct with regard to the culture of learning stated that the “present education system in general and African education in particular is characterised by a deep rooted crisis.” This crisis was evident, inter alia, in the “undemocratic,

inefficient and corrupt” administration of education which led to, amongst other things, “the collapse of the effective management of schools” [NEC 1992:1]. There were seventeen departments of education within the country, “fragmented along racial and ethnic lines” and “saturated with racial ideology and educational doctrines of apartheid” [ANC 1994:2].

The system of education in South Africa was characterised by a lack of access or unequal access to education and training at all levels of the system. Vast disparities existed between Black and White provision and large numbers of people were denied access to schooling. The lack of democratic control denied parents and teachers of their involvement in education which “contributed to the erosion of the learning culture” [Samuels 1990:1]. Samuels [1990:1] adds that through the “implementation of apartheid, learning as a social process” had “been eroded” and this erosion had intensified in the last 15 years, creating a “bitter and deeply alienated youth.”

While the above reflects on the Black system of education, the White education system was also affected by rapid changes taking place in the country. The creation of Model C schools shifted the responsibility of education provisioning to school communities via school management boards [Department of Education and Culture 1992]. There was much anger and debate over the establishment of Model C schools. Many organisations to the left of the previous government felt Model C schools perpetuated the system of discriminatory education as “control over admissions policy by privileged White parents” would lead in many cases to “elitist, and often racist admissions policy being implemented” [Sadtu News 1995:1]. Other institutions like the Natal Education Council rejected the government’s proposed models for privatising and opening White schools to all races as it believed a new constitution would probably demand that all schools be completely non-racial [Matthewson 1990:2].

Now, in the post-1994 period, South Africa has an elected democratic government and a new constitution which guarantees equality and non-discrimination, cultural freedom and diversity, and the right to basic education for all and equal access to educational institutions [South Africa 1995a:44]. The national Ministry of Education and Training is now devoting its energies to “dismantling the apartheid juggernaut, developing a completely new and democratic culture of

rights and responsibilities, rebuilding the system from the ground up, and expanding learning opportunities for all” [South Africa 1995a:98]. This rebuilding process from the ground up demands that all sectors in society have a role in and responsibility for the reconstruction of education especially since education “is critical to the survival of the entire society” [Buckland 1994:8].

Under the national Ministry of Education and Training all previously existing education departments have merged to form provincial departments of education. The amalgamation of all of these pre-apartheid departments of education comes with the former departments’ own ethos, cultural diversity, vision and purpose.

In an opening address at a conference on school management, teacher development and support, held at Eskom Conference Centre, Midrand, 18 - 19 August 1994, Prof. Bengu stated that the people of South Africa “have good reason to anticipate sweeping changes in the education arena” and goes on to say “much of the burden of this transformation falls on the shoulders of our education managers, who will now be called upon to ensure effective delivery and become an integral part of the management of the change of this system” [EPU 1994]. In this respect redefining the school to meet new challenges is one of the greatest tasks facing educators today [Badenhorst 1993:412].

Policy changes at the macro level will impact on school management. Some factors that will contribute to this fundamental change are:

- * Tensions surrounding issues of school governance and funding that are reshaping the structures of governance to reflect the constitutional principles of democracy, non-racialism and non-sexism.
- * The challenges of educating students from different historical, cultural and language backgrounds.
- * Reshaping the curriculum to be relevant and acceptable.

- * Teacher unionism and concomitant tensions.
- * Restoring the culture of teaching and learning where it does not exist and sustaining and encouraging it in schools where it does exist.

Failure to respond to these demands effectively can create a new wave of crises. The ability to create and manage the future in the way we wish is what differentiates the good manager from the bad. John Harvey-Jones in Wiele and Hodgson [1991:45] believes while it is foolish to throw away the past, it is the future that we can affect. The engine of change is dissatisfaction with the present and the brakes of change are fear of the unknown and fear of the future. These views are very much applicable to school managers as they are now required to manage effectively while not being absolutely sure of what the future holds for them.

Schools, therefore, are in need of effective leadership. Effective leadership empowers an organisation to maximise its contributions to the well-being of its members and the larger society of which it is a part. If managers are known for their skills in solving problems, then leaders are known for being masters in designing and building institutions; they are the architects of the organisation's future [Burt 1992:10].

1.3 STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

The problem is that there is a wide range of preparedness for the management of change at school level. The seventeen odd education departments that existed in the country in the pre-1994 period had differences in management styles, differences in parental involvement in school governance, and differences in levels of management training at school level. Nevertheless, in the post-1994 period all of management are required to function with some level of uniformity. Schools are required to implement management policies and deliver the curriculum in a way that closes the vast disparities of the past.

Changes in education (for example Curriculum 2005 and the South African Schools Act) are being introduced under diverse conditions. Anstey [1997:4] quotes a teacher who says his school is so isolated that teachers know little about the new curriculum. "I heard on the radio that it is starting next year," said a teacher at Chokwe Primary [Anstey 1997:4]. The nation wide register of school needs reflects a shortage of more than 57,000 classrooms, at least 10,000 boreholes, 15,000 electrical connections, 17,000 telephones and 270,000 toilets. It shows also that most of the country's 32,000 schools have no laboratories or libraries [Eveleth 1997:6]. When one considers other factors like teacher unionism and increased teacher militancy, vandalism and the lack of culture of teaching and learning, the problems for school management are compounded.

Education policies formulated in this period of transformation and restructuring are designed to produce change in schools so that the ideals of equal, non-racial and relevant education may be achieved. At times it can be argued that policies designed to achieve these noble objectives are not rooted in realism. Given this changing educational environment, the principal both from the advantaged and disadvantaged schools will have to manage effectively and efficiently.

This study thus takes its point of departure that a school's level of success in coping with the processes of change will be influenced by the managerial capacity of their management eschelons.

More specifically this study seeks to answer the following questions.

- * What is understood by school environment?
- * What is understood by educational change?
- * What is the relationship between educational change and organisational culture?

- * Who are the legitimate stakeholders in education and what is their impact on school management?
- * What is the nature of the school reform process in some overseas countries?
- * What is the impact of this changing school environment on school management in some overseas countries?
- * What is the nature of the school reform process in the Republic of South Africa?
- * What is the impact of this changing school environment on school management in the Republic of South Africa.
- * Is this impact conducive to the reconstruction of the system of education in the Republic of South Africa.
- * How can educational change be better managed at the school level? ✓

1.4 OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY

The purposes of this study thus are to:

- * Understand what is meant by the school environment and its relationship with management.
- * Examine the concept educational change.
- * Define the relationship between educational change and organisational culture.

- * Identify who are the legitimate stakeholders in education and their impact on the management of education at school level.
- * Analyse critically how changing school environments were managed or are still being managed in other parts of the world.
- * Identify and contextualise the issues school management will have to encounter in its environment.
- * Gather and analyse data that would enquire into the nature and influence of a changing school environment in some selected secondary schools.
- * To make suggestions and recommendations for the better management of change in South African schools.

1.5 DELIMITATION OF THE STUDY

Ideally this study should embrace all schools in the Republic of South Africa. This would increase the reliability of the findings. Owing to the immensity of such a task, the research will be carried out in six selected secondary schools. The research is limited to secondary schools since some of the consequences of the South African Schools Act, for example, learner representative councils and corporal punishment, are more relevant to secondary schools than primary schools.

While recognising that South Africa is now a democratic non-racial society, the imbalances of the past remain. With this in mind secondary schools from the former pre-1994 education departments were selected to increase the representivity of the sample. The selected schools range from advantaged schools in the former House of Assembly, the fairly advantaged former House of Delegates schools to the most disadvantaged township schools of the former Department of Education and Training.

The school environment is influenced by changes occurring at macro and micro levels but this study will, nevertheless, only seek to determine the influence of a changing school environment on school management, namely, at the micro level. Many stakeholders play a role in school management but for the purpose of this research, the influence of a changing school environment on the principal's management role will be investigated.

1.6 RESEARCH METHOD AND PROCEDURE

1.6.1 RESEARCH DESIGN

The design of this investigation has been influenced by the assumption that the effective management of a changing school environment will contribute to school effectiveness. To this extent the leadership role of the principal is pivotal. It is for this reason that secondary school principals will be interviewed to establish the influence of a changing school environment on the management of the school.

1.6.2 RESEARCH PROCEDURES

1.6.2.1 Literature Sources

In order to get a theoretical background to the study, a study will be made of literature sources. These will include journals, articles, newspaper reports and books, from both local and overseas sources. Furthermore, a literature study of educational legislation and official documents concerning South African education will be undertaken.

1.6.2.2 Participant - Observation

The investigator, being a former superintendent of education himself, has had numerous opportunities to observe principals' responses to the challenges/ demands posed by a changing

school environment. These observations provide valuable insights into the principal's managerial skills, insofar as his/her ability to manage a changing environment is concerned.

1.6.2.3 Questionnaires

Questionnaires that seek to elicit demographic information will be administered to the principals of the 6 selected secondary schools.

1.6.2.4 Qualitative Research

The qualitative approach is also used in data gathering through strategies such as observation and in-depth interviews. The researcher shall conduct in-depth interviews with principals using a set of themes and topics as the basis of the interview. This research is designed to be exploratory and descriptive. No attempts are made to establish cause and effect relationships under experimental conditions. The purpose in using qualitative methodology is to understand how principals experience the changes in their educational environment (see sections 5.2 and 5.3).

1.7 VALUE OF STUDY

Three and a half years after the first democratic elections of April 1994, the education crises continues. According to the economic advisor to the national Department of Education and Training the government will still have to find an extra R3 billion a year to end educational backlogs and equalise conditions between poor and rich schools [Eveleth 1997:6]. Adviser Crouch in [Eveleth 1997:6] noted that school resources explained only about one-third of the performance disparities: the socio-economic backgrounds of pupils and the way schools are managed also affected results.

Against this background this study seeks to describe how principals are experiencing the change and hopes to provide some indicators towards policy changes. The study seeks also to uncover possible management routes that may be followed to accelerate the process of positive change in our schools.

1.8 RESEARCH PROGRAMME

In Chapter 1 the need for the study is motivated and the method of investigation outlined. It is believed that an understanding of the problem will determine the direction that this study will take. To this end, this chapter examines the purpose of the study and describes the research method and procedures.

Chapter 2 will be devoted to defining the key concepts of the study. The nature of change will be analysed, the management environment will be described, and the relationship between educational change and organisational culture will be described.

Chapter 3 will be devoted to developing a literary background to the investigation. The restructuring of schools in some overseas countries perceived as a phenomenon of a changing school environment will be discussed and evaluated.

Chapter 4 will present a comprehensive description of the restructuring process presently being implemented in the Republic of South Africa.

In Chapter 5 attention shall be devoted to research methodology and design of the study. This chapter shall also present information on data gathering instruments, data analysis procedures, and the sample for this study.

Chapter 6 will analyse data and draw conclusions.

Chapter 7 will be devoted to a summary of the major findings and recommendations will be made to effect an improvement in the management of change.

Finally, only lengthy sub-sections within chapters will be summarised.

CHAPTER 2

CLARIFICATION OF KEY CONCEPTS

2.1 INTRODUCTION

This Chapter will be devoted to defining the key concepts of the study. The following key concepts will be analysed and described namely:

- * The School Environment.
- * Educational Change.
- * Educational Change and Organisational Culture.

Clarification of these concepts is necessary so as to provide the necessary context within which to examine and evaluate the influence of a changing school environment on school management.

2.2 THE ENVIRONMENT

The environment is described as a critical component of an open system in that there is a continuous exchange of energy, matter, and information between it and the system. As a result, changes in the environment inevitably create changes in the functioning of the system [Rameshur 1996:40]. A system is defined as a set of elements standing in interrelation and interaction. An open system is defined as a system in continuous exchange of energy with its environment. Every living system, including human beings, is an open or partially open system that maintains itself only in continuous exchange of energy with its environment. As long as an open system is alive it never enters a state of equilibrium [Caple 1987:7]. Sarason [1982:10] says it is confusing to talk about a school system as if it were closed rather than an open one, as if the system is comprehensible only in terms of those who have roles to play within school buildings. Hoy and Miskel [1989:28], for example, also claim that viewing schools as a closed system is not adequate in either eliminating or dealing with the pressing problems of educational administrators. Schools are viewed as open systems which must adapt to changing external

conditions to be effective in the long term to survive [Hoy & Miskel 1989:28]. Schools and school systems are embedded in a complicated picture of the formal and informal networks, and the more sensitive one is to this embeddedness, the more one realises how many different “systems” have to change if the change in schools can be successfully introduced and maintained [Sarason 1982:11].

2.3 FORMS OF CHANGE

Toffler [1981] has identified five forms of change that have contributed to the emergence of a turbulent, densely textured environment. These are summarised as follows:

- * Changes in the physical environment generated by a growing world population and a depletion of resources.
- * Changes in the social environment as evident in the growing gulf between the “haves” and “have-nots”, the educated and uneducated, and the socially advantaged and the socially disadvantaged.
- * Changes in the information environment as evident in the revolution of information technology, the volume of information available and the control of access to information.
- * Changes in the political environment. Conflict among various groups in society and the struggle for political power among excluded groups encapsulate the changes in the environment.
- * Changes in the moral environment. There is now greater public scrutiny of ethical questions relating to political and economic decision-making and conduct.

The changes referred to above are often the cause of what is referred to as the turbulent environment. To this end, Meyer [1982:515], says that environments often surprised organisations to the extent that trusted clients desert, dissatisfied customers sue, federal

regulations file injunctions and ecological activists boycott. Morgan [1988:4] and Virany, Tushman & Romanelli [1992:72] say that managers of the future will have to develop their ability to read and anticipate environmental trends so that they will be able to ride this turbulence with the necessary skills and competencies.

Organisations evolve through alternating periods of convergence and reorientation. Convergence refers to incremental and interdependent changes that increasingly stabilise established patterns of activities. During convergent periods, an organisation learns to accomplish its strategy in an ever coherent and efficient manner. Reorientations are system-wide organisational changes involving concurrent shifts in strategies, structures, power distributions and control mechanisms [Virany et al 1992:73].

2.4 ENVIRONMENT AND SCHOOLS

Because the environmental contexts in which organisations exist are continually changing [Emery & Trist 1965:21], the view of organisations which possess orderliness and rationality may be attractive, especially to those working in schools. It promises consistency, predictability and a stable and secure framework within which to work. But as Bell [1980:186] correctly says, there is increasing evidence to show that it is not always like that. Recently because of professional autonomy and semi-autonomous departmental activity, there has been a modification of the overall goal of the school. This has resulted in schools being organisationally more complex, less stable and less understandable than previously. Schools now exercise modest control over complex and unstable environments [Bell 1980:186]. This fact is also supported by Hargreaves [1982:108] when he says “schools processes are not isolated from the pressures, demands, constraints and requirements of the wide society” (see sections 6.4.2.2 and 6.4.2.2.1).

A distinction between general and specific school environments is necessary to understand the dimension of school environments. Hoy and Miskel [1989:30-31] see broad factors, trends and conditions that can potentially affect an organisation, as the general environment of schools. The following are examples of the general environment, that is - technological and informational

developments, political structures and patterns of legal norms, social conditions and cultural values, economic factors, and ecological and demographic characteristics. Further, although the potential exists for general factors to influence a given school or district, their relevance and likelihood of impact are not entirely clear to the organisations' members [Hoy & Miskel 1989:31]. However, educational organisations are often reflections of a society that is increasingly more complex. Schools are becoming more and more open by recognising their interdependence with their environments [Matranga, Harper, Hill & Peltier 1993:60].

External factors that have immediate and direct effect on organisations are termed, the specific environment. Hoy and Miskel [1989:31] include under the specific environment, the following factors that influence the management of the school - individual parents, taxpayer associations, teacher and administrator unions, state and federal government regulatory agencies, colleges and universities, state legislatures and accrediting agencies and other associations involved in educational policies and practices. This relationship is depicted by Hoy & Miskel [1989:31] as follows:

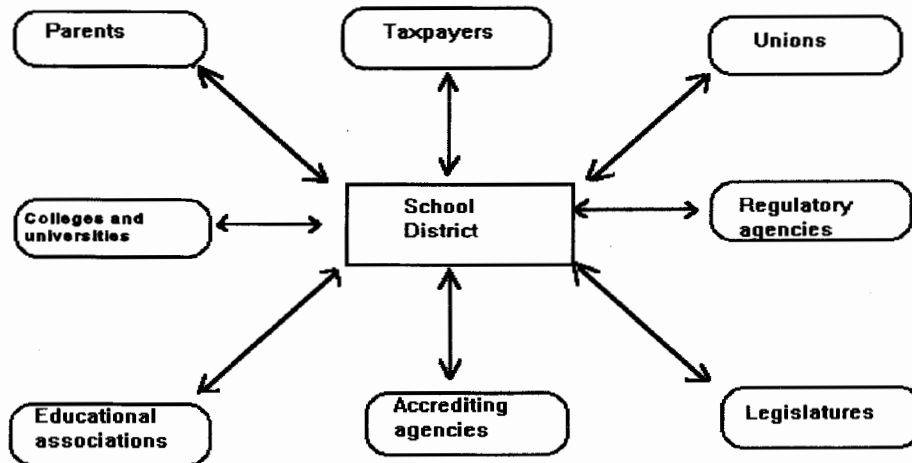


Figure. 1: Selected external constituencies for school districts

Depending on the particular circumstances, specific environments vary from school to school and from district to district, creating different kinds of pressures for educational change.

✓ 2.5 EDUCATIONAL CHANGE

The changing school environment impacts on school management. Cave [1990:13], for example, states that the nature of the environment in which schools operate is more demanding and according to Adizes [1991:5] and Wiele and Hodgson [1991:5] much more critical judgements of performance will be made when change is continuous. Moreover, to Hodgkinson [1991:203], educational change has become a fact of every day life. It is the frequency and radicalism of recent change that is so noticeable. The world is changing physically, socially and economically. Change creates problems and problems require solutions and solutions create more change [Adizes 1991:5].

Fullan [1991:5] defines educational change as a socio-political process involving all kinds of individuals, classrooms, schools, local, regional and national factors and work in interactive ways. According to Fullan [1991:17] there are 3 broad ways in which pressure for educational change may arise:

- * Through natural disasters such as earthquakes, floods, famines and the like. ^{Adis}
- * Through external forces such as imported technology, values and immigration.
- * Through internal contradictions, such as when indigenous changes in technology, lead to new social patterns and needs or when one or more groups in society perceive a discrepancy between education, values and outcomes affecting themselves or others in whom they have an interest.

In addition, Otero [1983:58-59] has identified the following world conditions and processes that drive educational change over and above the impact of a global revolution in the production, access and distribution of information and automation, namely:

- * The recognition of resource scarcity.
- * The growing demands of the disadvantaged for a redistribution of wealth.
- * The declining effectiveness of government.
- * The shift of attention in world affairs away from military security issues.

School change can be initiated at any one of several levels. Levels external to the school are the national government, the state government and the school district in which the school is located [Rutherford & Van Den Berghe 1986:147]. To this end, Renfro and Morrison [1983:50], believe this accelerating change has come increasingly from developments in the external environment, the environment in which institutions must survive and thrive. Within the school, changes may be initiated by an individual teacher, by a department or subject group, by the school principal or by some collaborative groups that have been formally or informally established [Rutherford & Van Den Berghe 1986:147].

Fullan [1991:29] has identified two types of educational changes, first-order changes and second-order changes. First-order changes are those that improve the efficiency and effectiveness of what is currently done without disturbing the basic organisational features and without substantially altering the way in which children and adults perform their roles. Fullan [1991:29] and Virany et al. [1992:74] refer to this as first-order-learning which involves incremental updating of established premises regarding the best way to respond to environmental conditions. Existing competencies and standard operating procedures are improved, errors are corrected and inconsistencies about a given set of understandings and objectives are adjusted.

Second-order changes, according to Fullan [1991:29] “seek to alter the fundamental ways in which organisations are put together, including new roles, structures and goals.” Second-order-learning according to Virany et al. [1992:74] is characterised by a shift in core assumptions and

decision-making premises. It involves unlearning prior premises and standard operating procedures, and developing new frames, new standard operating procedures, and new interpretative schemes. Thus new understandings and objectives can emerge.

The challenge of the 1990s will be to deal with more second-order changes, namely changes that affect the culture and structure of schools, restructuring roles and reorganizing responsibilities including those of students and parents [Fullan 1991: 29]. As Morgan [1988:1] rightly says “managers of the future will have to ride this turbulence with increasing skill and many important competencies will be required,” as this sea of change can “twist and turn with all the power of the ocean.” This is also true for schools in a South African context (see section 6.4.2).

Wilson [1988:5] has identified three factors or principles in the management of change in education which can be regarded as the criteria against which one might measure the likelihood of success of any educational development. These three principles are:

- * Educational decision-making should be firmly based on some explicit statement of education philosophy.
- * The management of educational change should seek to liberate and extend the professionalism of the educators on whom change depends.
- * If an educational development is to succeed, the participants must feel a sense of ownership of and belonging to the development.

Finally, Carnal [1990] in Murray [1994:160], says that in a changing world the only constant is change, and therefore no organisation can reasonably maintain a “business as usual” stance. All organisations must be ready to adapt and those that are most successful in this are learning organisations in which all members are willing to learn how to learn. Schools, therefore, are in a privileged position to become learning organisations [Murray 1994:160].

2.6 EDUCATIONAL CHANGE AND ORGANISATIONAL CULTURE

Organisational culture can be viewed at two levels, firstly the constructed environment of the organisation and secondly with the values that govern behaviour [Schein 1984:3]. It is with the second definition that the ensuing paragraphs will be exploring. Organisational culture refers to the customs and rituals that societies develop over the course of their history. In the last decade organisational culture has been used by organisational researchers and managers to indicate the climate and practices that organisations develop around their handling of people or refer to the espoused values and credo of an organisation [Schein 1992:3]. In the educational context it can be called school culture [Deal & Peterson 1991:7].

Schein [1992:12] also defines culture in terms of basic assumptions, that is a pattern of shared basic assumptions that the group learned as it solved its problems of external adaptation and internal integration, that has worked well enough to be considered valid and, therefore to be taught to new members as the correct way to perceive, think, and feel in relation to those problems. Schein [1984:4] in an earlier work refers to what he calls cultural paradigms. Because of the human needs for order and consistency, assumptions become patterned into cultural “paradigms” which tie together the basic assumptions about human nature and activities.

As stated above the word “values” is very often used to describe culture. But what is “value?” Value is used to indicate that something is regarded as having worth, as attracting choice or preference. Value is the property of being choice worthy and it attaches to objects like money, cars and books, to states of mind, like happiness or contentment, to modes of behaviour, like courtesy, kindness and loyalty, to moral qualities, like temperance and chastity, and to innumerable other items of human choice [Garforth 1985:55].

The concept of school culture is therefore meant to describe the character of school as it reflects deep patterns of values, beliefs, and traditions that have been formed over the course of its history. Beneath the conscious awareness of every day life in any organisation there is a stream of thought, sentiment, and activity [Deal & Peterson 1991:7].

In school change, it is assumed that teachers and students are strongly influenced by the morale, mores, routines, and conscious and unconscious conventions about how things are done in their schools. Problems arise when undesirable or ineffective practices become conventionalised within a school [Deal & Peterson 1991:6]. However, the form and culture of schooling are also shaped by community values and major societal trends are among these forces. Policies defining who will teach and how they will do so are factors that increasingly predict the possibilities for and constraints on improving schooling [Darling - Hammond 1988:55].

Values and meanings then are a crucial part of considering the way in which individuals and organisations can manage educational change since educational change is not just about the creation of new policies and procedures to implement external mandates. It is also about the development of personal strategies by individuals to respond to and seek to influence the impact of structure and cultural change. Personal change is just as important as organisational change [Bennett, Crawford & Riches 1992:2].

School cultures begin with leaders who impose their own values and assumptions on a group. If that group is successful and the assumptions come to be taken for granted, we have then a culture that will define for later generations of members what kinds of leadership are acceptable. But as the group experiences difficulties, its environment changes to the point where some of its assumptions are no longer valid and leadership comes to play once more [Schein 1992:1-2].

Because the forces of economic necessity comprise with new values and higher aspirations to bring improvement both world - wide and in the work place, it is unreasonable to expect people

“at the top” will some how solve the problems of change. Instead, because of the complexity of these situations, it is important that organisations find out how to release the creative energies, intelligence and initiative of people at every level [Nixon 1992:33].

School management is fighting a war on two fronts. On the one hand they are trying to respond appropriately to new challenges of reform, while on the other hand they are handicapped by inappropriate and irrational behaviour within the organisation, often worse when the challenges are the greatest [Nixon 1992:33] (see sections 6.4.2 and 6.4.3).

Educational researchers have documented the power of culture. Sarason [1971] in Deal & Kennedy [1983:14] has demonstrated how school cultures can undermine the organisation where culture works against one and it's nearly impossible to get anything done. Culture can produce “dramatic results” when it channels energy in positive directions. Building strong school cultures is intimately tied to improving educational performance [Deal & Kennedy 1983:14]. This implies that the school will not meet its goals if all stakeholders attached to the institution do not share the same vision and values. Schools cannot function in a value free atmosphere. If restructuring is to succeed, there needs to be a change in the school culture [Drolet 1992:15]. School culture also impacts on the educational change especially in disadvantaged schools in South Africa (see sections 6.4.2 and 6.4.3).

2.7 SUMMARY

This chapter has addressed itself to two purposes, both at the same time. Firstly, it has clarified the key concepts and grounded them in operational definitions. Secondly, it has presented a theoretical background to these concepts. The terms that were discussed are those that are central to the study. The next chapter presents a comprehensive description of school change in England and Wales and in the United States of America.

CHAPTER 3

RESTRUCTURING OF SCHOOLS AS A PHENOMENON OF A CHANGING SCHOOL ENVIRONMENT

3.1 INTRODUCTION

The decade 1980 - 1990 saw programmes of educational restructuring occurring in many countries around the world. School restructuring is an international trend and is also referred to as the education reform movement [Beare & Boyd 1993:2].

These policy changes were primarily aimed at the control and governance of both schools and school systems, at who makes the decisions, and especially those relating to what is taught in schools. In short they target the management of education for better outcomes.

This chapter in developing a literary background to the investigation seeks to describe and evaluate the impact of a changing school environment on school management. The researcher has chosen England and Wales and the United States of America, to describe the reform taking place. Both these countries have experienced sustained educational change.

3.2 THE EDUCATION-REFORM MOVEMENT IN ENGLAND AND WALES

3.2.1 INTRODUCTION

The Education Reform Act of 1988 (ERA) which provided the framework within which schools must operate was the most radical and certainly the most comprehensive attempt ever to redesign the education system for England and Wales [Cave 1990:1]. Despite considerable "professional apprehension" and "widespread opposition" the Education Reform Act had become law in 1988 [Cave 1990:1].

3.2.2 REASONS FOR RESTRUCTURING

The convergence of a number of concerns in the thinking of the British Government gave rise to the reform movement. According to Thomas [1993:30], the concerns were the following.

* Standards of achievement.

- * A growing concern that the economic well-being of the British was being adversely affected by the performance of an education service that was neither as good as it could be or as good it needed to be.
- * To reduce and control public expenditure in proportion to gross domestic product [Thomas 1993:30].

Brown [1990:73], on the other hand, believes the issue of declining standards has been at the heart of reform, but there is lack of credible evidence to support the assertion that educational standards have declined. The Conservative Government, whom Brown [1990:73] refers to as “the Right,” introduced the reforms to regain traditional authority and leadership in the “reproduction of elite culture,” in which the educational system is to have a key role to play.

In keeping with this line of thought Scott [1989:11], believes the ERA sought to emphasise “accountability, responsiveness and responsibility” so as to reimpose conservative values and practices in education. The Secretary of State for Education claimed to see the ERA as a means through which standards in education would be raised although what constitutes standards is not explicitly defined, but it is implicit in that they are measured by an arguably narrow range of academic achievement and by examination success [Cave 1990:1].

3.2.3 THE NATURE OF THE REFORM MOVEMENT (ERA)

In the 1980s there was a marked shift of power towards central government departments at the expense of Local Education Authorities [LEAs] and Teacher Associations [Smith 1989:175]. It altered the basic power structure of the education system by increasing the power of the Secretary of State for Education and restoring central government influence over the curriculum [Weindling 1992:65].

To Thomas [1993:31], there is a contradiction in reforms that seek to centralise control of policy and practice at the same time. This becomes visible where the ERA on one hand had devolved power to governing bodies and parents and yet at the same time centralising control over the curriculum, which reduces the control of professional educators in this area.

According to North [1988:163], the Conservative government introduced the ERA so as to offer the possibility of exercising choice to a number of individuals. Parents are, for example, offered a greater freedom of choice in selecting schools for their children and parent’s choice operating through the school’s governing body is also extended to choosing how the allocated material resources should be used in providing the best possible education for their children. This becomes possible as financial management was devolved to schools. The new Act introduced

limitations in the role of the LEAs as they were now forced to give greater autonomy to schools and their governing bodies [Weindling 1992:65] but they (LEAs) were still allowed to control the management of in-service education and training in their areas [Smith 1989:178]. Through restricting professional autonomy by increasing parental power, by exposing the system to the forces of open market competition and by streamlining the governance of schools through curtailing the role of the LEA, the power vested in the Secretary of State for Education was greatly increased [Cave 1990:1]. The ERA attracted much criticism as will be examined later. Williams [1989:20], however, is concerned that the restructuring process is occurring during a period when there is little genuine consensus over its objectives, processes or planned outcomes among teachers, parents or the public at large.

Simon [1988] in [Brown 1990:74], believes however, that the main thrust of the ERA is towards disestablishing locally controlled systems and concomitantly pushing the whole structure of schools towards privatisation, to establish a base which could be later further exploited.

The ERA had at the institutional level implications for:

- * The National Curriculum.
- * Open Enrolment or Choice.
- * Parent Involvement.
- * Local Management of Schools.
- * School Governance.
- * Grant Maintained Schools.
- * Local Education Authorities.
- * Teacher Appraisals.

3.2.3.1 The National Curriculum

The Conservative government wanted to improve the quality of education that is provided by changing the subject content taught in schools. The government therefore introduced the concept of a National Curriculum. The National Curriculum has sought to improve the relevance of education to the needs of the twenty-first century society [Humphreys & Thompson 1995:133].

For the first time, the ERA introduced a National Curriculum which was now compulsory for all pupils aged 5 - 16. The National Curriculum consisted of three core subjects - Mathematics, English and Science, and seven foundation subjects - History, Geography, Technology, Music,

Art, Physical Education and at age 11 modern languages. Religious education was the only subject specified under the 1944 Act that was still required by the ERA [Weindling 1992:65; Blyth 1991].

For all subjects there are to be attainment targets which identify specific knowledge, skills and understanding and pupils are expected to have reached these targets at the end of each key stage up to 16 years old [Weindling 1992; Thomas 1993]. The National Curriculum therefore is increasingly subject to national planning and is dominated by notions of basic skills, narrow vocationalism and differentiation. There are also assessment arrangements determined by working groups of experts and practitioners [Weindling 1992:66]. These assessment arrangements are used to assess pupils at or near the end of each key stage for the purpose of ascertaining what they have achieved in relation to the attainment targets for that age [Thomas 1993:32].

The national scheme of assessment was also aimed to give parents more information about their child's progress. The standard assessment tests (SAT's) were piloted in all schools in 1990 [Weindling 1992:6; Brown 1990:74]. By identifying the need for rigorous testing of pupils, the Government was seeking to identify national norms against which annual fluctuations in performance could be measured in order to maintain standards [Humphreys & Thompson 1995:133]. Schools were required to publish aggregated test results for each school for 11, 14 and 16 year-olds so that the public at large could begin to assess schools on the basis of results.

This requirement has not been welcomed by the teaching profession, who see it as a means of increasing competition among schools for pupils [Weindling 1992:66]. Thomas [1993:32] believes that SAT's create a new problem in that teachers are more likely to concentrate their time on teaching the core subjects while Blyth [1991:12] mentions the apprehension with which SAT's have been viewed by teachers as they are concerned about the impact on children and about their (teacher's) own workloads.

Many researchers are critical of the National Curriculum. Wilson [1993:3], for example, in referring to the ERA says it on the one hand opens up the school system completely to market forces and yet on the other it imposes a national curriculum which effectively puts state control into every classroom, which to Wilson [1993] is a contradiction.

The teacher's professional autonomy is also affected. Cave [1990:2] believes the national curriculum initiative diminishes professional autonomy in the delivery of the curriculum. Further, the National Curriculum was seen as a corner stone to raise standards through the belief that better education can be provided through centrally presented programmes of study which according to Cave [1990:2] assumes unrealistic levels of monitoring and control over what happens in the classroom.

Monitoring, implementation and enforcement of the national curriculum is to be conducted through the local school governors, LEA inspectors and Her Majesty's Inspectors [Weindling 1992:66]. Sayer [1989:11] believes that central control of the curriculum rather than local interpretation of needs, limits the role of the teacher rather than extending it outwards. Fullan [1992:vii-viii], on the other hand, believes that the National Curriculum can be seen either as an oppressive constraint or constructive opportunity, depending on one's viewpoint and response.

The dilemma for many primary schools, according to Owen [1994:27], will be whether a subject-centred national curriculum can be successfully managed with strategies developed to implement a child-centred curriculum. Owen [1994:27] makes the following observations:

- * The National Curriculum is prescriptive and tight while the school's generated curriculum, however, was developed by reference to a process-based approach. School's policy and national policy are seen as an apparent mismatch.
- * The National Curriculum is subject-centred while the school's approach was firmly rooted in the child-centred tradition.
- * Prescription infers that the defined curriculum has intrinsic value which means that coverage will be an important factor in the successful implementation. The school curriculum on the other hand was organised around topics and projects which provided the focus for a wide range of subjects and linked activities.
- * Assessment is to be criterion-referenced and nationally organised while the school's approach centred on teacher assessment and norm-referenced standardised tests.

Clearly then while the Conservative Government's intention was to improve the quality of education by changing the subject content taught in schools, the introduction of a National Curriculum was not perceived as a positive development by many critics.

3.2.3.2 Open Enrolment

The Act provides that parents will be able to enroll their children at any school that has the physical capacity to accept them provided that it is appropriate for the age and aptitude of the child [Cave 1990:2; Thomas 1993:32]. Parents have now greater freedom of choice in selecting a school for their children and providing they combine in sufficient majority, may further choose to opt out of local authority control [North 1988:163] (see also section 3.3.8).

The assumption behind this legislation is that the operation of open-market competition for pupils will ensure that good schools will flourish and bad schools will be forced to close [Cave 1990:2; Foreman 1993:10] or as Brown [1990:74] puts it “go out of business.” The inter-school competition for recruitment is further supported by a growing emphasis on the development of performance indicators which are indeed, in part, to give parents more information when they and their children are choosing a school. The publishing of pupils’ results on the national assessment will inform parents on their choice of schools [Thomas 1993:33]. Foreman [1993:10] says the belief is that customers will “shop around, compare league tables and truancy rates” and choose the best but he says most customers do not behave like this. However, according to Cave [1990:3], there is no evidence to prove that schools that have already closed were performing poorly or that schools that are over subscribed are better schools.

With respect to competition, Pryke [1992:4] says there is evidence that competition is an increasingly significant factor in the secondary sector, but is far less important in the primary school. Hopkins and Leask [1989:3] and Westoby [1989:67] disagree that performance indicators can be effectively used to judge general school performances. Whether a school is good or not cannot be assessed by looking at the examination results, by observing pupil’s behaviour in the street and by asking parents. Jonathan [1990:19] says individual success and failure cannot be seen as the simple consequence of individual talent and effort. Hopkins and Leask [1989], add further, there are many other factors that can affect school performance, citing as an example, the role of parents in motivating their children, depending on their commitment to their value of schooling.

However, Glover [1992a:223], while saying choice is a complex issue, also believes it is more child-focussed rather than parent-focussed. Recent research of West and Varlaam [1991] and Coldron and Boulton [1991] indicates that pupil happiness was the most important factor in choice of schools. This research revealed that it is not always true that parents choose schools for their children on the basis of good results.

There are also financial implications with respect to open enrolment. According to Thomas [1993:33], schools which are successful will attract more pupils and more funds and will as a result be able to appoint staff of their choice while schools which are unsuccessful will have fewer pupils, less money and will need to dismiss staff [Thomas 1993:33]. Cave [1990:3] adds that schools facing falling enrolments because of environmental factors become caught in a downward spiral of decline over which they have no control. School decline occurs because the Act advocates market forces and competition between institutions rather than co-operation in contributing to the local community [Sayer 1989:10-11].

Open enrolment also impacts on the role of LEAs as they are prohibited from setting administrative ceilings to their schools' intakes, and will compel popular schools to admit up to a "standard number" intended to reflect their physical capacity [Westoby 1989:66]. Some critics of national tests have claimed that they will lead to substantial destabilising migrations of children from school to school in quest of the "best scores and the excellence they are presumed to denote" [Westoby 1989:73].

Some critics are also wary of the social consequences of the market approach. According to Cave [1990:3], parents may exercise their rights of choice for social rather than educational reasons and may refuse to send their children to schools that have large numbers of socially or economically deprived pupils, thus reinforcing racial divisions. Similarly, schools with large numbers of ethnic minority pupils may be unpopular with some White parents, thus creating racial segregation. It can be argued therefore, that the Act may be unintentionally promoting racial discrimination.

Pring [1988:96] says it is inappropriate to use the 'market metaphor' when discussing schools as it is dangerously misleading for understanding educational processes and for directing educational policies. The market approach, according to Humphreys and Thompson [1995:134], has some clear advantages when viewed as "the production of commodities" but it seems to have "less substance when applied to improving the quality of teacher's learning." The authors go on to say that it is assumed that the aims of education and the aims of the market-place are identical but since commodities don't have any moral responsibility, education should not be reduced to the notion of a commodity which can be consumed by parents and controlled by central government. Stenhouse in [Humphreys & Thompson 1995:134] says to do so would be to "subordinate the role of the teacher to being a transmitter of the state's version of knowledge, rather than allowing pupils access to a commonwealth of knowledge."

Moral issues that results through the exercise of choice can also not be overlooked. According to Jonathan [1990:20], choice is a moral issue. The pressure is on parents to behave in their children's interest as if they (the parents) endorse such values whether that is the case or not. In so behaving they express and entrench them (values), producing an ethos which may be contrary not only to their children's interest but also to their own beliefs.

Further, Jonathan [1990:20], believes the appeal to individual rights is dubious in three principal respects:

- * There is the moral objection that individual rights constrain the broader autonomy even on those individuals on whom they appear to confer immediate benefit.
- * The egalitarian objection that some will exercise these rights more effectively than others giving a further twist to the spiral of cumulative advantage and disadvantage.
- * The fact that procedural changes in the policy mechanism brings about substantive changes in the nature and distribution of education and in the general political economy and takes such changes out of the proper forum of debate.

The first point creates a dilemma for the individual, the second for the state whilst the third, bypasses the democratic process, the longer term consequences of which are unlikely to serve well the social aims of libertarianism [Jonathan 1990:20].

3.2.3.3 Parental Involvement

One of the key aims of the 1988 ERA is to give parents more power over the state school system [Westoby 1989:65, Cave 1990:3]. The ERA seeks to provide parents with publicly ascertainable, standardised benchmarks which they can use to compare different schools [Westoby 1989:73]. However, Cave [1990:4], argues that parents have no wish to interfere in professional matters relating to the organisation and management of internal affairs, rather there is emerging evidence that suggest they are more interested in outcomes than processes.

Parents who are members of a governing board now have the power to hire and fire and disciplinary powers over staff and will have individual liability for discriminatory or unfair practices [Cave 1990:4; Weindling 1992:67]. The additional power to parents within governing bodies has weakened the role of LEAs [Fullan 1992:viii].

However, Cave [1990:4], has noticed a lack of enthusiasm on the part of parents to take part in the new accountability procedures through which parents can question the school's performance and possibly take corrective action. However, parents continue to be interested in parent-teacher meetings and in written reports which give an account of what is going on in the schools but public meetings at which head teachers are held to account for the school's performance have been poorly attended [Cave 1990:4-5; Tomlinson 1988:16].

3.2.3.4 Local Management of Schools (LMS)

With the implementation of the ERA, increasing emphasis has been given to schools becoming individual "cost centres" with the delegation of operational financial responsibility, through the development of policies for the local management of schools being remitted to the head [Williams 1989:27]. This has become popularly known and increasingly referred to as Local Management of Schools (LMS) [McAlister & Connolly 1990:31]. Under the provision of the Act, all secondary schools and those primary schools with 200 pupils or more will have control over their budgets [Cave 1990:6]. School-based budgets, it is thought, will lead to greater flexibility and lead to a greater awareness among teachers of the financial implications of educational decisions [Cave 1990:6].

Unlike the development of the National Curriculum, LMS has no roots in the education world. It is not directly concerned with matter of pedagogy, theories of learning or questions about assessment [Bowe & Ball 1992:64]. Bowe and Ball [1992:66] go on to say that in the new Right thinking, there emerged a strong belief that a State-run educational system produces systemic dependency (schools dependent upon the system), complacency (an unresponsiveness to the demands of society), bureaucracy (initiatives for change hampered by "red tape") and

“protectionism” (educational quality judged by the “professionals”, whose control concerns may not be in the national or the consumers’ interests). Such tendencies can be eradicated if spending is devolved to schools as individual enterprises are required to respond to some form of educational market.

Local Management of Schools (LMS) have two main objectives:

- * To ensure that parents and the community know on what basis the available resources are distributed in their areas and how much is being spent on each school.
- * To give to the governors of all country and voluntary secondary schools, and of larger primary schools the freedom to take expenditure decisions which match their own priorities and the guarantee that their own school will benefit if they achieve efficiency savings [McAlister & Connolly 1990: 32-33].

At the school level, this initiative will require a shift from local administration of centrally determined programmes to local management of resources. The differences between administration and management are numerous and will, in practice, necessitate considerable change in role for staff, head teachers and governors [McAlister & Connolly 1990:33].

The basic principles underlying LMS is that if decisions about resource allocation are taken as close as possible to the operational part of the process, better quality decisions will emerge. By involving people in the running of the organisation within the constraints of a predetermined budget, an incentive will be provided to improve efficiency and effectiveness [McAlister & Connolly 1990:34]. Through the introduction of LMS, Foskett [1992:9], believes schools acquire both the flexibility and spending power that make them more responsive to the external environment and the direct responsibility and accountability for the success that make them exercise their managerial skills to the full.

Bowe and Ball [1992:66-67] have identified four areas associated with market-driven funding namely, self-determination, entrepreneurship, cost-effectiveness and consumerism. Self-determination is designed to replace any sense of an educational system and replace it with a market-driven diverse set of enterprises (schools) charged with delivery products (schooled persons) with a minimum quality specification (the skills and knowledge of the National Curriculum). Entrepreneurship, on the other hand, is seen as part of new culture of management - seeing a school as an enterprise, thereby using more effective management models from the business world. Cost-effectiveness is seen as providing the service through driving out the inefficiencies of the system, the bureaucratic inertia and the “Town Hall Politics” by devolving

decisions to the school. Finally, consumerism will allow all parents and employers to judge the quality of the education provided and reduce the power of the educationalist. Parents and learners are free to choose schools of their choice.

This relationship between a market-driven system as opposed to state-driven system is depicted diagrammatically as follows [Bowe & Ball 1992:67].

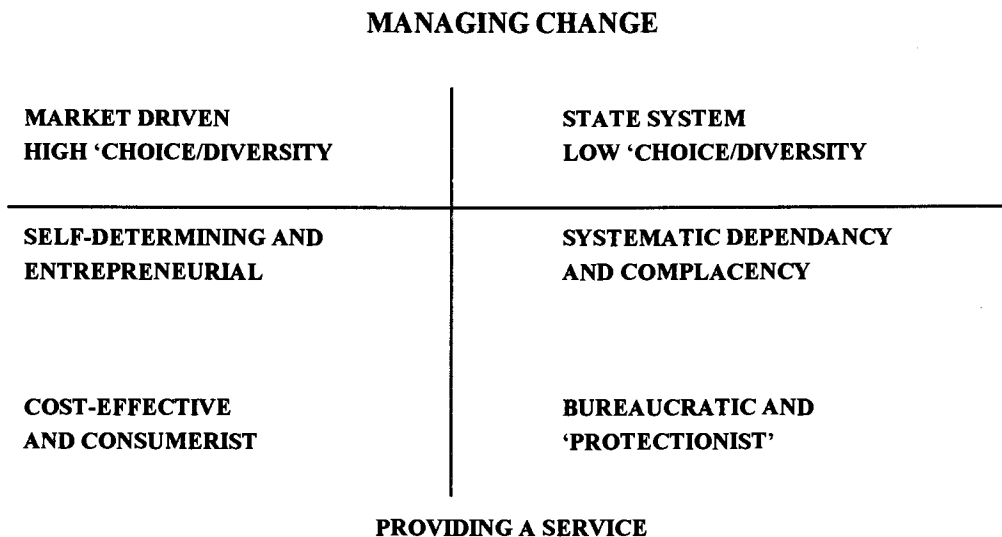


Figure 2. Relationship between a Market Driven System as opposed to a State Driven System

Change in education can be driven either by the market or by the state. Whether the market system or state system will be implemented depends on the political ideology of the government in power.

However, what can be said is that under the state-driven system, the state is bureaucratic and protectionist as it believes it must have ownership of the change. This in turn allows for little choice among consumers who in time become dependent on the state and complacent.

On the other hand a market-driven system allows for market forces to drive change. Under such a system there is competition among the various service providers for the provision of better services to consumers. While under the state-driven system the services are paid for by the state, in the market-driven system, the consumer sector drives the change.

Finally, Cave [1990:6], criticises the LMS as it was introduced without a planned programme to develop the capacities needed. Although the legislation provides that the governing body is charged with the responsibility for the school's budget, it is likely that in many cases the tasks

involved will be delegated to the head teacher who may not have the pre-requisite skills to manage the task. A similar situation prevails in former Department of Education and Training schools that were researched (see sections 6.4.2.2.1 and 6.4.2.2.2).

3.2.3.5 School Governance

The Education Act [1986] and ERA [1988] changed the role and composition of the school governors. Every school now had to have its own governing body made up of parents, teachers, LEA personnel, community representatives and the head (unless he or she chooses not to be a governor) [Weindling 1992:66]. The governing body of a secondary school with more than 600 pupils must now comprise five parents, five LEA staff, two teachers, six community members and the school's head [Weindling 1992:66].

Head teachers and governors will be required to work closely together to ensure that the children are receiving the best possible education through optimum use of resources. Their general responsibilities include:

- * The establishment of educational needs and priorities in the schools.
- * A cost-benefit analysis of alternative allocation of funds to meet those priorities.
- * The detailed deployment of resources.
- * The monitoring of the impact of decisions taken.
- * An evaluation of the effectiveness of programmes undertaken [Cave 1990:7].

In addition, the governors are requested to produce an annual report to parents and hold a parent's meeting at least once a year [Weindling 1992:66; Wilson 1988:8]. Although LEAs are still the teachers' employers, all appointments will be made by the governors [Weindling 1992:66].

It is hoped that the beneficial outcomes of the ERA will be to give a stimulus to the development of close and rewarding partnership between the staff of schools and their organisations and not only to governors. However, Cave [1990:8], believes that the full potential of the partnership between schools and their governing bodies depends on two requirements being addressed, namely:

- * The proper preparation of governors to enable them to discharge their responsibilities effectively.

- * Acceptance by the school of its responsibility to create circumstances in which the governing body will be encouraged to feel that it has a positive and constructive role to play.

Another worrisome aspect regarding school governors, is the vaguely formed belief that somehow a school board composed of teachers and parents would put everything right [Wilson 1988:8]. This view, according to Wilson [1988:8], contains no statement of educational philosophy. Wilson [1988:8] goes on to say that “rather than managing change in education by liberating and extending the professionalism of teachers, it is assumed that a process of hiring one here and firing one there would produce the goods.” What is implied is that punitive measures do not work. If change is to be managed, the empowerment of teachers is also important.

The changing role of governing bodies was investigated by Pryke [1992]. Pryke [1992:3-4] has found in his study of the Kent Education Department that local management had enhanced the role of governing bodies, but entails a greater commitment of time and acceptance of personal responsibility. Apart from finance, new areas of activity are emerging for governing bodies such as publicity and marketing and the development of special needs strategies and members of governing bodies need to acquire new skills. However, Cave [1990] has noted, some heads still describe governors as “passive rather than proactive and effective” and the heads believe in many cases the governing body are not fully addressing strategic issues. Interestingly, principals interviewed by the researcher felt the same way about their governing bodies (see section 6.4.2.2). The governor’s increasingly strategic role must be clearly defined and a way found in which it can complement the strategic function of the head as well as his or her operational duties [Pryke 1992:4]. Nevertheless, Pryke [1992:4] says generally, governors have welcomed local management although there are feelings of uncertainty and apprehension.

The Kent Education Department addressed the new role of governing bodies by developing a comprehensive programme for governors training and support. Support needs to target less experienced governors to help them find their way into their new role and become confident in the effective shouldering of their new responsibility [Pryke 1992]. Interestingly, the researcher reached a similar finding with respect to capacities of governing bodies in the South African context (see section 6.4.2.2).

3.2.3.6 Grant Maintained Schools (GMS)

A section of the ERA, allowed schools to “opt out” of their LEA and become “grant maintained” (GM) [Weindling 1992:3; Jonathan 1990:18]. These schools are financed directly by the central government. If parents of a school vote in favour of opting out, the head and governors must provide the Secretary of State with detailed proposals and he/she accepts or rejects them following scrutiny of the schools by Her Majesty’s Inspectors [Weindling 1992:6]. This change in schools was designed to increase the range and diversity of schools from which parents and children can choose. While the organisation for local management of schools was intended to make schools more responsible to parents, the organisation of grant maintained schools, in threatening the viability of LEAs put pressure on them (the LEAs) to be more responsive, both to schools as clients and to parents as clients [Thomas 1993:34].

A central government drive towards grant-maintained status for all schools, required the setting up of a funding agency for school (FAS), to administer their finances and undertake planning [Tomlinson 1994:3]. In effect then this option contradicts the view which says LMS is preferable as schools then become individually accountable.

This part of the Act received great hostility from all sections of the education establishment and it seemed as though few schools apart from those threatened with closure, would seek GM status. Many heads who are philosophically opposed to the idea, now believe however that, in the interests of their schools, they cannot ignore the substantial financial incentives that GM schools are offered [Weindling 1992:67].

3.2.3.7 Local Education Authorities (LEAs)

Under the LMS (see section 3.2.3.4) the LEAs are allowed to retain some monies for services such as local inspectors and education psychologists [Weindling 1992:67]. Local Education Authorities will no longer be able to limit pupil intakes to secure an even distribution of places across their schools [Scott 1989:12]. The most important role for the LEAs was to monitor school performance and the introduction of the National Curriculum and, to this end, accountability was of paramount importance [Weindling 1992:68]. Thus, the LEA changed from the school’s provider to the school’s enabler and monitor. The National Curriculum needs policing and LEAs were to be prominent in this role [Tomlinson 1994:3]. For some LEA staff this meant a shift away from being an adviser to an inspector. Some LEAs have established separate teams of inspectors and advisers [Weindling 1992:68]. However, when the Education Bill became law in Spring 1992, inspections were opened up

to a range of other people, including management consulting firms from the business sector. The governors of each school are responsible for seeing to it that the school is inspected at least every four years by a team of inspectors [Weindling 1992:68]. Thus, the LEAs monitoring role of the curriculum was substituted with OFSTED (The Office for Standards in Education) inspections, that conducted school inspections on market principles [Tomlinson 1994:3].

3.2.3.8 Teacher Appraisals

Staff appraisal was first formally mentioned in government documents namely that of the Department of Education and Science [DES], 1983 [Fidler 1995a:95]. The Secretary of State included it in his speech to the North of England Conference in 1984. At a conference on appraisal in 1985 the Secretary of State recognised that a sensitively worked out scheme, carefully introduced, and embodying safeguards for the individual would be required [Fidler 1995a:95].

The Secretary of State hoped that appraisal would be introduced voluntarily but since progress was “painfully slow” he used the Education Act 1986 No2 to implement appraisals when the necessary statutory guidance was prepared [Fidler 1995a:95]. By seeking to impose its own system of teacher appraisals the Government was intending to examine critically the process of education that takes place in the classroom. The Office for Standards in Education (OFSTED) has recently stated that about 70 % of the time that inspectors are in schools must be spent observing classroom practice [Humphreys & Thompson 1995:134].

Bollington, Hopkins and West [1990:2] afford the following reasons for appraisal:

* Appraisal was a response to a desire to bring a greater degree of accountability in the public service. Accountability had to do with more efficient use of resources and therefore the call for a systematic performance appraisal system to bring about a better relationship between pay, responsibilities and performance, especially teaching performance in the classroom. The DES [1985] in Bollington et al. [1990:2] perceives the need for appraisals for the following reasons:

- The regular and formal appraisal of the performance of all teachers is necessary if LEAs are to have the reliable, comprehensive and up to date information necessary for the systematic and effective provision of professional support and development and the deployment of staff to best advantage.

- Appraisal is seen as the culmination of a series of moves designed to improve the professional development of teachers and to identify more precisely their in-service training needs.
- Appraisal is linked to the attempt at developing the management of schools. Interest in appraisal has arisen as a result of the increased management training for senior staff and as a reflection of the requirement for schools and individuals to set out clearly their aims and objectives. There grew an appreciation for the role of target setting and the growth of review interviews as occasions for monitoring and setting targets.

Mapstone [1990:107] adds to the list by saying that appraisals can also be used to evaluate the effectiveness of the schools' recruitment and selection procedures.

Fidler [1995a:99], on the other hand, believes information from the appraisal process can also be used in any disciplinary or dismissal proceedings. Initially, however, the approach is to support and train teachers who lack competence rather than dismiss.

The School Teacher Appraisal regulations came into effect in August 1991 after almost six years of debate, pilots and research [West-Burnham 1994:27]. All teachers in service were to be appraised from September 1992 [Hughes & Jones 1994:205].

Following the 1988 ERA, state schools are financed and governed in two distinctly different ways. There are schools financed by the LEA and GM schools funded by central government through the Department for Education [Fidler 1995a:97]. For GM schools the governing body of the school is responsible for devising an appraisal scheme for the school and overseeing its implementation. For all other state schools, the LEAs are responsible for devising and implementing an appraisal scheme for schools in their area based on the national framework.

The LEA which was the appraising body had to adhere to the following principles in its management of the appraisal scheme:

- * Those presenting the scheme should have a commitment to the process and the credibility of the teachers and headteachers was important.

- * The arrangements for appraisal should be drawn up in full consultation with representatives of the professional associations and where appropriate, with those of the Diocesan authorities.
- * The scheme should be developmental, constructive and, where-ever possible, positive.
- * Adequate training should be provided for all those involved in appraisal.
- * The process should be a two-way process and related to the context of schools and the appraisee's own stage of development [Hughes & Jones 1994:206-207].

Of interest is the fact that the principles and guidelines set out above are strikingly similar to appraisal documents that are presently being considered by the Education Labour Relations Council (ELRC) (see section 4.14).

3.2.3.8.1 Procedures for Teacher Appraisal

The basic appraisal process for classroom teachers includes the following stages:

- * Initial planning meeting. A meeting of appraisee and appraiser to plan the appraisal process.
- * Classroom observation and feedback. At least two periods of classroom observation totalling one hour for every teacher will be necessary. The observation has to be negotiated in terms of which groups, on which occasions, and for what purpose.
- * Collection of evidence. The regulations recognise that the job of the teacher is more than class teaching. Therefore, there is provision for collection of data from others who can provide information on other aspects of the teacher's work.
- * Self-appraisal. This is the optional part of the process, and it is considered the most valuable. Teachers reflect on their work and this helps them to identify training needs to begin to formulate targets for the future. It also addresses the power relationships involved in the process.
- * Interview. In this situation all the evidence is brought together by the appraisee and appraiser. An agenda is drawn up which covers:

- A review of the work in the period since the last appraisal.
 - Training and developmental needs.
 - A discussion of the career aspirations of the appraisee.
 - A discussion of organisational obstacles to improvement in the work of the appraisee.
 - Targets for the coming 2 years.
- * **Written Statement.** Following the interview, the appraiser is required to write an appraisal report on the teacher summarising the discussion and stating the agreed targets and training developmental needs. There are elaborate procedures laid down for resolving any dispute arising from an appraisee who is not satisfied with the appraisal report. Although the report is confidential to the appraisee, appraiser, head teacher and LEA (of a LEA school) the training and developmental needs may have to be made known to the staff development co-ordinator so that training and development may be arranged.
- * **Follow-up.** What has been agreed to by the school and manager should be delivered to facilitate the efforts of the appraisee. There should be brief but regular follow-ups to discuss progress achievement.
- * **Review meeting.** As the appraisal cycle takes 2 years, there is a review meeting during the second year to discuss progress on targets which were agreed upon at the appraisal interview [Fidler 1995a:100-102].

The introduction of teacher appraisals is not without problems. The concerns around teacher appraisals are discussed briefly hereunder.

The management and co-ordination of an LEAs appraisal scheme is complex because it demands that attention be given to a wide range of considerations [Hughes & Jones 1994:208-209]. Bunnell [1987:ix], in keeping with this theme, believes appraisal is doomed to fail if it is seen as a means of getting rid of incompetent teachers or as a whip to improve performance by external sanctions. He goes on to say that schemes of appraisal need to harmonise summative and formative assessments, satisfying managerial developmental and accountability demands. Marland [1987:5] says appraisal is not something others do to a school, but something a school does to help itself with its decision-making and the professional development of its staff.

There are limitations also if market forces are used in the context of teacher appraisal. According to Humphreys and Thompson [1995:134], an appreciation of the humanistic perspective of education is central to understanding the most effective way of approaching teacher appraisal. The market force ideology is therefore rejected.

The notion of employeeship wherein collective responsibilities for professional performance is developed and staff esteem is raised, is also another issue for consideration. This notion of “employeeship” according to Moller in Humphreys and Thompson [1995:135] strives to offer an opportunity for genuine collective responsibility, loyalty and initiative within a culture that fosters collective responsibility. But, Hosking and Morley in Humphreys and Thompson [1995:135] say, there is evidence that not all of the individuals within the educational establishment share common goals.

The manner in which the appraisal system was established has become a burden and at times an impediment to teacher learning. This top-down government inspired strategy, according to Humphreys and Thompson [1995:136], served to alienate and disempower teachers by placing power in the hands of a formally trained appraisers and discourages collective expertise. Further, the two year cycle of implementation according to Humphreys and Thompson [1995:136] does not mention any action in-between and gives the impression it is a tokenistic action once every two years.

According to Fidler [1995a:103], appraisees are also very concerned about safeguards for themselves. An appraisal is a combination of evaluation and development. It should not be thought that the appraisal is without safeguards for appraisees [Fidler 1995a:103]. Such safeguards are, for example, the prior help that poor performers receive preceding the appraisal process. When such professional assistance is afforded, appraisal can be seen as a developmental process [Fidler 1995a:103].

The needs of the individual and the school also feature in the appraisal process. The problem arises when the career aspirations and personal developmental needs of the individual teacher are not met because funds are channelled towards meeting school needs [Fidler 1995a:104]. This can lead to dismay on the part of the appraisees and loss of faith in the system of appraisals.

While appraisal requires a benchmark set of standards for teachers’ performances against which to make an initial evaluation of whether the basic work of each teacher is satisfactory, this is not how schools have worked [Fidler 1995a:104]. Her Majesty’s Inspectorate have tended to adopt a deficit model, that is some ideal performance has been used as a standard

to identify failure. This is unhelpful as a benchmark and it tends to inculcate the practice of forever trying to remedy perceived deficiencies [Fidler 1995a:104]. Adopting a deficit model does not foster a feeling of enthusiasm for appraisal as a developmental process.

Staff attitudes also can influence teacher appraisals. According to Nathan [1993:65], the first and most fundamental problem that had to be addressed was staff attitudes towards appraisal. Schools met with resistance for two reasons. Firstly, appraisal was seen as threatening, invading the sanctity of the teacher's classroom and the fears that it would be judgemental rather than developmental. Secondly, there were political implications with unions' oppositions because it was feared that appraisal would be linked to performance-related pay.

To this end, McCallum, McAlister, Brown and Gipps [1993:320], say it is unrealistic to expect all teachers to be motivated to change, other than in minimal ways to satisfy statutory requirements. However, in an evaluation study conducted by Evans [1995], 70 % of teachers were very positive about the prospect of appraisal and nearly nine out of ten teachers were satisfied with their appraiser. Teachers were similarly positive about self-appraisal. Nixon [1995:14] also found similar responses in a study of staff attitudes to appraisal.

There are also other factors that militate against the strategy for human resource management. West-Burnham [1994:27] says the most significant restraint to effective human resource management is the two-year cycle which ignores the reality of school life, in which almost all management processes are managed on an annual basis.

Further, Fidler [1995b:3], is concerned that classroom monitoring may be used to enforce particular teaching styles. Since teaching is much more contingent and dependent on the subject, the children and the teacher, classroom observation needs to be appropriately circumspect in offering guidance.

Teacher appraisal has also to do with equality issues with reference to race and gender. For Harper [1993:8], with compulsory teacher appraisals, the issue of equality of opportunity needs to be identified, acknowledged and addressed. Current statistics show that adopting the line management modes of appraisal will result in mostly men appraising women and White teachers appraising Black teachers [Harper 1993].

To this end, Thomas [1992], states that the lack of money for training and especially for such “luxuries as assertiveness training for woman and minority groups, could well bedevil the cause of equal opportunities.” In its document *Appraisal and Equal Opportunities*, the National Union of Teachers recommended that LEAs and schools set targets to ensure that as many women and Black teachers as possible receive training as appraisers.

3.2.4 THE ROLE OF SCHOOL MANAGEMENT IN ENGLAND AND WALES IN AN ERA OF CHANGE

According to research [Weindling 1992:69-70], head teachers of the 60's and 70's had become rather laissez-faire in their leadership and content to let things slide and this had caused leadership problems for new heads as “the personality and style of a predecessor can create lasting effects (thus) making change by a successor difficult to achieve” [Weindling 1992:71].

Of the new heads who had been asked to respond to their style of management, many said they were consultative on their decision-making, delegated more to senior management teams, were more accessible and open to other peoples' ideas, and established closer links with the community and district office [Weindling 1992:71]. The heads had to now exercise a participatory style of management but recognised that a truly democratic approach was not always feasible [Weindling 1992:71].

Yet the majority of teachers who were interviewed [Weindling 1992] did not think the heads were open to other peoples' ideas and opinions. Teachers wanted strong leadership and while many heads were able to provide this, in some schools that were researched, staff were not impressed [Weindling 1992:72-73].

In terms of principals' roles a survey showed that eighty percent of heads maintained that their roles are now very different because of changes that include the following:

- * Responding to LEA and government initiatives to become managers, executives, administrators dealing with public relations and promoting the schools image.
- * They are now asked to spend an increasing amount of time with parents, partly because parents had become more difficult to deal with and partly because many more needed advice and counselling [Weindling 1992:74].
- * Implementing the National Curriculum and testing.

- * Conducting teacher appraisals.
- * Dealing with a new a governing body with increased powers.
- * Assuming responsibility for the local management of schools [Weindling 1992:73].

Further, many principals felt that the management of enforced change was taking away from them the time and the freedom to develop purely school-based initiatives [Weindling 1992:73]. Heads also noted the great deal of administrative work that they were now asked to perform [Weindling 1992:74]. Hellawell [1990:408] and Weindling [1992:74] conclude that some heads are prepared to take action against the potential effects on their role.

There was also now an increased accountability on the part of the head, accountability in relation to the new governing bodies. Further, the public relations role in promoting the school image had become critical because they have begun to realise the ever importance of marketing the school.

With competition that the ERA encouraged and the problem of falling enrolment, heads were having to look much more carefully at the school's reputation, its publicity, its relations with the community and its involvement with industry [Weindling 1992:74].

3.2.5 SUMMARY

In this section of the chapter, the researcher sketched what constituted a changing school environment in England and Wales. Some of the more important changes namely those that were initiated by the ERA were analysed and discussed in detail. The impact of these changes on the school principal was also discussed. One can conclude that the reform movement in England and Wales was driven by strong ideological foundations. This is not to say that the ideology is fully coherent and without internal inconsistencies [Simkins 1992:4].

The following section of this chapter investigates the restructuring of the system of education in the United States of America.

3.3 THE EDUCATION REFORM MOVEMENT IN THE UNITED STATES OF AMERICA

3.3.1 INTRODUCTION

Education in the United States of America (USA) is a “local responsibility”, a state function, and a national concern. Through a complicated set of historical and constitutional arrangements, the provision of public education is the responsibility of each of the fifty states, though much of the actual policy-making authority resides with the governing boards of the 15,200 local school districts [Koppich & Guthrie 1993:55]. According to Steffy and English [1995:28], education in the USA is the “peculiar creature of the second tier of a federal system of government” in which power in this area is jointly shared between the two levels (federal and state). The USA is one of the few remaining western powers without a centralised Ministry of Education exercising rigid and total control of things pertaining to primary and secondary education.

A Nation at Risk issued by the National Commission on Excellence in Education was published in 1983 with its warning that a rising tide of mediocrity threatened to engulf the nations’ schools. The USA’s unchallenged pre-eminence in commerce, industry, science and technological innovation was being overtaken by competitions throughout the world [Neubert 1995:43]. This book *A Nation at Risk* sounded an education call to arms and unleashed a firestorm of reform activity [Koppich & Guthrie 1993:51]. *A Nation at Risk* pointed towards several aspects of the American educational system including the content of education, levels of expectation for students, inappropriate use of time in the educational setting, unsatisfactory teacher training, and ineffective teaching strategies for the decline in quality education [Neubert 1995:43].

Gardner [1990:595] believes that while the dialogue about educational reform in the United States of America began with the publication of the report, *A Nation at Risk*, the reform movement however, did not only begin after 1983. Since the late 1970s, America had been engaged in a far reaching debate about the purpose, organisation, and performance of its schools. The debate was carried out in state legislatures, governors’ offices, and local school boards across the country and has included topics ranging from the qualifications and preparation of teachers to student-learning and the content of the curriculum, as well as the testing and the purpose of schools [Elmore 1990:xi]. However, according to Wise [1988:329], no common vision guided the reform movement thereby complicating the issue.

3.3.2 DEFINITION AND CHARACTERISTICS OF THE AMERICAN EDUCATIONAL REFORM MOVEMENT

The American reform movement is characterised by conflicting points of view and prescription in the debate over school restructuring. The one view states that schools can improve only by the introduction of teaching and learning practices based on systematic and scientifically validated knowledge. A second view holds that schools will improve when educators are given greater opportunity to exercise skill and judgement and more control over the conditions of their work. The third view holds that schools must become more accountable to their main clients, that is, students and parents, if they are to become more effective [Elmore 1990:xi]. Policy-makers therefore have the unenviable task of taking all these points of view into account when restructuring.

Cibulka [1990:97] cites the following as characteristics of the American educational reform movement, namely:

- * More mandates have been imposed on public schools from state regulation in the form of additional graduation and course requirements, teacher certification standards, testing and accountability procedures.
- * The strengthening of educational bankruptcy laws in many states.
- * Growing experimentation with site-based management.
- * Talk of reduction of bureaucratic requirements for exemplary schools.
- * Use of market processes to regular schools.
- * The introduction of inter-district choice plans.
- * A mix of greater centralisation and decentralisation in educational reform.

According to Cibulka [1990:100], the education reform in the USA is “marching on in many different directions at once” and the reason for this confusion is the breakdown of the organisational framework of power, in which the educational establishment was the dominant factor for many decades. According to many researchers [Larson 1992:6; Cibulka 1990:101; Wilkinson 1992:35-36; Barth 1991:21] restructuring means different things to different people. No one knows exactly what restructuring consists of precisely and a consensus definition has not emerged. Yet the starting point is that the entire delivery system for American elementary and secondary education must be redesigned although, as Elmore [1990:6] believes, it accommodates a variety of concepts.

School restructuring has many of the characteristics of what political and organisational theorists call a garbage can [Elmore 1990:4].

Elmore in Joyce [1991:51] says, however, the term restructuring in the American context usually refers to one of the following:

- * The technical - change in curriculum and instructions.
- * The political/social - change in client-relationship with the school.
- * The occupational structure of education - creating a more collegial workplace or involving teachers more in governance of education.

Murphy [1992:97] depicts the restructuring of schools in the USA thus:

STATE AS FACILITATOR

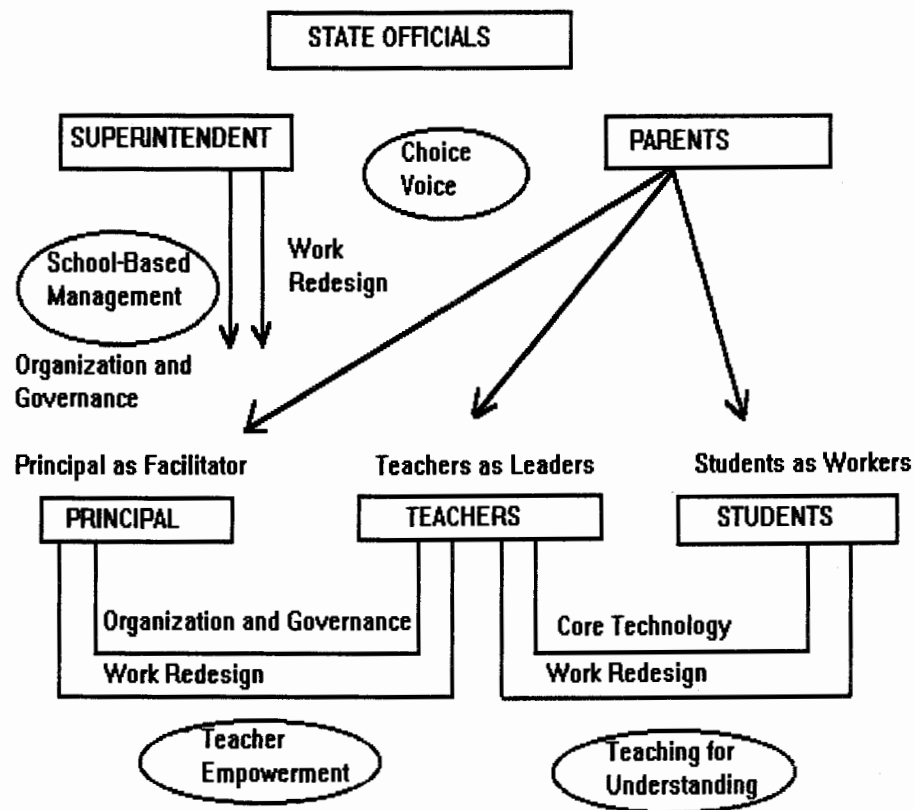


Figure. 3: Restructuring Schools: A Conceptual Framework

The purpose of this model is to see clearly the key elements which allows one to extract the major contributions of school restructuring. At the heart of the conceptual framework presented by Murphy [1992:97] are the “significant alterations in the relationship among the players involved in the educational process.” These alterations find expression in four strategies commonly associated with restructuring namely school based - management, parental voice and choice, teacher professionalism and teaching for meaningful understanding. From the figure it is clear that Murphy believes there are many actors involved in the process of educational reform. The interactions between and among these various players contribute to schooling restructuring.

3.3.3 REASONS FOR RESTRUCTURING

- * The motive for restructuring schools is often couched in the language of economic competitiveness and material well being. The nation’s economic problems are being placed at the school’s door [Elmore 1990:1]. The public looked to the schools as a solution of all of the nation’s problems [Altbach 1986:340]. The school is the only institution consistently asked to “fix” what is wrong in society because it is believed it is easier to fix schools than to fix society [Blaine 1995:10].

According to Cibulka [1990:101], the American business community is telling the educational establishment that incremental change is not sufficient. The American business community became increasingly vocal about the “millions of dollars” it was spending on remedial programmes for new employees who had recently graduated from American high schools [Koppich & Guthrie 1993:51]. Cibulka [1990:102] goes on to say that the twenty-percent drop-out school rate in the USA posed a problem for employers already facing labour shortages in coming years due to the nation’s ageing demography.

- * The relatively poor performance of American Youth on international comparisons of academic achievement also gave rise to restructuring [Koppich & Guthrie 1993:51]. Evidence suggests that neither America's best pupils nor the average ones perform well in international mathematics and science in comparison to other countries [Cibulka 1990:101; Gardner 1990:594; Burnstein 1988:81]. A quarter century long decline in student scores on standardised tests and the twenty-years downward spiral in average SAT scores only served as an added impetus for reform [Koppich & Guthrie 1993:51].

- * According to Hodgkinson [1991:10] America's best students are on par with the world's best, but America's students are undoubtedly the worst "bottom third" of any industrialised democracy. The reason for this poor performance is that reform measures do not address the social needs, that is, poverty, neglect, sickness, handicapping conditions and lack of adult protection and nurturance. Yet Blaine [1995:11], believes that international comparisons stressed by critics and reformers are not reasonable as America is a nation of many sub-cultures and therefore to compare scores may not be appropriate.

- * Another motive for restructuring schools is stated in the language of demography, equity and social justice. The proportion of children living in poverty is increasing, and these children will have to be well-educated if they are to obtain economic self-sufficiency and support a growing population of elderly, or the American society will face unacceptably high levels of poverty and dependancy [Elmore 1990:2]. Steffy and English [1995:35] state that equity served as a catalyst for reform in the State of Kentucky. In 1988 for example, the judge ruled that the General Assembly had failed in its constitutional obligation to provide an efficient system of schools and therefore a twenty-two member Task Force on Educational Reform prepared a report for reform.

- * Another impetus for reform is that the education establishment, both practitioners and researchers have been unable to offer conventional solutions which are convincing to the business and political establishment or to the concerned public more generally [Cibulka 1990:102].

- * Elmore [1990:2] cites the emerging crisis of quality in the teaching force, which will lose a large portion of current teachers through attrition or retirement in the next decade. Boman [1991:251] refers to these teachers as “suffering heroes” individuals who tried to make any system work even at the sacrifice of their own personal lives. The change in the composition of the teaching course necessitates drastic changes in the structure and management of the educational enterprise. Further, education is losing its claim on the labour pool from which teachers have traditionally been drawn as they now have access to other professional occupations [Elmore 1990:2].

- * Contribution to America’s flagging economic competitiveness also fuelled reform. The anxiety about becoming a junior partner to Japan gave impetus for the need to increase educational productivity, enhance human capital and prepare workers who, in the twenty-first century, will be required to “think for a living” [Koppich & Guthrie 1993:53]. The emphasis shifted from a stress on equity and solution of societal problems to academic and technological achievement to compete in an increasingly difficult world market [Altbach 1986:338].

- * In Chicago, the Teachers’ strike of 1988 provided the catalyst for reform. This crippling teacher’s strike led to a major educational summit and subsequently gave rise to the Chicago School Reform Act [Steffy & English 1995:30].

3.3.4 THE NATURE OF THE REFORM MOVEMENT

The reform movement can be divided into what is termed the first wave of reform and the second wave of reform. The first wave of reform according to Koppich and Guthrie [1993:55], covers the three-year period from 1983 to 1986. Elmore [1990:1] goes even beyond that period to include reforms extending from the late 1970s to the present 1990s. The reform policies enacted during the first period of reform contemplated an incremental approach to school change [Koppich & Guthrie 1993:55] and were designed to focus public education on academic content and to introduce higher standards for students and teachers [Elmore 1990:1].

The National Commission on Excellence in Education issued its report *A Nation at Risk* in April of 1983 and was followed by a spate of other reports from different agencies, a few research-based studies written by academic researchers and a tremendous amount of publicity and discussion [Altbach 1986:341]. These influential reports had generally common themes and concerns and it is possible to summarise the more important conclusions of the reports as follows:

- * The schools must stress science and mathematics.
- * The teaching profession must come under scrutiny. The quality, pay and autonomy of teachers must be improved. Teacher-education programmes had to be strengthened. Merit pay was a strategy to attract better teachers.
- * The school curriculum should be more related to the job market and to the perceived needs of industry.
- * Foreign language instruction should be started in the elementary schools and should receive high priority.

- * Students should spend more time in schools, and that time should be used more effectively for instructional purposes [Altbach 1986:342].

Prior to the 1980s, educational reform targeted specific groups, some of whom were the disabled and the gifted. Now the reform was more comprehensive targeting all students [Odden & Marsh 1988:594].

Some of the responses to the first reform movement are the following:

- * Many states increased higher school graduation requirements.
- * Core courses were added to the learning programmes resulting in high school course enrolments shifting dramatically with more emphasis on mathematics, science, history, and foreign languages and emphasised vocational and academically soft subjects. Thus the United States was preparing for global economic participation [Altbach 1986:342].
- * A number of states tightened teacher certification procedures making it more difficult to choose teaching as a career.
- * Many states enacted enhanced state-wide student-assessment programmes designed to measure pupil's academic progress.
- * Some states lengthened the school day or the school year or both.
- * Text book selection procedures were revised.
- * Legislation tended to be top-down and prescriptive.
- * Reform activities represented add-on to the existing educational structure [Koppich & Guthrie 1993:55-56; Altbach 1986:345].

The state of California initiated several reform measures and its restructuring programme reflects to a greater or lesser degree reform initiatives embarked upon in other states in the United States of America. California introduced a new legislation SB 813 which increased the scope of local districts from curriculum to instruction to financial structures and incentives for longer school terms. Further, this legislation increased high school graduation requirements. This reform legislation also strengthened the connection between curriculum and testing and linked the California Assessment Programme (CAP) more directly to the model curriculum standards. Further, administrators had to demonstrate their knowledge and expertise in order to be certified to evaluate teachers. The creation of mentor teachers (about 5% of all teachers) had to help in curriculum and staff development and in the training of new teachers [Odden & Marsh 1988:594].

Of the 17 secondary schools in 10 different school districts that were researched by Odden and Marsh [1988:594] to determine reforms and the level of success in the implementation of education reform they found:

- * Virtually all schools implemented key provisions of SB 813 in a manner that is consistent with state purposes.
- * Education reform legislated at the state level can be an effective means of improving schools when it is woven into a cohesive strategy at the school level.
- * Successful implementation at school level reflects several key themes:
 - District leadership is important in both initiating local reform and in supporting its implementation.
 - District leaders transformed disparate elements of SB 813 into integrated visions of reform tailored to local needs and requirements.

- To district visions, schools added their own emphasis on culture.
- Teacher participation and site-administration in designing local implementation balanced top-down initiatives from district and state.
- * Attention to the substance of curriculum and instruction improved learning conditions for all schools and test scores.
- * Students with learning needs received increased attention.

Hodgkinson [1991:10], on the other hand, believes otherwise. He says that there had been no change in high school graduation rates, in most test scores, or in other indicators of quality. The reason for the failure according to Hodgkinson [1991:10], was that the earlier reforms did not address the nature of children who came to school. At least one-third of the nations' children are at risk of school failure even before they enter kindergarten because of social needs.

The fact is that more than one third of American children have the deck stacked against them long before they enter school [Hodgkinson 1991:10].

White-Hood [1991:4] and Blaine [1995:12], for example, say that unprecedented issues facing African-American males in America, including an increase in violence and death, imprisonment, unemployment, drug abuse, teenage parenting, failure in school and the homeless, have given rise to extraordinary challenges for educators.

As initial reform efforts proceeded, a growing chorus of education reform advocates began to express concern that incremental changes were insufficient [Koppich & Guthrie 1993:57]. The second wave extending from 1990 to the present, focusses on fundamental changes in expectations for student-learning, in the practice of teaching, and in the organisation and management of public schools [Elmore 1990:1]. Gardner [1990:595-596] and Koppich and Guthrie [1993:57] have identified three reports which appeared in 1986 that reinforced the concern of a nation at risk namely:

- * The Carnegie Forums Task Force on *Teaching as a Profession, A Nation Prepared: Teachers for the 21st Century*.
- * National Governors' Association's report called *Time For Results*. The Governors' 1986 report on Education.
- * The Holmes Group report entitled *Tomorrows Teachers*.

All three reports argued that serious attention be paid to the job of teaching and the organisation of schools.

Without substantial changes in the teaching occupation and significant alterations in the underlying organisational structure of American public schools, declare these reports, incremental education reforms, however soothing initially, could well prove ephemeral [Koppich & Guthrie 1993:57].

These reports:

- * asserted that bureaucratic structures of conventional American schools are not suited to serve as "training grounds" for jobs of the 21st century.
- * implied that the new skills students will need to master are unlikely to be conveyed successfully by individuals who function within the confines of a hierarchical bureaucracy where the scope of their work has been predetermined by others.
- * advocated a bottom-up approach to school improvement. This bottom-up approach meant that schools must alter their method of operation so that students become producers of knowledge rather than simply absorb it. To this end, Sheingold [1991:18], believes educators and policy-makers nationwide should recognise the crucial need for students to learn how to think, to understand concepts and ideas, to apply what they learn, and to be able to pose questions and solve problems.

- * challenged school districts to re-examine with a critical eye the fundamental context of academic course offerings.
- * advocated a modification of structure of educational decision-making, and realign the balance of authority among teachers, administrators, and parents.
- * aimed to promote accountability, by urging states to adopt both positive and negative sanctions intended to enhance the performance of schools and school districts [Koppich & Guthrie 1993:57].

In 1989 President Bush unveiled his eagerly awaited national strategy for education called *America 2000* and it was aimed at implementing the six national goals for education [Clinchy 1991:210]. These goals amongst others include the following:

- * Having all children ready for school by the time they enter kindergarten.
- * Increasing the national high-school graduation rate from 72 per cent to 90 per cent by the year 2000.
- * Ensuring that American students are “number one” in science and mathematics by the year 2000 [Koppich & Guthrie 1993:62].

As can be expected *America 2000* and the recommendations made by the reports generated much research and comment.

Research conducted by Hoyt [1991] on the 138 specific proposals contained in *Tomorrows' Teachers* (the Holmes Group report) and *Educating Teachers for the 21st Century* (the Carnegie teacher-education report) among a group of teachers and administrators revealed the odds against successfully implementing reform proposals that both principals and teachers oppose.

The data shows that both NASSP (National Secondary School Principals) and teachers agree with about three-fourths of these reform proposals. Further, of the one-fourth where disagreements exist with the proposals, NASSP leaders and teachers are more likely to agree than to disagree with each other. Strong disagreements between principals and teachers are located within “teacher power” [Hoyt 1991: 74].

Tewel [1994:335] has identified site-based management, learning, interdisciplinary courses, authentic assessments, mastery learning, outcomes-based education and the effective school’s research as characteristics of the new wave of reform.

At the institutional level restructuring had implications for schools. While no catalogue exists which neatly indexes school reform efforts, some identifiable categories of reform effort are emerging and they are:

- * In-service teacher education.
- * Site-based management programmes (school empowerment).
- * Open enrolment or choice.
- * School curriculum.
- * Centralised control.
- * Increased use of educational technology.
- * Student achievement.

It must be pointed out that not all of the above reform initiatives mentioned are necessarily implemented by all states, or at the same level of intensity, because “each state maintains substantial governmental autonomy over education matters, the kind of schooling reforms enacted, and the rates at which they have been adopted” [Koppich & Guthrie 1993:55]. Consequently, the identified initiatives out of necessity contain generalisations, which while characterising the United States nationally, may not portray any particular state with complete accuracy [Guthrie & Pierce 1990:196].

For the purposes of this research the following areas will be examined in greater detail:

- * The curriculum.
- * Educational assessments and standards.
- * Outcomes-based education.
- * Open enrolment or choice.
- * Site-based management.
- * Parental involvement in schools.
- * Teacher appraisals.

3.3.5 THE CURRICULUM

With respect to the curriculum reform the following areas will be investigated:

- * The core curriculum.
- * The instructional role of the educators in response to curriculum reform.

3.3.5.1 The Core Curriculum

As in England and Wales the need for a core curriculum began to enjoy increasing attention in the USA. The reports mentioned earlier in this chapter challenged school districts to re-examine with a critical eye the fundamental content of academic course offerings [Koppich & Guthrie 1993:57]. *A Nation at Risk* had harsh words for high school curricula which over the years had become “homogenised, diluted, and diffused to the point that they no longer have a central purpose” [Bennet 1988:A32]. The report concluded that the United States of America has a “cafeteria-style curriculum” in which the appetizers and desserts can easily be mistaken for the main course [Bennet 1988:A32].

The report proposed a reinvigorated core curriculum for American secondary schools organised around a set of “new basics” - four years of English, three years each of mathematics, social studies, one-half year of computer science, and for those students planning to attend college, two years of foreign language [Bennet 1988:A32].

However, curriculum transformation was started much earlier. Blaine [1995:12-13] for example refers to 1969 as the “Age of Aquarius” which saw the curriculum transformation based on the premise that all students do not need to learn the same bodies of knowledge, but now with the ‘Age of Awareness’ it was different. However, according to Blaine [1995:12-13], it is difficult for educators and the public to agree on what students should know and be able to do, and while believing that an accurate definition of core concepts and key skills needs to be done, the problem is reaching consensus on the issue. Further, appropriate curriculum for non-college bound students need to be developed and that curriculum must be connected with the expectations and needs of business.

Like in England and Wales the proposal for a core curriculum as a reform measure to improve quality of education has led to much debate (see section 3.2.3.1). While some critics were in favour of a core curriculum, others were not. Bennet [1988:A34], for example, believes that since adults study what adults teach, it is important for adults to define essential knowledge and resolve to teach it well. Recently, teachers, parents, students and scholars have taken part in the core curriculum debate, as have proponents of diverse political and philosophical viewpoints [Bennet 1988:A34]. However, the call for a common core curriculum is the most violently attacked as Americans cherish local control over schools and some fear that the imposition of lessons will be at odds with the school or community priorities, and also that a common curriculum will arbitrarily exclude particular ideas and traditions as America is culturally diverse [Bennet 1988:A34].

Banks [1991:10], on the other hand, believes that it is logical that citizens of the USA should master a common core of knowledge but is concerned over whose interests will be served. He goes on to say there must be broad participation in identifying, constructing and formulating the knowledge one expects all citizens to master. Such knowledge should reflect cultural democracy and serve the needs of all citizens.

Bennet [1988:A34] says that without the right curriculum, efforts to improve teaching, governance and school accountability will make little difference. He therefore advocates that a strong curriculum is essential and recommends that pupils should leave the elementary school able to read and write and have knowledge of the arts. Elementary education should also support parents in the work of developing their children's character, moral judgement, and the sense of personal responsibility [Bennet 1988:A34]. The secondary school according to according to Bennet [1988:A34], should follow a curriculum that links up with the learners' future plans, that is, to take from the secondary school a shared body of knowledge and skills, a common language of ideas and a common moral and intellectual discipline. Besides knowing mathematics, science, history and literature, students should be able to think for themselves, respond to important questions, solve problems, pursue an argument, defend a point of view, understand its opposite, weigh-up alternatives and develop traits prized in our society [Bennet 1988:A34]. To this end, Kanpol [1993:241], says the challenge is to view schools as part of a large civic, political, and critical democratic culture rather than sites where individuals serve only their individual interests and needs.

Tye [1993:5-6], on the other hand, is highly critical of statewide curriculum frameworks and argues there should be no such thing as a national curriculum or national testing. According to Tye [1993:5-6], the school must be allowed to develop its own curricula and standardised tests according to its own needs.

While the debate on a core curriculum rages on, there are others who are beginning to focus on a curriculum that fosters multiculturalism and citizenship. Several researchers [Wraga 1991; Banks 1991; and McGowan, Plugge & Reynolds 1986] are suggesting a curriculum designed

to further multicultural literacy - one that helps students and leaders to know, to care, and to act in ways that develop and cultivate a just society.

Value-based education is now beginning to enjoy greater attention [Thomas 1991:51]. Surveys of the political attitudes and values of young citizens offer the most distressing evidence that student's sense of community responsibility is particularly low [McGowan et al.1986:26]. Thomas [1991:51] believes schools can never be free of values as the transmission of values to students occurs implicitly through the content to which students are exposed. These values are transmitted through the formal curriculum as well as through the hidden curriculum. Lynch [1992:50] with reference to citizenship education says that students should understand that no worthwhile human society can prevail against an "anything-goes" value system. There are certain values over which educators and schools cannot remain neutral that is: the value of human life; human rights; social justice and the equally just society as yardsticks for decisions and judgements; democratic disclosure and peaceful conflict resolution, a sense of responsibility for human beings and for the environment. This view is echoed by the National Curriculum Council [1990:6] and with reference to a pluralist society as a component of curriculum studies it says:

A democratic society is based on shared values and a variety of cultures and lifestyles, can be maintained within the framework of its laws.

Such an approach helps pupils to appreciate that all citizens can and must be equal, increases awareness of and works towards resolving some of the tensions and conflicts that occur between groups which perceive each other to be socially, racially, ethnically or culturally different [National Curriculum Council 1990:6].

Training for citizenship is according to Corvin and Wiggins [1989:106], more relevant to White Americans as they (White Americans) tended for years to view the culturally different as inherently inferior and believed that White American culture was superior to all existing cultures.

Wraga [1991:401] sites examples of how education for citizenship was manifested in recent subject-area-reform reports. The following reports are highlighted:

- * The report of the English Coalition Conference which noted that conference participants confirmed the importance of the humanities generally and the specific value of English studies in the education of citizens who live in a democratic and increasingly complex information society.

- * The report of the American Association for the Advancement of Sciences (AAAS) emphasised the role of science on the education of all student citizens, not just those bound for science careers. It also maintained that education should equip students to participate thoughtfully with fellow citizens in building and protecting a society that is open, decent and vital.

- * The National Research Council drew attention to citizenship education in the field of mathematics education by asserting for example that citizens who are bombarded daily with conflicting quantitative information need to be aware of the power and the limitation of mathematics.

- * The report of the Curriculum Task Force of the National Commission on Social Studies in Schools [1989] recognised the understanding and transmission of citizenship or civic virtue to be a continuing responsibility of schools and particularly of social studies. Wraga [1991:402] also mentions that the final report of the National Governor's Association made constant references to citizenship education as the final goal statement throughout its report.

Gagnon [1991:7] posits that in the American society, multicultural and civic education very much need each other. While believing that a just and civil multicultural society is only possible among people with a common liberal vision and the political sophistication to turn vision into reality, Americans are no closer to putting multicultural and civic education into daily practice, because of resistance to changes in the curriculum and because of educators who are happy with the status quo.

Finally, Banks [1991:138], says that only a curriculum that reflects the collective experiences and interests of a wide range of groups is truly in the national interest and consistent with the public good. Any other curriculum reflects only special interests and thus does not meet the needs of a nation that must survive in a pluralistic, highly interdependent global world.

Some states took the lead in reforming the curriculum. In California, the state intervened to restructure the school curriculum. The goal of California's undertaking was to render what was taught more coherent, cohesive and intense [Koppich & Guthrie 1993:358].

3.3.5.2 Educators' Responses to Curriculum Reform

The restructuring of schools in essence meant that educators had to respond to curriculum changes. Efforts to restructure America's schools for the demands of a knowledge-based education are redefining the mission of school and the job of teaching. Rather than merely offering education, schools are now expected to ensure that all students learn and perform at high levels. Rather than merely "covering the curriculum" teachers are expected to find ways to support and connect with the needs of persons [Bartell 1995:32]. Both Tewel [1994:331] and Bartell [1995:32] emphasise that the success of the reform process depends fundamentally on teachers; a view also shared by Barth [1991:21]. Fullan in Wilkinson [1992:35-36] says change stands or falls on the motivation and skills of teachers as it involves not just the change of materials and structures, but also change in behaviours, practices and skills. Wilson and Litle [1992:6] with reference to social studies, believe teachers need to determine an appropriate delivery system (s) for imparting the content and skill to students.

Blank and Kershaw [1993:206] found in their research that schools rated among the best have devoted time and effort to develop a genuine commitment to renewal, a shared vision for the future, and a flow for translating that vision into reality. This also holds true for educators. They will have to be committed to good teaching and learning practices.

Significantly, Bartell [1995:34], found that a number of teachers, administrators, higher educators, parents and community members believed that teachers must be prepared to engage students in challenging a meaningful curriculum of significant ideas and powerful ways of thinking. Teachers need strong content knowledge and excellent teaching skills so students can begin to construct their own meanings by interacting with instructional programmes in schools. With respect to methodology, Walton and Carlson [1995:38], say teachers need to acquaint themselves about students' cultures in order to apply culturally responsive pedagogy and to earn the respect and trust of students and their parents. A similar view is echoed by Drake [1993:265], who believes the challenge is how teachers can show sensitivity to the students' cultural orientation while using a strategy to elicit cooperation of the parents. Creating the most favourable climate for learning is a challenge to teachers because of the numerous variables that are involved, such as interpersonal relationships, the attitudes of students and the development of the teachers' own abilities to interact with people of different cultures.

For Moore [1993:23] the teacher is a guide to learning rather than a giver of information. Teachers in restructured schools understand the difference between breadth and depth of knowledge and provide appropriate experiences for students to engage both. Another important challenge for teachers is to teach students to balance "freedoms" against responsibilities such that socially acceptable ways of behaving are learned [Chamberlain & Chambers 1994:204]. Therefore, Chamberlain and Chambers [1994:204] advocate that teaching students to be responsible should be viewed as an important and entire part of the total curriculum.

Stewart [1993:114], adds further, that by the very nature of their responsibilities, teachers must be an integral part of the planning process. Therefore, every effort must be made to ensure not only that teachers have a thorough understanding of the curriculum theory and practice, but also that they possess the requisite skills for competently planning instruction and for taking sound decisions.

While the competency of teachers is important, students also play an important role in learning. Collins [1994:180] and Hootstein [1994:213] are both aware of the learning problems being

experienced by students. Collins [1994] suggests group work as a solution so that students find security in sharing and in shared responsibility while Hootstein [1994] believes teachers need to learn new strategies to enhance student motivation and to integrate these strategies into the instructional process.

3.3.5.3 Summary

In conclusion, the curriculum features prominently in the restructuring process. In order to compete with other emerging industrial giants the USA had to revisit the debate around the core curriculum, it had to redefine curriculum content while not neglecting education for citizenship. Teachers had to develop new and creative ways to meet the new challenges posed by a changing curriculum.

3.3.6 OUTCOMES-BASED EDUCATION (OBE)

Outcomes-based education is an important development in the American education system. All schools have outcomes, whether by design or not. That is, all schools produce results of some kind. However, the difference between outcomes-based and simply producing outcomes is significant. An outcomes-based school produces results relating primarily to predetermined curriculum and instruction. The focus is on achievement of results and subsequently, the school has a greater possibility of not only attaining the results but also a higher level of quality in the process and product [Zitterkopf 1994:76]. A school that does not specify outcomes simply accepts whatever comes as a result of the educational process and, of course, places little if any, emphasis on attaining results. Quality in the process and product is acquired somewhat arbitrarily [Zitterkopf 1994:76]. In outcomes-based education, some agency, usually legislators or bureaucrats, but occasionally a group of teachers and parents - defines the outcomes, and the school has to meet them [Holt 1994:85]. Similarly, Schwarz [1994:87] says with OBE, outside experts prescribe what is best for students and teachers who remain voiceless. Uniform outcomes are designed and implemented in a curriculum that reduces thinking to mental processing. Teaching is conceived of in technical dimensions, discrete objectives and student-competencies [Schwarz 1994:87].

The essence of OBE lies in its shift away from typical school practices where performance is based primarily on covering varying sets of requirements in a fixed period of time. OBE proponents call instead for students to demonstrate their mastery of common set of requirements in varying periods of time. This change could:

- * eliminate permanent failure - because students who have not yet achieved the standard will still have the opportunity to do so; and
- * eliminate compromised standards - because students would be expected to achieve the identified outcome before moving on [McGhan 1994:70].

When students show that they have mastered outcomes of significance then:

- * rote-learning is reduced together with slavish adherence to procedural knowledge,
- * there is an increase in student's ability to appreciate and deal with realistic situations like those that will engage them later, and
- * tracking is eliminated because this form of OBE expects all students to achieve the same outcomes although perhaps at different times [McGhan 1994:70].

Some districts require that the entire curriculum be reorganised around exit outcomes, and since most exit outcomes express very general characteristics, exit outcomes are likely to be similar from one district or school to the next [McGhan 1994:70]. However, the degree of consensus in terms of percentages among internal and external stakeholders before the acceptance of an outcome remains unidentified and poses a problem [McGhan 1994:70].

The introduction of OBE in American schools has been criticised for various reasons. Outcomes-based education out of necessity implies that students will progress through a given set of outcomes at different rates which then means that schools must learn how to handle scheduling problems that result from students starting and ending outcomes at different times.

To expect teachers and administrators to simultaneously carry on normal business, reshape the curriculum, and change the delivery system is, according to McGhan [1994:71], asking too much of teachers.

According to Brandt [1994:1], the OBE controversy is confusing especially so because OBE means different things to different people. Programmes described as outcomes-based are often very different from one another, and some similar programmes use other labels, such as results-based or performance-based education [Brandt 1994:1].

Another reason why OBE has sparked differences of opinion is that many people - even within the camps of proponents and opponents - define the term differently [O'Neil 1994:6]. At the one level, outcomes-based education is the simple principle that decisions about curriculum and instruction should be driven by outcomes one would like children to display at the end of their educational experiences [O'Neil 1994:6]. At other levels, policy-makers increasingly talk about creating outcomes-driven education systems that would redefine traditional approaches to accountability. This means that schools should be accountable for demonstrating that students have mastered important outcomes [O'Neil 1994:7].

McGhan [1994:71-72] has also identified the following obstacles with respect to OBE:

- * The tension between individualisation and groupwork. Because of individualisation there will be no audience for common activities. Further, some students will finish earlier than others, and what will such early departure have for the world of work, for higher education, and for the probable impact on the size of the teacher workforce?
- * How will parents react to losing child-care function that schools now provide for all children for at least 13 years?
- * What happens to those students who are approaching their early 20's and are still not close to finishing?

- * Different age levels learning together side by side, can lead to cross-age problems.
- * As the school becomes less distinct, the demands on parent time and resource will increase. The question is who will manage such that significant outcomes can be demonstrated?
- * Another concern is the school's tendency to reinforce social stratification. If schools provide solid instruction to all children, their middle and upper middle class parents may become concerned about the future opportunities for their children. The question can be asked as to what kind of pressures will the wealthier segments of the population bring to bear against OBE practices?
- * OBE proponents tend to oppose national curriculum proposals and rigid standardised testing. But judgements need to be objective. The concern is who will judge the judges?

Traditionalist Christians object to OBE on the grounds that the view that any element of the curriculum that propounds that all religions are equally valid and acceptable as opposed to teaching that all people have an equally valid and acceptable right to practice whatever religion they choose, threatens the eternal wellbeing of their children [Burron 1994:73]. However, although traditionalist Christians agree that OBE contradicts their values, there is no consensus on the specific elements of OBE to which they object [Burron 1994:73].

Another criticism levelled by traditionalist Christians is that schools are using OBE to indoctrinate children with social, political, and economic values, which violate deeply held Christian beliefs [Burron 1994:75]. Pennsylvania was forced to curtail its ambitious OBE in the wake of fierce opposition, much of it mobilised by organised religious conservative groups. Pliska and McQuaide [1994:67] report that these religious groups believed home was the place to teach morals and values and became alarmed at the affective components of the new regulations. They also questioned whose morals and values will be taught under the proposed learning-outcomes [Pliska & McQuaide 1994:68]. Similarly, other states like Minnesota, Ohio,

Iowa, and Virginia have been forced to revise, delay or drop their efforts [O'Neil 1994:6]. Yet Zitterkopf [1994:76] is "puzzled" by this criticism as the church is outcomes-based itself as it has an established plan that it wishes to carry out.

Equity issues are also of concern. O'Neil [1994:8] says that when students are pushed to display outcomes that society holds important, the related equity issue is raised, as the futures of many students are compromised because the outcomes held for them are low and unclear. As they progress through school such students are frequently tracked into low level classes where they are not held responsible for the outcomes necessary for success after graduation [O'Neil 1994:8]. According to the OBE philosophy, all students will be responsible for attaining common outcomes and all schools will be responsible for altering present conditions to prepare them to achieve them. Put another way, some student - and some schools - are held to high standards, while many others are not [O'Neil 1994:8].

That outcomes should form the heart of an OBE plan has proved quite contentious. Opponents of OBE have consistently charged that traditional academic content is committed to or buried in a "morass of pedagogic claptrap", as evident in the OBE plans that have emerged to date [O'Neil 1994:8].

While the OBE movement has taken shape around the idea that the educational experience is too fragmented, the architects of OBE find it extraordinarily difficult to weave the academic content into broad outcomes [O'Neil 1994:9]. The other concern is over whether one set of outcomes will fit the needs of all students, namely those who will go to the university and those who will become clerks [O'Neil 1994:9]. Kit Marshall in O'Neil [1994:9] says OBE has fallen short in defining what a good outcome is, as many so-called outcomes are really more like goals and they are not assessable as such.

Since OBE requires students to demonstrate their knowledge and skills, the assessments used to evaluate their performances become critically important. But O'Neil [1994:9] asks whether student-assessments currently available are up to the task. While assessment experts know how

to measure basic levels of skills and knowledge, they have less proven experience measuring higher-order outcomes within the subject area domains and almost no track record with the transformational, cross-disciplinary outcomes that some OBE plans envision [O'Neil 1994:9].

Another major challenge involves building capacity of schools to make the changes necessary for students to master the required outcomes. While on paper OBE suggest that each school has agreed upon student-outcomes, in reality many practices and traditions combine to create an inertia preventing local schools from changing very substantively in response to precepts of OBE [O'Neil 1994:9].

Critics also contended that OBE was an attempt to revive a previously reversed assessment policy. In the 1960s Pennsylvania implemented the Educational Quality Assessment (EQA) which came under attack and was discontinued in the 1970s [Pliska & Mc Quaide 1994:68].

The Pennsylvania Federation of Teachers (PAFT), a teacher's union expressed a different set of concerns. They wanted to know:

- * How will the proposed outcomes framework affect programme development and job security for teachers?
- * How will OBE affect teacher preparation, certification and staffing?
- * How will high school programmes in one district be compared to high school programmes in another district?
- * How can equity be assured when tax burdens are growing heavier in poorer districts and lighter in wealthier ones [Pliska & Mc Quaide 1994:68].

In calling for a more balanced approach, Fritz [1994:79], comments that while the traditionalists prefer a mandated curriculum and rigid top-down regulations, the outcomes-based proponents are vague about ways students and teachers are to achieve compulsory end-results.

According to Holt [1994:85] the central defect of outcomes-based education is that it doesn't address process. Holt [1994:85] likens OBE to Management by Objective (MBO). In MBO, management defines targets and assumes that the institution will find a way of meeting them. Similarly, in OBE, some agency, defines the outcomes and the schools have to meet them. This means according to Holt [1994:85] that curriculum is defined by assessment and that teachers must struggle to convert vague generalisations into classroom objectives. It also implies a measure of uniformity that ignores the differences among students. Holt [1994:85] further argues that OBE advocates misunderstand education as he believes education is not a product defined by specific output measures; but is a process, the development of the mind.

Another serious concern is the language of OBE. Schwarz [1994] says that the language of OBE reveals its limitations in the sense that advocates of OBE use mechanistic terminology suggestive of the business world, not organic words that speak of reflection, serendipity, and discovery. To Holt [1994:8] the language of OBE also seems limiting and dehumanizing and questions how for example - a teacher or student can make sense of such statements as "outcomes are high-quality, culminating demonstrations of significant learning in context."

On the other hand, Marzano [1994], reports on the work of the Mid-Continent Regional Educational Laboratory which concluded that outcomes-based performance tasks have definite promise if schools proceed cautiously. Many of the outcomes identified by schools and districts address skills and abilities not usually addressed in traditional content domains. Consequently outcomes-based performance assessment incorporates skills and abilities not yet addressed in the research and theory on content-specific performance assessment [Marzano 1994:44]. Soto and Roth [1993:42] say that with the advent of OBE the "true essence of restructuring is coming alive on the campus and in the community". In such a situation transformational outcomes-based education directs all educational efforts toward student achievement of exit outcomes. Southridge Middle School is seeing powerful, positive results for students and teachers by implementing transformational outcomes-based education [Soto & Roth 1993:43].

3.3.6.1 Summary

In conclusion, the introduction of OBE into the American system of schooling is not viewed equally enthusiastically by all. Some researchers believe it will be an improvement on the previous system, others are not so sure because of various reasons already mentioned. Traditional Christians see OBE as impinging upon their rights with respect to morals and values.

3.3.7 EDUCATIONAL ASSESSMENTS AND STANDARDS

The debate around educational assessment and standards began with the report *A Nation at Risk*. In 1983 the authors of *A Nation at Risk* rejected minimum competency examinations required in 37 states because the minimum tends to become the maximum thus lowering educational standards for all [Shephard 1991:232-233].

In 1991 the U.S. Department of Education under the leadership of President Bush released *America: 2000: An Education Strategy*, a list of 6 national goals. At least two of the goals imply national tests:

Goal 3: Children leaving Grades 4, 8 and 12 will have achieved competence in challenging subjects.

Goal 4: U.S. students will be first in the world in science and mathematics achievement [Kleinsasser 1995:205].

The introduction of high stakes tests of the 1990s was in response to *America 2000: An Education Strategy* [Shephard 1991:233].

National tests would provide a metric for international comparisons at the same time that they would inform parents and teachers about how learners are doing [Kleinsasser 1995:205]. Cibulka [1990:104] refers to this activity as accountability reporting - a policy development

which preceded restructuring which ushered in the increased use of standardised tests by states and the federal governments to make comparisons among schools and school districts. Yet Cibulka [1990], Shephard [1991] and Lieberman [1991] argued that standardised testing was introduced as a means of improving education by holding schools accountable as it was believed that national testing would improve the whole school education system and both teachers and students can benefit. It can be said it seeks implicitly or explicitly to standardise content and routinize teaching and therefore runs counter to restructuring aims.

Goals 2000 is the successor to *America 2000*, the former being President Clinton's attempt to pass school reform legislation. President Clinton introduced his "Goals 2000: Educate America Act" to Congress [Kean 1995:202]. According to the President, this legislation strives to support states, local communities, schools, businesses, industry and labour in reinventing the American education system so that all Americans can reach internationally competitive standards. The major features of the bill are to:

- * Set into law the six National Education Goals and establish a bipartisan National Education Goals Panel to report on progress towards achieving the goals.
- * Develop voluntary academic standards and assessments that are meaningful, challenging and appropriate for all students through the National Education Standards and Improvement Council (NESIC).
- * Identify the conditions of learning and teaching necessary to ensure that all students have the opportunity to meet high standards.
- * Establish a National Skill Standards Board to promote the development and adoption of occupational standards to ensure that American workers are among its best trained in the world.
- * Help states at local community level to involve public officials, teachers, parents, students and business leaders in designing and reforming schools.
- * Increase flexibility for states and school districts by waiving regulations and other requirements that might impede reforms [Kean 1995:202].

“Goals 2000” also calls for the creation of a National Education Standards and Improvement Council (NESIC) which is charged with certifying assessment systems that have been voluntarily submitted by states, but will perform this function only if these assessment systems will not be used for high stake purposes for a period of five years [Kean 1995:202]. It is also assumed that States requesting NESIC certification have submitted a description of the purposes of the assessment, the methodology used to develop and/or validate it, and a copy of the tests that make up the system. The state must also supply evidence that the tests are reliable and are aligned with state content standards, capable of assessing the progress of all students, and are consistent with nationally recognised professional and technical standards [Kean 1995:203].

Among the major assessment-related features of the Elementary and Secondary Education Act (ESEA) is the emphasis on the development of state plans that articulate curriculum standards and an assessment system to increase pupil progress toward meeting those standards [Kean 1995:203].

The new law emphasises a multiple means approach to assessment; traditional non-referenced tests (NRT's) are de-emphasised in favour of heavier use of outcomes-based and performance assessment tests. There is a marked shift from accountability to diagnosis and instruction. Higher-order-thinking skills are again emphasised as they were in the 1988 reauthorisation [Kean 1995:203].

Under the new law, assessments must be administered yearly in the subjects for which standards have been adopted. Regardless of whether there are standards, schools must, however, administer assessments in, at least, mathematics and reading or language arts at least once during grades 3-5, grades 6-9 and grades 10-12. The Educate America Act does not require assessments below grade 3 [Kean 1995:203].

The key here is the relationship between the development of curriculum standards and an assessment system to gauge progress toward those standards called for in the ESEA

reauthorisation and the development of the so-called voluntary academic standards and assessments called for in *Goals 2000*. It is the administration's intention that the standards be identical for all children [Kean 1995:203].

Kean [1995:204] argues that *Goals 2000* and the reauthorisation of ESEA strongly resemble the type of forced federal reform envisioned with national testing. He cites the following to substantiate his views [Kean 1995:204].

- * The very creation of a NESIC.
- * The membership of NESIC which maybe be heavily determined by the administration.
- * NESIC's power to certify, to reject or to appoint. As such, it can establish any type of test it chooses.
- * The lack of an appeal procedure associated with NESIC's certification of assessments.
- * The so called voluntary nature of the entire process.
- * The encouragement or even pressure from states to form consortia in developing standards and assessments.
- * The extremely vague terms used to describe various aspects of the state plans and assessment systems and the power that the federal government has in the interpretation of such terms as high-quality and up-to-date.
- * The call for performance standards, comparable in vigour and quality to national standards.
- * The fact that the NESIC can indicate what a test can be used for or not.
- * The setting of explicit, though difficult to measure and somewhat amorphous performance levels.
- * The fact that these standards and assessments are directly tied to ESEA.

In reality therefore, the national testing movement was alive and well but had metamorphosised into a national focus on standards and assessments [Kean 1995:204].

The whole question of national testing is not without controversy. While some researchers like Streshly and Gray [1992] see some merit in national testing if done properly, others like Madaus

[1991], Stake [1991], McLaughlin [1991], Darling - Hammond [1991] and Tye [1993] to name but a few are highly critical of standardised tests. Some of the chief problems that researchers have identified with this type of testing are:

- * Testing is improperly focussed and organisationally unsound [Streshly & Gray 1992:15]. On one of the issues raised in *Turning Points*, a document that contained the findings and recommendations with respect to middle schools and the transitional path of education, is that a volatile mismatch existed between the organisation and curriculum of middle schools and the intellectual and emotional needs of young adolescents thereby increasing drop-out rates [Pyatt 1992:232].
- * The purpose of current testing is to catch the culprits, root out the incompetent and place the blame where it belongs, which is hardly the purpose to build inspired creative solutions [Streshly & Gray 1992:15].
- * Legitimate testing programmes will be overpowered by the pressure to do well in the statewide and national tests aimed at ranking and rating schools [Streshly & Gray 1992:15]. To this end, Glickman [1991:8], says that the measure of a school's worth is not how students score in standardised achievement tests but rather the learning they can display in authentic or real settings.
- * These tests can lead to oppressive supervision thereby suppressing teacher creativity and autonomy. It spawns organisational friction and squelches productivity [Streshly & Gray 1992:15]. According to Glickman [1991:8] and Zappardino [1995], standardised tests influence teachers' behaviour in the sense that teachers teach what is expected in the tests, thereby stifling creativity. Further, Crates and Lairon [1993:39], comment that the way one assesses students has a major impact on how instruction is delivered. Assessment systems that do not measure student learning are encouraging passive teaching and rote-learning. Stake [1991:246] speaks of teachers who reported that with

increased testing and standardisation of the curriculum, they attend more to so called basics, the most elementary knowledge and skills, and less to the deeper understanding of even a few topics.

- * The tests are responsible for a decline in higher-order-thinking skills [Lieberman1991:219]. Darling-Hammond [1991:26] and Wendel [1991:28], for example, argue that while it is a fact that multiple choice testing, is a leading candidate in mass assessments because of its scoring ease, these tests are not suitable for assessing on high level skills, that is, they do not reflect problem-solving skills (thinking and reasoning) creativity, citizenship and enthusiasm and as Lieberman [1991:219] supported by Crates and Lairon [1993:38] say, there is little emphasis on critical thinking or product development.
- * Students spend a minimum of 15 days per school year taking tests because of state mandates which according to Wendel [1991:28], is not only wasteful, but also counterproductive. Doing well in the tests is a skill in itself but not necessarily an indicator of the student's command of the subject matter. Since these skills can be developed, test scores can be improved without there being a corresponding improvement in actual scores.
- * Crates and Lairon [1993:38] in using the Redwood City School District as an example, say that schools have undergone dramatic demographic changes over the last ten years and this change coupled with very low revenue limits have led to low test scores and significant drop-out rates. The concern that is raised in the above statement is whether one can rank schools on the basis of test performances while ignoring other critical factors that impact negatively on good scores.
- * According to Zappardino [1995:248] test scores are used to track and retain students, practices which according to Lieberman [1991:220] have shown to produce lower self-esteem and higher drop-out rates. Glickman [1991:5] says tracking discriminates and perpetuates inequalities among students. Zappardino [1995:248] and Darling -

Hammond [1991] argue that it has implications for equity as it often creates and reinforces unequal opportunities based on race, class, gender, language, culture and disability. Curriculum differences explain much of the disparity between the achievement of White and minority students and between higher and lower income students. Both Darling - Hammond [1991] and Glickman [1991] believe that retention does not help students. When students who were retained were compared to equal levels who were promoted, the former were behind on both achievement and social/emotional measures.

- * These tests constitute a limited lever for reform as America's schools are very complex with dysfunctional families, high rates of student turnover, absenteeism, community violence, substance abuse and teenage pregnancy. In such situations the importance of skilled teachers cannot be overemphasised. McLaughlin [1991:250], for example, believes today's students are taught by yesterday's teachers who are not professionally skilled with new strategies. McLaughlin [1991:250] adds further that the new approach to testing demands accountability for outputs while ignoring society's accountability for inputs.
- * Questions about what should be tested, who should be tested, why there should be tests, the use of the results, other fiscal and educational costs of testing, the nature of the infrastructure that must be created to develop and administer the tests and to control the testing programme have not been adequately answered [Madaus 1991:226].
- * For Madaus [1991:228], tests and examinations that drive the curriculum rather than the curriculum determining the shape of the examination are problematic. Critics argue that measurement driven instruction distorts the curriculum, narrows it, deflects it, trivialises it and causes it to stagnate [Shephard 1991:233].
- * When political pressure and media attention attach high stakes to test results, scores can become inflated, thus giving false impressions of student achievement, causing test scores to be fraudulent [Shephard 1991:233].

- * Jaeger [1991:241] says it is dangerous to draw generalisations from students' performances on test items that are presented in a particular format, that requires a particular mode of response, and that covers particular elements of knowledge.

Clearly, judging by the criticisms, national testing is not all what it is made out to be. Checks and balances had to be created for the system to work. In order to create an organisation that would function as a bridge between the civil rights community and education reforms, the National Centre for Fair and Open Testing (Fair Test) was the result and it remains the only national organisation devoted to testing reform [Zappardino 1995:248].

A new development is the establishment of the New Standards Project (NSP) which is a partnership of over twenty states and urban school districts. The NSP and its partners are exploring alternative ways to assess student-learning: portfolios, performances tasks and projects [Spalding 1995:219].

Teachers who saw little benefit to their students or programmes from standardised testing have created alternative kinds of assessments that would keep students learning. One of the strategies is the portfolio. Portfolios are used in schools so that students can maintain collections of their work as a demonstration of their academic growth and success [Gilman & Hassett 1995:310], and according to Kleinsasser [1995:208], the portfolio assessment is one example of student appraisal and ownership.

Over the last few years, a joint task force from the International Reading Association (IRA) and the National Council of Teachers of English (NCTE) co-operated to produce standards for the assessment of reading and writing. Such a report called *Assessment of Reading and Writing* was published in 1994. In this document the nature of assessment, the nature of language, language learning, the assessment of language, and the language of assessment were investigated. The list of standards has helped in understanding that reading assessment should be fair and equitable, in the interests of the student, theoretically-sound, and directed toward teaching and learning [Shannon 1995:229].

According to Collins [1994:181], middle schools have embarked on innovative assessment approaches towards making mathematics more streamlined. Well grounded and supportable conclusions about the student's learning are made through sources that include documented and/or observed assessment of performance through several dimensions [Collins 1994:181].

Krovetz [1992:9] and De Vries [1992:30] both argue for authentic learning activities that are reintegrated and thematic, thereby actively engaging student- learning as an alternative to national testing.

Cole and Schlechty [1993:8-9] believe national standards testing calls for the teacher to invent work for young people to do and then lead them into doing it. This paradigm shift means a reorganisation of time in schools so as to make space for support. The criticism is that in algebra, for example, students of varying abilities and backgrounds will not learn algebra to the desired level if time is held constant [Cole & Schlechty 1993:10].

In the State of Florida, programmes like "Contact in Orlando," organises business people to work one-to-one with at-risk students to help them in schools, give them summer jobs and to ensure there is a future for them when they get out of high school. In Arkansas, the Academic Challenger Grant offered scholarships to students for four years provided that they stay off drugs and behave and obtain a C+ average [Clinton 1993:6-7].

South Carolina is in the forefront in forming school/business partnerships, not only on the district level but on state-wide levels to achieve the twin goals of total quality education and economic prosperity [Nielsen & Hayden 1993:75-76]. Porterville public schools have through the TOPS (Trying Out Positive Solutions) intervention programme, began to teach at-risk students social skills that they need to get along with others. The curriculum and activities have been modified and TOPS has developed strategies in meeting the varied needs of students. There is evidence of much success [Wheeler 1994:21-22].

Another innovation to meet childrens' needs is the promotion of resiliency in students. In general the term resiliency refers to the student's ability to effectively manage stress, make healthy choices, avoid self-destructive behaviour and develop into an emotionally healthy adult [Fox 1994:35].

3.3.7.1 Summary

In this sub-section on educational assessments and standards the researcher described the motives for a drive towards improved educational assessment and standards and the impact and consequences of this drive for higher educational standards and assessments. While there is general agreement for better educational assessment and standards, different stakeholders differ in the approach to testing. Many states have, however, taken the initiative to design programmes that were suited to their unique needs.

3.3.8 OPEN ENROLMENT

Open enrolment or choice has been introduced to counter the growing criticisms against a bureaucracy which has been criticised as inefficient, ineffective, inhumane, unresponsive to its clients or to the rest of the public and blind and impervious to the need for change [Raywid 1990a:153]. The underlying principle involves providing opportunities for students and their parents to enroll in the school or educational programme of their choice, the assumption being that if enrolment and funding levels are linked, schools will have an incentive to make themselves as attractive to students and parents as possible [Cohen 1990:283]. A similar strategy was also evident in England and Wales (see section 3.2.3.2).

Open enrolment which has emerged as a purposeful reform strategy is based on the understanding that consumers will be able to exercise a preference for a type of school independent of where they live. These schools are commonly referred to as magnet or speciality schools [Cibulka 1990:105; Gardner 1990:596]. Whether open enrolment will become a central

element of reform or will be at the periphery of reform is yet to unfold, but public opinion shows that a clear majority supports some form of educational choice [Cibulka 1990:105]. The understanding is that choice is a way to make schools better [Sylvester 1989:11].

The emphasis on market controls taken to the extreme, contends Rowan [1990:50], might result in radical decentralisation of the school system, perhaps even privatisation or it would probably turn schools into speciality shops that serve narrow communities of interest.

School choice has also attracted positive responses from critics. Raywid [1990a:169] says that schools of choice more typically involve teachers who have been chosen to be there and therefore be considerably a more like-minded and coherent group. Depending on the kind of distinctiveness and identity it has built for itself, a school may enjoy extensive “mission coherence” that is agreement on values among groups associated with it - the staff, parents and students [Raywid 1990a:169].

Clinchy [1991:211] believes choice can be the necessary catalyst for the kind of dramatic restructuring that most agree is needed to produce for a better educated citizenry but he is not keen on the “theory system of vouchers” which allows parents to choose non-public schools for their children and to pay at least part of the tuition with public money. The future of public education would be effectively destroyed resulting in a de facto racially and economically segregated school system [Clinchy 1991:211]. Yet, Sylvester [1989:11-12], believes that choice can achieve three very important goals, that is, it can revitalise school programmes by giving teachers the freedom to be creative, it can make schools better places for children to be and finally contrary to what Clinchy [1991] believes, it can break down the barriers of segregation because of its power to draw students across political and economic boundaries. However, Sylvester does see the danger in choice if it is limited or available only to the elite thereby creating segregation and creating inequities by funding schools unequally or segregating students within schools by “tracking” through ability [Sylvester 1989:12].

However, there are examples in the literature where choice has succeeded. Sylvester [1989:12] quotes Isaac Newton in District 4, the state-wide Choice Programme of Minnesota called Access to Excellence. With reference to Manhattan's District 4 where virtually all students are minority and eighty-percent from poor families, choice is exercised and achievement of these students improved remarkably [Raywid 1991b:142]. Other researchers like Darling - Hammond [1991:25] say that choice assumes that the threat of lost students and dollars is necessary and sufficient for stimulating change.

Notably the criticisms levelled against choice are very much similar to those found in England and Wales (see section 3.2.3.2).

3.3.9 LOCAL MANAGEMENT OF SCHOOLS

Local management of schools or site-based management is proposed to decentralise and debureaucratise school control [Raywid 1990a:156]. For some it is also a proposal for shared decision-making and for others it is a proposal for increasing the power and/or influence of parents and other citizens in school decision-making [Raywid 1990a:156]. The-site management proposal assumes that the present major problems stem from highly centralised control to which schools have become subject and the consequent distancing of decision-making from the level of application.

In site-based management programmes, educational decisions on budgeting, personnel selection and the curriculum devolve to the school site [Koppich & Guthrie 1993:58; Raywid 1990a:156]. Each school is expected to operate within policy guidelines set by the state and district. In order to achieve this, the establishment of one or more committees - called "school advisory councils" becomes necessary to obtain "systematic input" on school decisions from teachers, parents and sometimes from other citizens and students as well [Raywid 1990a:156].

Cibulka [1990:104] and Gardner [1990:596] reflect on the tension that has surfaced because of site-based management. Some models of school-based management favoured by teachers emphasise teacher control, although they may include some parents, while other reform advocates wish to empower other stakeholders at the school level, such as parents, students and interested community members.

Researchers like David [1989], Lieberman [1988] and Matranga et al. [1993] see site-based management in a positive light. Matranga et al. [1993:62] say that since the role of the site administrators is changing, courses in public relations, group process, conflict resolution, and communications are becoming more and more critical to the success of education administration graduates. Interestingly, the role change mentioned here is very similar to that Weindling [1992] found in his research (see section 3.2.4).

3.3.10 PARENTAL INVOLVEMENT

Studies in the USA the UK and Canada through the eighties point increasingly to the necessity of parent and community involvement for classroom and school improvement [Fullan 1991:228]. The changing society and economic structure, necessitate the bringing together of a variety of agencies and people to build a stronger public education system [Pulliam 1994:34]. Epstein and Dauber in Fullan [1991:228] believe the main forms of parent involvement include:

- * Parent involvement at school (eg. volunteers assistants).
- * Parent involvement in learning activities at home (eg. assisting children at home, home tutors).
- * Home/community - school relations (eg. communications).
- * Governance (eg. advisory councils).

White, Taylor and Moss [1992] in Carr [1994:44-45] identify six reasons why parents are involved in early intervention programmes for special students which are also true for other students.

- * Parents have an obligation to be involved because they are ultimately responsible for their child's welfare.
- * Involved parents provide better political support and advocacy.
- * Early intervention programmes which involve parents result in greater benefits for children.
- * Parent involvement results in benefits for the parent and family members.
- * By involving parents the same outcomes can be achieved at less cost.
- * The benefits of early intervention are maintained better if parents are involved.

Similarly, Wang [1995] advocates community committees comprising of parents and other stakeholders to address the decline in standards in Californian schools.

According to Cross and Reitzug [1995] site-based management provides a context for substantive parent involvement that goes beyond the traditional cake sales and fundraising. The schools that these researchers have observed, revealed that parents and community members regularly attend site-council meetings, and value being involved. In turn, school staff, also value parents as participants [Cross & Reitzug 1995:36]. Over time parents challenged the opinions of school personnel more frequently. They became more interested in their children receiving quality education and that honesty prevails [Cross & Reitzug 1995:36]. The interest that American parents show towards school management stands in sharp contrast to the interest shown by parents in England and Wales (see section 3.2.3.3).

Raywid [1990a:192] questions whether the participation of parents in site-management schools or the power of parents in schools of choice, would interfere with the teachers' established knowledge or professional discretion. But, Krovetz [1992:9], says that parents are not only involved in meaningful decision-making at schools including the establishment of clear standards regarding quality of work, but they also trust the professionalism of the school personnel of a restructuring school. Site-based management schools also have advisory councils comprising also of parents who have control over personnel decisions [Raywid 1990a:186].

Another area in which parents are involved has to do with parent choice among public schools [Koppich & Guthrie 1993:59]. Open school enrolment in effect meant that a school population could either drop or rise according to the performance of the school. Falling enrolment would then impact negatively on the school as it would entail diminishing resources which in turn can affect the quality of education. To this end, Schlechty [1991:28], for example, is not convinced that choice will achieve the radical restructuring of schools and fears that parental choice in the long run will erode the already tenuous support of schools by non-parent taxpayers.

In the area of curriculum planning schools that adopt holistic planning, are characterised by the participation of “lay citizens” who attend district wide curriculum planning meetings and serve on school-based planning committees. Lay citizens are involved with school professionals in identifying, thinking about, and discussing curriculum programme issues and problems [Stewart 1993:114].

Freedman and Montgomery [1994:40] believe that because of the changing face of the American family and society over the past 20 years, involving parents in education partnerships has become the largest challenge facing schools today. Krovetz [1992:9] sees parents as partners in learning and as valued connectors to the authentic world and act as guides and models for children as learners. Recent studies have shown that parent involvement is an important key to student achievement and success in life and therefore parent education is the key to effective parent involvement [Freedman & Montgomery 1994; Wendel 1991]. Wendel [1991:31], for example, describes education as a three-legged stool, the student, the home, and the school. Wendel [1991] argues further that unless all three factors are jointly considered, restructuring efforts are doomed to fail.

Several states have deliberately embarked on strategies to involve parents. Realising that families, schools community and agencies must share the responsibility for the social, physical and academic growth of each child, the Sacramento City Unified School District has, for example, established a parent involvement policy, process and programme designed to involve all parents at all levels of the educational process [Freedman & Montgomery 1994:41]. In its

1994 policy on parent involvement in schools, the California State Board of Education said that parents should be involved at all grade levels in a variety of roles. The state requires schools and districts to have a comprehensive plan for parent involvement that encompasses the board's six goals. These efforts should:

- * Help parents develop parenting skills to meet the basic obligations of family life and foster conditions at home that emphasise the importance of education and learning.
- * Promote two-way (school-to-home and home-to-school) communication about school programmes and students' progress.
- * Involve parents, with appropriate training, in instructional and support roles at the school and in other locations that help the school and students reach stated goals, objectives and standards.
- * Provide parents with strategies and techniques for assisting their children with learning activities at home that support and extend the school's instructional programme.
- * Prepare parents to actively participate in school decision-making and develop their leadership skills in governance and advocacy.
- * Provide parents with skills to access community and support services that strengthen school programmes, family practices, and student-learning and development [Ed Source Report 1994:41].

Parents are increasingly involved in designing new schools. As Brockett [1993] says "the days when a school system hired an architect and stepped aside have been replaced by a new reality in public school design." In California for example, a majority of architects are now using the participatory process albeit in varying degrees. One initial step in designing a school is to form a planning committee, including staff, teachers, parents and students and the business community [Brockett 1993:25].

Another trend is the "punishment" of parents for the sins of their children. In such cases parents are fined, 'jailed,' or forced to work in schools when their children break rules [Pardini 1995:21].

Parents are also involved with other agencies in making school districts a safer place to live in. Such an example is Operation Safe Community in the Rowland Unified School District which is committed to the eradication of crime and gangs by supporting community awareness, co-operation, involvement and action [Davenport & Leon 1994:20]. Parent information meetings and seminars held have been an essential part of Operation Safe Community [Davenport & Leon 1994:21].

Another innovation involves a study group made up of parents. A parent study group was formed at Marquerite Hahn Elementary School in the Cotati-Rohnert Park Unified School District [Lingman 1995:20]. The objectives of this initiative were to stitch together a “collective dialogue” that helps build the beginnings of a strong community. The vision of initiating a dialogue about middle school issues was the driving force behind the proposal and once the group had identified its key questions and concerns, resources were provided to support the inquiry and further the dialogue [Lingman 1995:21]. It is interesting to note that in addition to what was learned and what was shared, the notion of being partners in learning was recognised and appreciated.

3.3.11 TEACHER APPRAISALS

Teacher evaluation is part of the life of teachers. It is an integral component in the professional life cycle of teachers from the time they decide to join the profession through their processes of training, their certification, their employment, and their professional development. But teacher evaluation is usually perceived as a means to control teachers, to motivate them, to hold them accountable for their services or to get rid of them when their performance is poor. Thus, teacher evaluation has the image of something that was invented against teachers rather than for teachers [Nevo 1994:109]. Yet Blake, Bachman, Frys, Holbert, Ivan and Selitto [1995:37], say, the purpose of teacher assessment is to contribute to the growth of teachers, thereby enhancing their ability to contribute to the total school environment. Teachers should not be viewed as needing supervision and inspection, but as professionals who can provide their own self-assessment, teaching improvement and professional growth.

In 1986 the Carnegie Task Force on teaching as a Profession issued a pivotal report, *A Nation Prepared. Teachers for the 21st Century*. Its leading recommendation called for the establishment of a National Board for Professional Teaching Standards. The Board's mission was to establish high and rigorous standards for what accomplished teachers should know and be able to do; to develop and operate a national voluntary system to assess and certify teachers who meet those standards and to advance related education reforms - all with the purpose of improving student learning [Cascio 1995:213].

Among other matters The Task Force focussed on were:

- The recruitment, preparation compensation and utilization of teachers.
- The preparation of minority youth for a teaching career.
- The emphasis on structure and control throughout the public schools.
- The role of colleges and universities on teacher preparation [Gardner 1990:595].

Various reasons were advanced for renewed interest in teacher appraisals. The increased call for teacher accountability wanted assurances that teachers are competent professionals [Hughes 1995:243; Buttram & Wilson 1987:5; Nevo 1994:113-114]. Recent intensified interest in ensuring quality of classroom instruction has resulted in state legislative mandates and local pressure for more rigorous and extensive processes of teacher appraisal [Ashbaugh & Kasten 1987:50].

Tuckman [1995] advances the following reasons for assessing:

- * Certification.
- * Recertification.
- * Annual evaluation.
- * Merit increment.

All four represent aspects of accountability. Certification is usually based on completing a programme of study and taking a test that measures literacy skills and knowledge of pedagogy. Recertification usually requires additional course work. Annual evaluations are based on relatively unstructured classroom visits by principals or supervisors and merit pay, if it is available, is based on a variety of inputs [Tuckman 1995:34].

Another reason for teacher assessment is to improve teaching [Tuckman 1995:34]. Sweeny [1994:223] says “sub-standard teaching caused this blight infecting the achievements of America’s children” while Tyson and Silverman [1994] in agreeing that improvement of instruction was a major purpose, the assessment also generated data for administrative decisions such as teacher dismissal, contract renewal, and more recently determining merit pay and career ladder placements. For Waintroob [1995] identifying, evaluating, remediating, and if necessary discharging incompetent teachers are critical to improving the instructional process in schools.

In New Jersey, one third of the States’ reform initiatives were specifically directed to the teaching professional, whose “vital signs” were pronounced to be “anaemic” and “haemorrhaging” [Hazi 1994:198]. Block [1992:35] is critical of this process when he says that State legislatures want better teaching without having to pay for it with worthwhile rewards.

A number of North American writers on appraisal have distinguished between contrasting purposes in appraisal. Wise in Bollington, Hopkins and West [1990:4] provide the following framework for appraisal which perceives appraisal as operating at both individual and organisational levels.

PURPOSE		
LEVEL	IMPROVEMENT	ACCOUNTABILITY
INDIVIDUAL	Individual staff development	Individual Personnel decisions eg. Job Status
ORGANISATIONAL	School improvement	School Status: Decisions eg. Accreditation

Figure 4: Framework for Appraisal

Appraisals on the individual level results in individual professional growth while for the organisation it results in overall school improvement. Besides individual and organisational improvement, the framework also depicts appraisal for purpose of accountability.

3.3.11.1 Procedures for Appraisals

While the Task Force referred to earlier on made specific recommendations about the improvement in teacher quality, it did not spell out any specific procedures. The complete process of teacher evaluation includes the establishment of philosophical underpinnings, agreement on a set of research-based criteria, selection of assessment measures, development and application of management procedures and making evaluative decisions [Ashbaugh & Kasten 1987:50].

Wise and Darling - Hammond [1984] in Bollington et al. [1990:5] speak of two types of appraisals, namely, bureaucratic and professional appraisals. Under bureaucratic evaluation, the district relies primarily on the administration to design and operate a uniform teacher evaluation process. Evaluation is based on generalised criteria, recognises a fixed set of learning-outcomes and treats all teachers alike. Professional evaluation on the other hand occurs when the district involves teachers in the development and operation of the teacher evaluations based on professional standards of practice that are client-oriented and treats teachers differently

according to their teaching assignments, stages of development and classroom goals. Professional evaluation is clinical, practice-oriented and analytical. It is designed to assess the appropriateness of strategies and decisions [Bollington et al. 1990:5].

Another distinction that the Americans have made is that between formative and summative evaluation. Formative evaluation is designed to effect an improvement in teaching while summative evaluation is used for purposes of accountability. It has now become common to supplement traditional summative schemes with more developmental and formative schemes [Bollington et al. 1990:6]. The formative use of evaluation is more descriptive and less judgemental in nature and is conducted in a constructive and non-threatening way. It can be based on self - evaluation, peer evaluation or evaluation by principals, students or parents [Nevo 1994:113]. Many formative evaluation models encourage professional goal-setting as a means to teacher improvement which represents a departure away from the checklist type summative evaluation model typically used to make personnel decisions [Hughes 1995:243].

Teachers are usually evaluated by their principals or heads of department, by their peers, or by specially assigned evaluators. But in recent years an increasing number of teachers have also shown interest in using self-evaluation techniques to improve their own teaching performance, and evaluators started to admit to the legitimate role of teachers in providing major input into the process of being evaluated by others [Nevo 1994:109].

Teacher evaluation systems that have been developed and adopted by states or by local school districts are usually grounded in some kind of agreement with teachers or their unions. Sometimes they are involved from the early stages of its conception and policy development. Sometimes they are asked to join at a later stage to ensure their cooperation in the process of implementing the system [Nevo 1994:114]. To this end, Tyson and Silverman [1994] believe there are very few issues regarding the evaluation of teachers upon which policy-makers, administrators, teachers and parents agree. Some of the problematic issues are: Should the assessment be the same for all teachers? What data should be collected? How often should

evaluations occur? How should the process take place? How should performances be judged? It becomes increasingly evident that teacher appraisal procedures are not readily agreed to by all the relevant players in the system.

Interestingly, a similar process was followed in South Africa to develop acceptable appraisal systems for educators (see section 4.14).

Hammond, Wise, and Pease [1983] in Sweeney [1994:224] have identified four minimum conditions for successful implementation of a teacher evaluation system:

- * All actors in the system have a shared understanding of the criteria and processes for teacher evaluation.
- * All actors understand how these criteria and processes relate to the dominant themes of the organisation that is the evaluation system is consonant with educational goals and conception of teacher work.
- * Teachers perceive that the evaluation procedure enables them and motivates them to improve their performance, and principals perceive that the procedure allows them to provide instructional leadership.
- * All actors in the system perceive that the evaluation procedure allows them to strike a balance between control and autonomy for the various actors in the system.

Buttram and Wilson [1987:5] point to five areas in which the practice of teacher evaluation has changed considerably in the past decade. Progressive districts are:

- * Linking evaluation systems to research on effective teacher practices.
- * Providing improved training for evaluators.
- * Holding administrators more accountable for conducting evaluations.

- * Using evaluation-identified teacher deficiencies to focus staff development.
- * Making teachers active partners in the evaluation process.

The supervisory approaches from the mid - 1980 to the present is described as the Human Development Phase. This phase concerns itself for the teachers personal needs as well as for the needs of the organisation. Classroom observations and face-to-face interaction are elements common to almost all of the current respected models of this phase [Tracy 1995:324].

Upon completing their teacher training programme and obtaining a teaching certificate, teachers have to compete with many others for a job. In most cases some systematic evaluation procedure is being used to screen the applicants and attempts to select the best candidate. Such an evaluation procedure may include review of certificates/credentials and recommendations from previous employers, supervisors or teachers, interviews, formal tests or trial teaching [Nevo 1994:112].

The National Board for Professional Teaching Standards (NBPTS) created in the USA in 1987 seeks to establish a nation wide programme to recognise and certify good teachers and to improve the status of the profession. Through this programme it hopes to improve the quality of teaching and learning in schools. Its most pressing goal was the development of standards and assessments procedures for the 1993 implementation of a voluntary programme of advanced professional certification for elementary and secondary school teachers [King 1994:95]. Transcending state and local standards, the National Board will identify what teachers need to know and be able to do and certify teachers who meet the standard [Koppich & Guthrie 1993:59]. The NBPTS hinges its success on its belief that teachers are valuable resources who can lead one another, learn from one another, and assess one another [Cascio 1995:212]. The efforts of the NBPTS centre on three major aims. Firstly, it seeks to change the quality of education schools offer in the USA. Secondly, the Board strives to enhance the professional practice of teachers, and, thirdly, it wants to contribute to the professionalisation of teaching [King 1994:96].

To accomplish these aims, standards will be identified that reflect what teachers should know and be able to do. The NBPTS has developed the following five propositions to serve as the basis for the formulation of standards.

- * Teachers are committed to students and their learning.
- * Teachers know the subjects they teach and how to teach those subjects to students.
- * Teachers are responsible for managing and monitoring student-learning.
- * Teachers think systematically about their practice and learn from experience.
- * Teachers are members of learning communities [King 1994:97].

With respect to assessment, the NBPTS has developed a variety of assessment procedures which will accompany the identification of national teaching standards. The NBPTS anticipates that teachers will be evaluated through a variety of procedures from multiple choice examinations to portfolios, simulated performances and observations. These forms of assessments will determine the standards for national certification [King 1994:101].

Cascio [1995:213] mentions that in pilot studies, teachers were required to gather over several months of instruction, various portfolio materials, including videotapes and written commentary about lessons and decisions made within their lessons. Several weeks after the portfolio is completed, candidates for certification by the Board spend two days in the assessment centre where outstanding classroom teachers who have been trained by the Board assess them in a number of exercises. Teachers also develop their personal portfolios for use in documenting their competence when applying for a teaching job [Nevo 1994:113].

With respect to portfolios, Blake et al. [1995:38] say that the parties involved must decide:

- * If this method would be more effective with tenured than with non-tenured teachers.
- * If the purpose of assessment by portfolio is to evaluate or to reflect professional growth.
- * How portfolio assessment is compatible with adult-learning-theory.
- * What the criteria would be and who would formulate the criteria.

- * If portfolios are a manageable way to handle teacher assessment.

Teacher candidates seeking licensure may soon be required to take an entirely revised form of teacher assessment. Educational Testing Services (ETS) the world's largest private educational measurement institution and developer of the National Teacher Examination (NTE) has recently made available to State, public and private institutions a new teacher assessment programme called *The Praxis Series: Professional Assessments for Beginning Teachers* [Pultorak 1994:70].

This new assessment series contains several unique revisions, including a performance component based on field observations. In the programme, trained assessors observe teacher candidates in their assigned teaching environments and determine the effectiveness of their instruction. Baur [1992] in Pultorak [1994:70] believes the structure of the teaching performance component is rooted in the premise that the assessment of prospective teachers' effectiveness should be based on classroom observation and the thinking, planning, and decision-making that are integral parts of teaching.

However, the NTE is not without criticism. Gellman [1993:39], for example, says "teaching is too complex an activity to be assessed with tests alone." Tests may be adequate for the evaluation of some of the knowledge that is a necessary component of effective teaching, however, additional assessment techniques are required to determine whether that knowledge is reflected in appropriate teaching behaviour [Gellman 1993:39].

Most school districts employ some type of observation procedure instead of tests, as observation enables the evaluator to directly assess the performance of the teacher in the classroom. But these forms of assessments raise questions of both validity and reliability [Gellman 1993:39]. As Scriven [1995:125] says "validity is extremely important, for ethical as well as practical reasons."

3.3.11.2 Summary

Many researchers Neubert [1995]; Tyson & Silverman [1994]; Daniel & Siders [1994] and Gardner [1993]; suggest that while the US government wanted appraisals to be treated more seriously, individual states and indeed within a state there was a degree of freedom in designing their own system of appraisal. It is also clear that teachers are increasingly being involved in the appraisal process. The case for teacher involvement “emerge from strong humanistic convictions and research that substantiates the benefits of employee involvement” [Ashbaugh & Kasten 1987:50].

There is a general movement away from judgemental threatening type of evaluations. McLaughlin and Pfeifer in Bryant and Currin [1995:250] say that authorities realised that judgemental teacher evaluation contributed little to teacher learning and growth.

These conditions can be likened to the context that Norman [1994: 336] speaks of. Evaluation leads to educational change, but change does not occur in a vacuum. Creating a context for change means understanding what teachers do and don't know.

Frase and Streshly [1994:47] believe, however, that while teacher evaluation and supervision have been extolled as the vehicle for raising the quality of instruction, there is an ever growing body of research and expert opinion that indicate that the potential of this vehicle has not been realised.

3.3.12 THE ROLE OF SCHOOL MANAGEMENT IN AN ERA OF CHANGE IN THE USA

The 1960s and 1970s were characterised by principals executing their roles as programme managers and they became increasingly responsible for managing federally sponsored, funded programmes, designed to assist special student populations [Hallinger 1992:36].

In the 1980s, a new model of principal leadership arose, wherein principals were viewed as instructional leaders of effective schools. The instructional leader was viewed as the primary source of knowledge for development of the school's educational programme [Hallinger 1992:37].

In the 1990s the principal is being viewed as the transformational leader. *The Carnegie Report on Education and the Economy* required fundamental changes in the organisational structure, professional roles and goals of American public education. Increasingly, reformers recommended the decentralisation of authority over curricular and instructional decisions from the school district to the school-site, expanded rules for teachers and parents in the decision-making process, and placed an increased emphasis on complex instruction and active learning [Hallinger 1992:39- 40].

School-based management requires role changes at every level. To remain effective, the process must inspire open lines of communication and high levels of trust. The key role change is the principal's shift from top-down manager to a supporter and facilitator who maintains his or her leadership responsibilities [Spilman 1996:36]. Sergiovanni in Hallinger [1992:41] in supporting this view says principals ought to be leaders of leaders, people who develop the instructional leadership in their teachers. Murphy [1994:94-99] sees this leadership in the following ways: formulating a shared vision, cultivating a network of relationships, allocating resources, providing information and promoting teacher development.

Murphy [1994:94] comments on the increasingly turbulent policy environment that principals in restructuring schools seem to be working in. The educational system is becoming more complex, expectations have risen and the number of players has expanded concomitantly, the scale and the pace of change have become overwhelming in many locations [Murphy 1994: 94]. No sooner had principals begun to respond to a massive set of reform proposals based on the teacher and school effectiveness research, than they were "bombarded with a plethora of new initiatives grounded in rediscovered concepts of learning and reframed views of leadership, organisation, and governance" [Murphy 1994:94].

Unlike the role of an instructional leader, under school restructuring there is greater emphasis on problem finding and goal setting by the staff and community. A school's goals are based on problems identified by those who interact on a daily basis with students. Neither the principal's personal vision nor the mandates from higher authorities are the key determinants of an individual school's direction [Hallinger 1992:41]. Murphy [1994:95] in his review of research in this field concluded that the attempt to reshape power relationship is at the very core of the definition of the principalship. Two tasks, namely delegating responsibilities and developing collaborative decision-making processes, form the foundation of these redesigned power relationships. Payzant and Gardner [1994:8] say the principal must now be less of a director and more a facilitator. He or she must be prepared to listen to a wide variety of people and engage them in ongoing deliberations about teaching and learning and other important matters that affect the life of the school.

The emphasis on problem-solving further distinguishes restructured schools as context for leadership. Because schools often face complex, idiosyncratic problems that are frequently hostile to routine solutions, transformational leadership focusses on the enhancement of individual and collective problem-solving capacities of organisational members. Such capacities are exercised in their identification of goals to be achieved and practices to be used in their achievement [Hallinger 1992:41]. Gardner [1990:593] says that the principal's future work will need to be more broadly and liberally educated, he needs to be technologically literate, capable of lifelong learning, able to take risks and be adept at complex problem-solving.

In restructured schools the principal must not only assist staff in reaching their own conception of the problems facing the school, but also help generate and develop potentially unique solutions. The importance of collegiality, experimentation, teacher reflection and school-based staff development is emphasised. The focus on collective problem-solving and capacity building implies a different role for the principal. They are essentially leadership and not managerial functions, functions that involve a different relationship of the principal to staff and parents to problems and solutions [Hallinger 1992:42].

Krovetz [1992:9] believes successful schools have empowered staff, students, parents and community. The principal's administrative style must support shared decision-making; build trust among stakeholders and develop a collaborative school culture. He/she needs to coach rather than evaluate, foster collegiality among colleagues and be passionate about transformational leadership [Krovetz 1992:9]. A similar view is held by Murchison [1992].

Murphy [1994:95-96], states however, that empowering others represents the biggest challenge and the most difficult task for principals as it is easy to set up a process, to delegate, but giving up control is hard. In school restructuring, the principal rather than representing the primary source of professional expertise and instructional leadership, is exhorted to exploit the leadership and expertise of teachers. This implies that collective decision-making represent a stronger response to solving non-routine problems. This also highlights the importance of the principal's ability to work collaboratively with staff in group problem-solving [Hallinger 1992:42]. To this end, Yerkes [1992:22], says school leadership should be "thrilling" but not "death producing", positive and yet still full of "question and wonder" and building on previous knowledge.

The restructuring movement encourages teachers to explore, develop and use a wider repertoire of instructional strategies. The idea that a single didactic practice or school leadership is appropriate for all schools is incompatible with the assumptions of school-based reform and improvement. The conception of school reform places a premium on the development of knowledge within the school for both teachers and principals. Thus the principal's role calls for joint development activities in which principals participate with staff, unlike in the past where the principal was the instructional leader [Hallinger 1992:42 - 43].

Murphy [1994:98] identifies the following activities as developmental strategies for the principal.

- * Cultivating teacher leadership.
- * Providing opportunities for teachers to work together on meaningful tasks.
- * Helping teachers navigate the bureaucratic shoals of schools.
- * Sharing information openly.

Another role to be played by the principal is that of enhancing connections between the schools and sources of knowledge in the environment as schools will not always possess the knowledge and skills needed to solve educational and social problems that are identified [Hallinger 1992:43]. Further, principals must act as knowledge resources for their staff members and they provide thereby, the connection between access to knowledge and successful teacher empowerment [Murphy 1994:97].

Education in America is viewed as a value-driven activity and American schools will continue to function as a vehicle for sorting and blending societal priorities and expectations. Given this function, an important facet of the principal's role involves interpreting community values and ensuring that they are reflected appropriately in the local school. By virtue of their position in the organisational hierarchy, principals find themselves at the intersection where forces seeking the maintenance of traditional values meet those that press for change [Hallinger 1992:43]. The principal has to tread warily so as not to alienate people and thereby create conflict. Cole and Schlechty [1993:10] believe reform in education must be oriented towards at least four basic human values, that is, the need for recognition, intellectual variety, success and collegiality. Humans on the other hand have basic needs like power, freedom and belonging. Maintaining the balance will be a delicate act for the principal.

Previously time was held constant and quality was allowed to vary. But now the challenge for the principal is to hold quality constant and allow time to vary [Cole & Schlechty 1993:10]. Traditional timetabling procedures therefore won't be applicable anymore.

Reports from the restructuring movement confirm that the boundaries between schools and their external environments are becoming more permeable. Environmental leadership or boundary management is becoming more important and principals are spending considerably more time with parents and community members than they did prior to restructuring [Murphy 1994:98]. To this end, perhaps the most dramatic shift for principals in restructuring schools has been their need to expand public relations activities with external constituents [Murphy 1994:98]. Working with the governing board also poses a challenge to principals as they will have to

“educate” the Board by keeping it informed at all times [Murphy 1994:98-99]. For principals whose careers have spanned the eras of the school manager and instructional leader, this new situation represents a significant increase in the degree of uncertainty and ambiguity they experience in their work and they need therefore a greater tolerance for ambiguity [Hallinger 1992:45].

Murphy [1994:95] in believing that the jobs of principals are becoming more difficult notes the expanded work load confronting principals in restructuring schools.

While expectations are added to the list, little is being deleted from the principal’s role. Role overload is also often accompanied by role ambiguity, both of which lead to increased stress for principals involved in fundamental change efforts [Murphy 1994:95].

As school managers, principals accepted the technical uncertainty in the work of teachers as a fact of life. The implication was that close supervision and instructional improvement were low pay-off activities, fraught with potential conflict for the school administrator. Similarly, there was previously no emphasis on defining a common set of goals. But now goals have to be clearly defined for the purposes of accountability. Furthermore, staff and community must be involved in the development of goals in meaningful ways. Different curricular and instructional approaches are no longer equally valued, nor have they been reduced to a single model. School staff must examine current practices and make informed choices as to the directions for the development of new practices. The school will become the initiator of change, rather than simply the implementation agent [Hallinger 1992:45-46].

Peterson and Solsrud [1996:110-111] have identified six themes in restructuring schools all of which impact on the principal’s role:

- * Principals may need to know when to initiate, act, and lead, and know when to pull back, allow others to initiate, act and lead.

- * Staff members and newly appointed principals will need to work diligently, to share where the school has come from and the dreams and hopes for where it is going, to smooth the transition to new working relations among staff and the principal.
- * There must be ample time to meet and talk and sharing of power among stakeholders is essential to nurturing collaborative work cultures.
- * Change in the structures of decision-making and governance must also attend to questions of improving teaching and learning.
- * It is not easy shaping and reinforcing a clear, shared vision. When all stakeholders are involved, a tighter community may develop and greater energy be available to develop inventive approaches to teaching.
- * Teachers and principals in restructuring schools will most often live and work with greater conflict.

3.3.13 SUMMARY

In the latter half of this chapter the researcher analysed the restructuring movement in the United States of America. The research focussed on and described the various components that constituted a changing school environment.

Several broad themes emerge from the restructuring literature including school governance, reflective practice and critical inquiry, creating a collaborative culture, teaching and learning, organisational structures, purpose and shared vision of schooling, school community relations and evaluation and accountability [Sideris & Skau 1994:40]. Many of the themes enjoy different emphasis in the different American States.

However, it is clear that the restructuring of schools in the 1990s impacted on school management generally and on the role of the principal more specifically. The principal had to now respond to educational change as a transformatorial leader, unlike in the 1980s where the principal was required to be an instructional leader. Being called to play the role of a transformational leader poses new challenges for the principal.

CHAPTER 4

RESTRUCTURING OF SOUTH AFRICAN SCHOOLS AS A PHENOMENON OF A CHANGING SCHOOL ENVIRONMENT

4.1 INTRODUCTION

In Chapter 3 the writer discussed and analysed the restructuring of the system of education in the USA and England and Wales. This was done so as to understand the process of restructuring taking place in these countries and to explore how this changing environment impacts on school management. This chapter investigates the restructuring of the education system in the Republic of South Africa and seeks to highlight similarities in the process of transformation.

4.2 REASONS FOR RESTRUCTURING

The restructuring movement in South Africa took shape in two phases in the 1990s. The first was initiated by the previous government during the period (1990 - 1994) and the second being initiated by the present government from 1994 onwards.

In the early 1990s, restructuring of the system of education in the Republic of South Africa was seriously considered when the then Department of National Education (DNE) released its report: *Education Renewal Strategy. Discussion Document* which was commonly referred to as the ERS. This report which was released on 4 June 1991 by the Committee of Heads of Education Departments (CHED) gave the reasons for an education renewal strategy as follows [DNE 1992a:5]:

- * The then racially based education system had led to problems such as “disparities in education,” and the “inability of a great number of learners to benefit by education and the system’s lack of legitimacy” [DNE 1992a:5].

- * The ten-year plan for education introduced by the government in 1986 which was directed towards equalising education opportunities for all did not come up to expectations. The reason according to the Department of National Education [1992a:5] can be ascribed to “consistent growth in the number of pupils and students on the one hand” and the “ongoing recession in economic growth on the other hand.”
- * The necessity of adjusting the education system with a view to a future constitutional dispensation [DNE 1992a:5].

4.3 THE NATURE OF THE EARLY REFORM MOVEMENT

While the ERS's was a proposal for a new, national education ~~education~~ system, it made specific recommendations on the following:

- * The education model.
- * The school- and technical college curriculum.
- * Additional school models for providing school education.
- * Greater management autonomy for educational institutions [DNE 1992b:v-vi].

With reference to a new model for the education system, the ERS recommended that:

- * Race was not going to be a criterion in restructuring the provision of education in a future education system for South Africa and justice in the provision of educational opportunities must be ensured [DNE 1992b:16].
- * A new education system should promote and express national unity. With the advent of a non-racial education system, provision will have to be made for the accommodation of diversity, based on internationally recognised and educationally relevant basic human

rights such as mother-tongue education, freedom of religion and the practice and transmission of one's own culture. Freedom of association must form a cornerstone of the new education system [DNE 1992b:16-17].

- * The new education system should provide for the existence of a central education authority and regionally-based departments of education. The central education authority should bear the responsibility for policy and norms and standards in education [DNE 1992b:23].

- * The South African education system should provide for the sharing of responsibilities regarding education amongst political/educational authorities at the different levels, parent communities, the organised teaching profession and other stakeholders to ensure effective education for all learners [DNE 1992b:24-25].

- * With respect to the school and technical college curriculum, a document called *A Curriculum Model for Education in South Africa* was released as a discussion document on 20 November 1991 [DNE 1992b:48].

- * With reference to additional models for providing school education and greater management autonomy for educational institutions the ERS proposed that:
 - (a) Education authorities should as far as possible establish management councils at all schools. Further, schools must be given the opportunity to choose between various types of management models so that they can grow into a greater decision-making autonomy [DNE 1992b:80].

 - (b) In accordance with devolution of power, education authorities should as far as possible establish a type A fund at schools and encourage the establishment of a type B fund at as many schools as possible. Type A funds refers to funds provided by the State to enable the schools in accordance with its management

model, to assume responsibility for its own financial management, and Type B funds should be established for the purpose of managing all funds generated by the school itself [DNE 1992b:82].

- * The government will have to introduce a generally applicable minimum period of compulsory schooling for which the state must assume the primary financial responsibility [DNE 1992b:83].

Model C schools were introduced in April 1992 when former White House of Assembly schools were informed that their funding was to be cut. Parents were told they could maintain existing levels of funding if they took over part of the financial burden when the school converted to Model C-status. Some 94% of former House of Assembly schools converted to Model C-status. The state only paid the salaries of teachers to a fixed teacher-pupil ratio. The role of the governing body which was to be elected by parents was to:

- * determine general thrust of school policy;
- * set financial policy and manage funds of the school;
- * determine tuition fees;
- * appoint, promote and dismiss staff subject to applicable labour laws;
- * appoint and pay additional staff members;
- * decide on additional curriculum programmes;
- * maintain the school; and
- * determine school admission policy [Daily News 1995a:13].

Model C schools attracted much controversy. Nzimande [1995:20] commented that because of the past, learning and teaching was unevenly spread along racial lines and has been part of a pattern of discrimination. Cloete [1995:4] adds that the “very concept of Model C schools or any other model is contrary to the ideal of having one educational system and equal amenities

and facilities for all children regardless of their skin colour or their parents' financial standing." Earlier on the Natal Teachers Society strongly criticised the concept of school models saying they would impede the reform process and allow for the continuation of state-supported apartheid by local option [Matthewson 1990:2].

Yet there are others who saw merit in Model C schools. Edwards [1995:20] argued that Model C schools are significant assets and anyone who replaced known assets with institutions of unknown value, is sure to lose the advantage of an established educational value system to build upon. Others believed Model C schools should be preserved as exemplars of excellence, serving the interests of all.

The Hunter Review Committee which was initiated by the present government to investigate the education system in 1995 recommended that only two types of schools, public and independent, be recognised noting the discrepancies between the Model C and state schools [Alfreds 1995:19].

4.4 REASONS FOR THE SECOND REFORM MOVEMENT

After the general elections of April 1994, South Africa had for the first time a democratically elected government in place and the government's policy for education and training became "matter of national importance second to none" [Bengu 1995a:5].

In the White Paper on Education and Training, Education Minister, Prof. Bengu [South Africa 1995a:18-22] advanced the following reasons for the transformation of the system of education and training in the Republic of South Africa (RSA):

- * The distribution of education and training provision in the RSA follows a "pattern of contrasts and paradoxes." In the elite sector because of better resources, students succeed well in the senior certificate examinations and an impressive proportion qualify for admission to higher education. At the same time "millions of adult South Africans are functionally illiterate, and millions of South African children and youth are learning

- in school conditions which resemble those in the most impoverished states.” Students drop out prematurely or fail the senior certificate examinations and a small minority are able to pursue higher education [South Africa 1995a:18].
- * Measured by international indicators of human development and economic competitiveness, South Africa’s overall performance is poor because the achievements of its outstandingly well developed elite sector are overshadowed by inadequate provision for the basic needs, including education and training of the majority of the population [South Africa 1995a:18].
 - * The unique pattern of South African inequality and under-development has been laid down over the generations of minority rule and ethnically-based economic, labour and social development policies. The gradations between rich and poor, articulate and voiceless, housed and homeless, well-fed and malnourished, educated and illiterate, reflect South Africa’s “complex racial and ethnic hierarchies” [South Africa 1995a:18].
 - * As from 1983, education was organised through the three separate “own affairs” services of the parliament for Indians, Coloureds and Whites respectively with provision for the African population being divided between six self-governing territory departments, a central government department administering education for Africans living in the “White RSA,” and four nominally independent state departments. The Department of National Education controlled policy and budgeting allocations on behalf of the central government [South Africa 1995a:18].

These separate systems have operated in more or less in total isolation from each other except at the “level of top management.” In 1995, the different administrators and educators were absorbed into new non-racial national and provincial departments. The fact that South Africans have experienced different educational histories, is a significant factor in the transition to a single, national non-racial system [South Africa 1995a:18]. The restructuring of the education system had to address the imbalances and inequalities of the past.

The areas of focus for the government of national unity as specified in the White Paper on Education and Training [South Africa 1995a:21-23] with reference to schools are many. This chapter will focus on the following:

- School Governance
- The School Curriculum
- Appraisals of Educators
- South African Council for Educators (SACE)

The researcher believes they constitute the key elements of a changing school environment and a changing school management context. Under school governance the South African Schools Act No 84 of 1996 will be discussed. Further, the role and functions of the governing body will be analysed. With respect to the school curriculum, the areas under investigation will be the National Qualifications Framework (NQF); Outcomes-Based Education (OBE) and Educational Assessments and Standards. New initiatives towards the appraisal of educators will be discussed. The restoration of the culture of teaching, learning and management involves the creation of a culture of accountability [South Africa 1995a:22], and therefore the interest in new systems of appraisals. Finally, the South African Council for Educators (SACE) will be described and discussed.

4.5 SCHOOL GOVERNANCE

The White Paper on Education and Training [South Africa 1995a:21] comments on the “rehabilitation of schools and colleges” that must “go hand in hand with the restoration of the ownership of these institutions to their communities through the establishment and empowerment of legitimate, representative governance bodies.” The White Paper [South Africa 1995a:22] goes on to state that the principle of democratic governance should increasingly be reflected in every level of the system, by the involvement in consultation and appropriate forms of decision-making of elected representatives of the main stakeholders, interest groups and role-players.

The South African Schools Act No 84 of 1996 hereafter referred to as the Act was promulgated to “provide for a uniform system for the organisation, governance and funding of schools; to amend and repeal certain laws relating to schools; and to provide for matters connected therewith [South Africa 1996:2]. The Act spells out the composition, role and functions of governing bodies, and also describes the composition of governing bodies. The governing body must comprise:

- * Elected members.
- * The principal, in his or her official capacity.
- * Co-opted members [South Africa 1996:18].

The elected members of the governing body shall comprise a member or members of each the following categories:

- * Parents of learners of the school.
- * Educators at the school.
- * Members of staff at the school who are not educators.
- * Learners in the eighth grade or higher at the school. The learner or learners must be elected by the representative council of learners [South Africa 1996:18].
- * The governing body of a public school may co-opt a member or members of the community to assist in discharging its functions, but co-opted members do not have voting rights.

The number of parent members must comprise one more than the combined total of other members of a governing body who have voting rights [South Africa 1996:18]. This requirement in the Act has already led to concern among educators as they believe parents’ rights are treated more seriously than theirs and they are beginning to feel threatened [Adams & Watson 1997:15, *SADTU News* 1996a:3] (see also sections 6.4.2.2 and 6.4.2.2.1).

The Act [South Africa 1996:14-16] states the governing body must:

- * Promote the best interests of the school and strive to ensure its development through the provision of quality education for all learners at the schools.
- * Adopt a constitution.
- * Develop the mission statement of the school.
- * Adopt a code of conduct for learners at the school.
- * Support the principal, educators and other staff of the school in the performance of their professional functions.
- * Determine times of the school day consistent with any applicable conditions of employment of staff at the school.
- * Administer and control the school's property and buildings and grounds occupied by the school, including school hostels, if applicable.
- * Encourage parents, learners, educators and other staff at the school to render volunteer services to the school.
- * Recommend to the Head of Departments the appointment of educators at the school, subject to applicable Acts.
- * At the request of the Head of Departments allow the reasonable use of the facilities of the school for educational programmes not conducted by the school.

In addition to the above, the governing body, may apply to the Head of Department in writing to be allocated any of the following functions:

- * The maintenance and improvement of the school's property, and buildings and grounds, including the school hostel if applicable.
- * The determination of the extra-mural curriculum of the school and the choice of subject options in terms of provincial curriculum policy.
- * The purchase of text books, educational materials or equipment for the school.
- * The payment for services to the school.

- * The performance of any other function consistent with the Act and any applicable provincial law [South Africa 1996:16].

The South African Schools Act No 84 of 1996 has implications for schools in general and school management in particular. The mechanism laid down for establishing a governing body is solidly democratic and the intended result is that stakeholders in the local community will have a real say in the provision of education in their local areas. Lee-Ann Alfreds [1997:2] believes the elections for new school governing bodies “just might prove to be one of the most obvious and lasting signs of South Africa’s new democracy.”

With respect to the composition of the governing body, of significance is the inclusion of learners in the eighth grade or higher at the school. Prior to the ushering in of the new democracy, there was a strong push for the establishment of Parents Teachers Students Associations (PTSA’s), especially in schools serving disadvantaged communities. This Act recognises, firstly that learners are also stakeholders and secondly that they have the right to make management decisions jointly with other stakeholders, which was not the case in the past.

But it is not only learners who are now required by the Act to be members of the governing body. Members of staff who are not educators and this can technically range from the caretaker to the school secretary are required to be members and this creates a new paradigm for school management. This is a departure from the past where governing bodies comprised mainly of parents and educators. It calls for a new mind-set that recognises non-educators’ contributions to school management as valuable for school governance.

Another statutory requirement is the establishment of a representative council of learners at a school that enrolls learners in the eighth grade and higher [South Africa 1996:10]. The Act prescribes that the learner component of the governing body must be elected by the representative council of learners. One sees here the government’s commitment to engaging all stakeholders in its pursuit of democratising the sites of learning.

In considering the functions that the governing body has to perform, one wonders whether members will be sufficiently skilled to handle and execute their well defined functions. While it is true that in the previous Model C schools, the governing body was fairly sophisticated, the same cannot be said for the disadvantaged schools. The participation of students and non-educators also poses problems. The question is whether they will have the knowledge and skills to participate meaningfully in the governing body. What becomes critical here is training and retraining to efficiently skill members so that they can contribute meaningfully to school governance. Lack of training will lead to disempowerment and ultimately mean that the prime objective of this Act viz. the empowerment of the governing body will be not achieved (see section 6.4.2.2).

There are advantages to be had in constituting a governing body that comprises all stakeholders. For once different stakeholders will not be able to resist any decisions taken by the school, as they are all part of the decision-making process. The ownership of decisions by all stakeholders can only serve to advance the interest of the school in all spheres of its activities.

However, this very “new democracy” that Alfreds [1997] refers to has led to the State introducing an amendment to the Act. The Education Laws Amendment Bill, will, when it becomes law, force schools to consider equity, redress, and representivity as well as the ability of the candidate when making appointments [Rantoa 1997:3]. What this amendment means in effect is that governing bodies are now compelled by law to appoint teachers to their schools out of the redeployment list which resulted from the rightsizing exercise. Rightsizing of the public service refers to the application of a special initiative whereby the serving public officials are afforded the option to request that their services be terminated on a voluntary basis [Department of Public Service and Administration 1996:1-6]. The rightsizing exercise did not only result in teachers taking voluntary severance packages, but resulted also in redundant teachers being placed on a redeployment list. Ramphela [1997:25] reports that originally “school governing boards and other education policy-makers concerned about the effect of the policy on recruiting quality teaching staff negotiated an escape that allowed them to exercise the right to advertise and appoint the best person for the job on offer.” In other words schools were

not compelled by law to fill vacancies out of the redeployment list. When the Education Laws Amendment Bill becomes law, schools will be forced to employ teachers out of the redeployment list. Political parties to the right of the government are critical of this amendment and Ellis in [Rantoo 1997:3] an education spokesperson for the Democratic Party was concerned that the power of education was now being centralised “in the hands of the Minister at national level and further bind school and governing bodies to do as they were told.”

4.6 OPEN ENROLMENT

Another clause in the Act [South Africa 1996:6-7] addresses the question of admission to public schools. More specifically:

- * A public school must admit learners and serve their educational requirements without unfairly discriminating in any way.
- * The governing body of a public school may not administer any test related to the admission of a learner to a public school, or direct or authorise the principal of the school or any other person to administer such tests.
- * No learner may be refused admission to a public school on the grounds that his or her parent:
 - is unable to pay or has not paid the school fees determined by the governing body.
 - does not subscribe to the mission statement of the school.
 - has refused to enter into contract in terms of which the parent waives any claim for damages arising out of the education of the learner.
- * The Minister may by notice in the Government Gazette, after consultation with the Council of Education Ministers, determine age requirements for the admission of learners to a school or to different grades at a school.

- * The admission policy of a public school is determined by the governing body of a school subject to the Act and any applicable provincial law.

This admission policy is not without controversy. Even before the Act was gazetted, schools could admit Black pupils into White schools [Penny, Appel, Gultig, Harley & Muir 1993: 412]. In 1996 in the Northern Province at the Laerskool Potgietersrus, the Premier and other government officials monitored the registration of Black pupils. A tense situation prevailed at the school when “khakhi-clad rightwingers” demonstrated at the school gates because Black pupils were being admitted to the school [Mamaila 1996:1]. On the other hand, there are also schools where integration had taken place harmoniously. Meetsetshehla Secondary in Northern Province [Alfreds 1996b] and Pretoria West High School [Smith 1996:13] are examples of integration taking place peacefully around the country.

The clause on admission of learners in the Act poses far reaching consequences for school management. Previously people were forced by law to live in different group areas for different races. Consequently schools comprised a single race be it White, Black, Indian or Coloured. Even in a racially exclusive area only pupils of the catchment area were allowed to be admitted to schools in a particular zone. This clause in the Act however allows learners to be admitted irrespective of where they live. Such a situation can have the effect that some schools can be over subscribed while others may not be so, depending on the schools’ reputation in the area. Reputation has largely to do with the school’s achievement, both curricular and extra curricular.

It is also true that many parents in the townships are now admitting their children to previously advantaged schools, if they can afford to do so. Such parents seek to provide a better educational environment for their children, noting that previously advantaged schools were better resourced. For these better resourced schools there is increased pressure to accept learners of other races and this increased pressure may lead to an increased teacher-learner ratio. Teachers are expected to cope and principals are expected to manage in the face of diminishing resources and larger classes.

In the early 1990s it was a practice by many advantaged schools to subject learners from disadvantaged schools to a test prior to admission to the better resourced school. One can only surmise that tests were administered with good intentions but the Act has vetoed such practices. With the rejection of such practices, the onus is on the educators to provide the necessary support to disadvantaged learners such that they can begin to compete evenly with their peers.

Any omission on the part of the school to provide support systems for historically disadvantaged learners can be construed as discriminatory and as not serving their (the learners') educational requirements.

Finally, in the United Kingdom and in the USA open enrolment was introduced to encourage better standards (see sections 3.2.3.2 and 3.3.8). In South Africa open enrolment was introduced to outlaw discrimination on the grounds of race, colour and creed.

The Act [South Africa 1996:8-10] also lays down guidelines with respect to:

- * language policy of public schools,
- * freedom of conscience and religion at public schools, and
- * a code of conduct.

4.7 LANGUAGE POLICY

On the question of a language policy, the Act states that the governing body of a public school may determine the language policy of the school subject to the Constitution and any applicable provincial law, but no form of social discrimination may be practised in implementing policy determined under this section.

Determining the language policy of the school can also be problematic for the governing body. The Constitution recognises 12 languages as official languages of the country, and therefore a minority can demand to be taught in a language that is not common to the majority. In

developing policy on the language of instruction, the governing body has to walk a tight rope so as not to discriminate against any group of learners, which is not an easy task to accomplish (see section 6.4.2.6).

To this extent, in an editorial in the Daily News [1995b:18] the writer argued that language should not be used for ideological purposes as the writer believed education needs to avoid the trap of language being used for any purpose other than effective communication of the ideas necessary to impart knowledge.

The medium of instruction has led to much tension. In Mpumalanga, for example, the use of Afrikaans has been used as an excuse to keep Black pupils separate from their White counterparts [Rantao 1996:2]. In the North West Province, the Afrikaans-medium school, Vryburg High became the subject of increasing scrutiny because of its alleged ill-treatment of Black pupils. Because only six out of 86 Black pupils passed the year-end examination although receiving instruction in English in separate classes, a circular was sent to all parents indicating that if they wanted their children to be taught at Vryburg, they would have to accept instruction in Afrikaans. This resulted in pitched battles between Black pupils and police and parent protests heightened. Black children began, thereafter, to show a preference for crowded township conditions rather than enduring what they considered racial abuse [Alfreds 1996a:7]. The issue was so serious that there were calls from the African National Congress for the dismissal of the headmaster [*The Citizen* 1996a:7].

4.8 FREEDOM OF CONSCIENCE

With reference to religion, the Act [South Africa 1996:8] prescribes that religious observances may be observed but such observances are to be conducted on an equitable basis and attendance at them by learners and members of staff is free and voluntary. Given the Christian character of education that the majority of South African schools subscribe to, this Act may impact on school traditions and culture as it recognises freedom of conscience and religion at public schools [South Africa 1996:8].

With the implementation of this clause the following questions come to mind:

- * How would the tone and discipline of a school be affected if some teachers and/or learners decline to participate in the school's religious activities?
- * Would people be alienated by their peers because they think and believe differently?
- * Finally, can the school be non-denominational and celebrate major events in the calendars of the various religions of its school population? (see also section 6.4.2.9).

4.9 A CODE OF CONDUCT FOR LEARNERS

The Act [South Africa 1996:8] prescribes that the governing body of a public school must adopt a code of conduct for learners after consultation with learners, parents and educators of the school. This code of conduct is aimed at establishing a disciplined and purposeful school environment, dedicated to the improvement and maintenance of the quality of the learning process [South Africa 1996:8]. This clause in the Act has already been actioned by the Gauteng Education Department. Gauteng student bodies (The Congress of South African Students, the Pan African Student's Organisation, the African Students Movement and South African Students of State-Aided Schools) together with the MEC for education have drawn up a code of conduct which provides for disciplinary action for all misconduct and aims to reinstate a culture of learning in the provinces 900 secondary schools [Lund 1996a:2]. Metcalfe in [Lund 1996a:2] says schools in many areas are barely functional and therefore the adoption of a code of conduct for learners is a step in the right direction. Given the loss of a culture of learning in many disadvantaged schools, the implementation of a code of conduct will go a long way in restoring a healthy respect for the school and learning. A code of conduct places importance on responsibility, discipline, justice, equality, and peace and an adherence to these aspects is expected to promote an environment conducive to positive learning, education and personal development [Mecoamere 1996:1]. The code of conduct will force learners to be more disciplined and purposeful which can only be good for education and training.

4.10 CORPORAL PUNISHMENT

Another clause in the Act [South Africa 1996:10] stipulates that no person may administer corporal punishment at a school to a learner and any person who contravenes this injunction is guilty of an offence and liable, on conviction, to a sentence which could be imposed for assault. It would appear this requirement of the Act is a response to the human rights principles contained in the new Constitution of the country. However, as will be discussed later, the ban on corporal punishment has elicited negative remarks from principals (see section 6.4.2.3).

4.11 FUNDING OF PUBLIC SCHOOLS

The funding of public schools has also been addressed by the Act [South Africa 1996:24]. The Act prescribes that while the State must fund public schools from public revenue on an equitable basis, it is the responsibility of the governing body to supplement the resources supplied by the State [South Africa 1996:24]. Significantly, it is no more the role of the principal and his/her management to take decisions around school funds. The governing body has been given this task of making decisions on the funding process.

In conclusion the South African Schools Act No 84 of 1996 ushered in a new era in the system of education in the Republic of South Africa. For the first time in its history, education will be managed by “unrivalled parent, student, community and staff participation” [Alfreds 1997:2]. However, the implementation has not gone smoothly. Thousands of teachers belonging to The South African Democratic Teacher’s Union (SADTU), went on a march to protest amongst other things “racially biased” governing bodies [Mecoamere 1997:1]. The National Professional Teachers Organisation of South Africa (NAPTOSA) expressed concern about threats by the Department of Education to jail teachers who cane pupils. While admitting that in terms of the Constitution there is no place for corporal punishment, they however found the issue controversial [*The Citizen* 1996b:3].

4.12 THE CURRICULUM

According to the White Paper on Education and Training [South Africa 1995a:26] “new flexible and appropriate curricula are needed that cut across traditional division of skills and knowledge with standards defined in terms of learning-outcomes and appropriate assessment practices, in order to provide a more meaningful learning experience,” and prepare learners more effectively for life and opportunities.

4.12.1 NATIONAL QUALIFICATIONS FRAMEWORK (NQF)

The National Qualifications Framework (NQF) has been developed in the hope of finding a system which would take a holistic view of the personal, social and economic needs of the South African society [HSRC 1995:5]. It provides opportunities for learning regardless of age, circumstances and the level of education and training one has. It allows one to learn on an ongoing basis and is therefore referred to as life-long learning [EIC 1996:4].

The national Minister of Education and Training and the Minister of Labour have appointed the South African Qualifications Board which has established the NQF [EIC 1996:6]. The South African Qualifications Authority (SAQA) Act No. 58 of 1995 was implemented on 4 October 1995 and it defined the objectives of the NQF as follows:

- * To create an integrated National Framework for learning achievements.
- * To facilitate access to and mobility and progression within education, training and career paths.
- * To enhance the quality of education and training.

- * To accelerate the redress of past unfair discrimination in education, training and employment opportunities and thereby contribute to the full personal development of each learner and the social and economic development of the nation at large [South Africa 1995b:1201 - 1203].

The system outlined in the SAQA Act [South Africa 1995b:1207] has the following objectives:

- * To oversee the development of the NQF and to formulate and publish policies and criteria for:
 - the registration of bodies responsible for establishing education and training standards or qualifications; and
 - the accreditation of bodies responsible for monitoring and auditing achievements in terms of such standards or qualifications.
- * To oversee the implementation of the NQF, including
 - the registration or accreditation of bodies referred to above and the assignment of functions to them,
 - the registration of national standards and qualifications, and
 - to take steps to ensure that standards and registered qualifications are internationally comparable.
- * To advise the Minister of National Education and Training on matters affecting the registration of standards and qualifications.

- * To be responsible for the control of the finance of the South African Qualifications Authority.

The need for educational and training reform in South Africa has been influenced by:

- * The need to create an equitable system of education and training which serves all South Africans well. Such a system will need to accommodate those people who are in conventional schools, colleges and training programmes and in order to achieve economic growth and be internationally competitive, the quality of education and training had to be greatly improved [HSRC 1995:6].
- * The need to change the way society thinks about education and training. For example, academic study is generally perceived to be more valuable than training for useful occupation [HSRC 1995:6].

The NQF has adopted a new approach to learning. It changes the way people think about training and education. The NQF transforms conventional thinking in the following ways:

- * It acknowledges that all learning is for a purpose and that good learning can serve pressing national priorities such as social and economic development [HSRC 1995:12].
- * It provides a coherent way of thinking about education and training and about learning related to competence. It helps people to acknowledge that any learning should be aimed at making the learner more capable [HSRC 1995:12].
- * The NQF recognises that much learning takes place outside the formal delivery system and that learning should be assessed against nationally acceptable standards, and recognition given accordingly [HSRC 1995:12].
- * It considers learning from a learner's point of view [HSRC 1995:12].

- * With the use of learning-outcomes and appropriate assessment criteria, the move towards a learner-centred approach makes learners active participants in the process. It is the learner's performance that counts and not the teacher's [HSRC 1995:12].
- * It recognises formal qualifications as a major entry to better jobs and living standards [HSRC 1995:12].

The NQF is founded on the following principles [EIC 15:19].

- * **Legitimacy** - It creates the opportunity for the participation of all stakeholders in the planning and co-ordination of standards and qualifications. People from government, communities, the labour movement, education and training and business and industry are involved. They can be any special grouping which has a particular interest in that area of learning.
- * **Integration** - This system of education brings together education which was not evident in the past system. While education is the area in which knowledge is gained, training refers to skills gained.
- * **Relevance** - The NQF is directed at both the needs of learners and the needs of the nation as it provides opportunities for people to gain the skills, knowledge, experience and understanding necessary to build a strong, productive, skilled workforce.
- * **Credibility** - The standards and qualifications set by the NQF will be recognised and accepted both nationally and internationally.

- * **Coherence** - Areas of learning are connected to each other so that one builds on what has been learnt as one moves from one learning situation to another.

- * **Flexibility** - The NQF provisions makes it possible to use different means to achieve the same learning-outcomes, that is, national qualifications can be achieved through formal and informal learning situations.

- * **Quality** - The standards and qualifications developed will ensure a good quality education and training system. There will be carefully worked out standards, which will include outcomes and assessment guidelines. The assessments can take the form of projects completed either at home or at the workplace, classwork activities on the shopfloor and role-play. SAQA will ensure that assessments are carried out fairly and equally in terms of the standards.

- * **Access** - The NQF provides an open system where one is able to enter and exit the different levels of education and training. Previous experience and/or qualifications will be credited thus giving easier access to the different levels and fields of education and training.

- * **Progression** - The NQF allows one to move through the different levels by gaining credits and qualifications that are nationally recognised. One has to achieve a certain number of credits in an appropriate combination before a qualification is granted.

- * Portability - The NQF allows one to transfer qualifications and credits more easily from one learning situation to another. In a formal study environment, it will enable movement between types of learning institutions.
- * Articulation - The NQF allows one to move between an education and work environment, once credits have been successfully completed.
- * Recognition - With the NQF one can gain recognition for learning done in either of prior learning in formal or informal situations. Once one is assessed on what is learned, then one is placed at the appropriate level of education and training.
- * Guidance - Learners will be counselled by specially trained individuals on the new approach to education and training and also to make choices about what learning and career pathways to follow [EIC 1996:15-19].

These principles clearly indicate that the NQF is intended to be a way of achieving a fundamental restructuring of the education and training system. It encourages the creation of new and flexible curricula, to promote the upgrading of learning standards, to monitor and regulate the quality of qualifications and to permit a high level of articulation between qualifications based on the recognition and accumulation of credits [HSRC 1995:11-12].

A new system is often met with scepticism, fear and criticism and the NQF has also come under the spotlight. Some common criticisms and comments are presented by the HSRC [1995:29-33].

It can be argued that the NQF “imposes a single viewpoint on all education and training” to which the HSRC’s reply is that the creation of qualifications and the unit standards within them happen through consensus-building among relevant stakeholders within the field of learning. The nationally agreed standards reflect therefore the values, knowledge, skills and insights of a nationally credible working group in that particular field of learning [HSRC 1995:29].

To the criticism that the NQF introduces standardised curricula for all levels of learners the HSRC [1995:29] argues that while the NQF is an attempt to bring coherence to education, “actual curricula and programmes for delivery will be the domain of the authority, institution and educator to develop.”

Another concern is that the NQF lowers standards by forcing the “vocationalisation” of education. To this, the HSRC [1995:29] responds, by saying that current practices like rote-learning and task specific training will be done away with, but the “unifying vision in the present proposals is for the development of quality learning which is demonstrable, as performance, in a particular context.”

Some critics also argue that the approach of the NQF may bring chaos through the ad hoc selection of unrelated bits of learning to make up qualifications. The HSRC [1995:30] believes that since stakeholders themselves will be inputting into how qualifications should be made up, selection of learning units will not happen randomly.

The charge that the whole approach of the NQF is bureaucratic is also sometimes made against the NQF. The response to this criticism is that the National Standard Bodies will consist of representatives of national stakeholders. However, in the pursuit of integration, coherence, flexibility and learner-centredness, it is hoped the system will be streamlined [HSRC 1995:30]. With reference to the devaluing of the standard of education to the lowest common denominator in the field, the HSRC [1995:30-31], believes that through consensus and based on a true understanding of levels, the NQF raises the status of qualifications.

Some argue that the NQF is a plot by labour to collapse the difference between mental and manual labour. The changing conditions in the new labour market, the emergence of new technology and new forms of work organisation demand a labour force with higher and more flexible skills. Therefore, the proposed framework is seen as having benefits to both education and the work place [HSRC 1995:31]. To those who believe that the NQF will force all qualifications to look the same, the HSRC [1995:31] responds, by saying that commonly agreed outcomes should be known, but an institution can offer a range of choices leading to this qualification. Another concern is that the NQF provides the opportunity for countless scams and exploitation of learners and parents. The HSRC [1995:32] believes that the existence of standards makes it possible to assess the quality of provision and rid the system of opportunists [HSRC 1995:32]. To the claim that only government will issue qualifications, the HSRC [1995:32] responds by saying that a nationally recognised qualification is not one issued by the government.

Very often the concern is that quality assurance is another term for 'thought policing.' According to the HSRC [1995:32] involvement of all stakeholders in the process negates that argument.

The setting up of the NQF implies a new curriculum framework. The curriculum framework is described as a set of principles and guidelines which provide both a philosophical base and an organisational structure for curriculum development initiatives at all levels, be they nationally provincially, community or school-based [Department of Education 1996a:5]. This curriculum framework serves as a strategic intervention designed to facilitate and guide the development of a transformed education and training system in a practicable and sustainable way [Department of Education 1996a:5].

4.12.2 CURRICULUM DEVELOPMENT

With respect to curriculum development the draft document [Department of Education 1996a:6-8] identifies the following principles:

* Participation and ownership

Education and training is the joint responsibility of the State, community and private sector. What this means for schools is that parents and guardians share the primary responsibility for the education of their children. While a healthy relationship between the state and parents is essential for the establishment of a culture of lifelong-learning, teachers should be equal partners in curriculum and materials development while employers and other stakeholders have major responsibility in helping to determine how learners should be prepared for adult life, including the world of work. Education should be community-driven and responsive to community needs [Department of Education 1996a:6].

* Accountability and transparency

Since curriculum development is a dynamic process, it should take into account changing demands. At the same time it should be an accountable and transparent process, open to public scrutiny. Curriculum transformation process should therefore be developmental and include crucial elements such as research, continuous review and evaluation of criteria [Department of Education 1996a:7].

* Affordability, sustainability and capacity building

The effectiveness of a new education and training system according to the draft document [Department of Education 1996a:7] depends amongst other things on its affordability and sustainability. Sustainability of the system also depends on the extent

to which it values its human resources. Capacity building is seen as going hand-in-hand with curriculum development, teacher development and community development. Essential for sustainability also is continuing support for teachers in improving themselves professionally since they have to deliver learning programmes in classrooms. The critical role of teachers is emphasised because if teachers feel inadequate, or that their autonomy or professionalism is being affected negatively they would be neither willing nor able to contribute to the transformations which are required [Department of Education 1996a:7].

* Coherence within the context of the NQF

The development process cannot happen in isolation from the NQF, therefore the development of a Curriculum Framework, National Guideline Documents and Learning Programmes are simultaneously developed [Department of Education 1996a:8].

The following principles are considered in the curriculum design process - human resource development; learner-centredness; relevance; integration; differentiation; redress and learner's support; nation-building and non-discrimination; critical and creative thinking; flexibility; progression; credibility; and quality assurance [Department of Education 1996a:11-16]. With respect to human resource development it is the role of the education and training process to sensitise learners that they themselves are resources of knowledge and that the process of learning while building on prior learning should be a process of expanding the boundaries of knowledge and capacity building throughout their levels [Department of Education 1996a:11].

With learner-centredness the curriculum should put learners first and respond to their needs. This will mean taking into account the general characteristics, developmental and otherwise, of different groups of learners. Different learning styles and rates of learning need to be acknowledged and accommodated in the learning styles and in the attainment of qualifications. This fact places great challenges to teachers as they would need to understand the ways in which different cultural values and lifestyles affect the construction of knowledge [Department of Education 1996a:11]. The curricula has also to be relevant and appropriate to current and

anticipated future needs of the individual society, commerce and industry. In order to compete in the economic system, the acquisition of appropriate skills and competencies have to be relevant, that is, responding to real needs. Learners should become technologically literate as well as environmentally aware and responsible [Department of Education 1996a:12]. An integrated approach to education and training implies a view of learning which “rejects a rigid division between academic and applied knowledge, theory and practice, knowledge and skills, head and hand” [Department of Education 1996a:12].

The rationale behind differentiation, redress and learner support is that learning programmes should facilitate the creation of opportunities for all learners to strive towards the attainment of similar learning-outcomes. This approach does not deny that there are educationally relevant differences among individuals, but if national standards are to be achieved, the challenge is for teachers to explore a host of alternative international methods and approaches. It follows that learners would be allowed the opportunity to cope with demanding performance standards at their own pace rather than at the pace of the majority of learners in a class [Department of Education 1996a:13]. To this extent, Mulholland [1997a:1], believes that students in schools will not learn that there are deadlines in life, that certain tasks have to be performed within a certain time frame if they are allowed to work at their own pace. He adds further that in this system “no one fails” until they achieve the appropriate number of standard units. Another factor that is addressed under this principle is the special provision for accommodating those learners with learning or other disabilities in mainstream education [Department of Education 1996a:13].

According to the draft document *Framework for General and Further Education and Training* education and training should promote the development of national identity and awareness of South Africa’s role in the international world. Learning programmes should therefore encourage the development of:

- * Mutual respect for diverse religious and value systems, cultural and language traditions.
- * Multilingualism and informed choices regarding the language/s of learning.

- * Co-operation, civic responsibility and the ability to participate in all aspects of society.
- * An understanding of national, provincial, local and regional developmental needs.
- * Basic human rights irrespective of gender, race, classes, creed or age [Department of Education 1996a:14].

Critical and creative thinking are also principles supporting the new curriculum. Learners ability to think logically, analytically as well as holistically and laterally is emphasised. Learners will have to acknowledge the changing nature of knowledge and of the need to balance independent individualised thinking with social responsibility and the ability to function as part of a group, community or society [Department of Education 1996a:14].

Teachers are no more regarded as merely dispensers of knowledge and will also have to change to accept learners as equal and active participants in the learning and development process [Department of Education 1996a:14]. Learning programmes should be flexible which means that teachers should provide learners with an increasing range of learning possibilities, offering learners flexibility in choosing what, where, when and how and at what pace they want to learn. Learning programmes would therefore not be so overloaded that it becomes difficult for providers to meet the needs of particular learners [Department of Education 1996a:14-15].

With progression is envisaged that learning programmes should facilitate progression from one class, phase or learning-outcome to another from any starting point in the education and training system [Department of Education 1996a:15].

Learning programmes should enjoy both national and international credibility. It implies that areas of learning as well as prescribed standards, should meet indigenous needs without necessarily deviating too markedly from those offered elsewhere in the world [Department of Education 1996a:16]. The quality of education and training will be assured by SAQA through the criteria it applies in the appointment of National Standards Bodies (NSB's), its role in

registering unit standards and qualifications and through accredited Education and Training Qualifications Assurers (ETQA's) which would have to ensure that providers deliver specified validated learning programmes which meet national and provincial criteria. Standards of Education and Training should be forwarded and registered with the SAQA in terms of learning-outcomes and appropriate assessment criteria [Department of Education 1996a:16].

4.12.3 OUTCOMES-BASED EDUCATION (OBE)

According to the draft document of the Department of Education[1996a:16-17] a commitment to outcomes-based learning is central to the Curriculum Framework proposed in the document. An understanding of what is meant by outcomes-based education (OBE) is therefore crucial to the successful development and implementation of learning programmes. The focus of OBE and training is on what learners know and can do. As its starting point, OBE will have the intended result of learning in terms of knowledge, skills, and values rather than the prescription of content to be learnt. Because the intended outcomes are explicitly stated, they serve as a guide to the teaching and learning process and makes possible appropriate evaluation of these processes and ultimately, of the selection of the outcomes themselves. The focus on outcomes therefore encourages the development of flexible, relevant programmes of learning. The way in which outcomes are formulated is therefore crucial because if it is applied too narrowly, it could be “reduced to a narrow statement of measurable behaviour and lead to learning programmes that are fragmented and irrelevant,” and in stressing what is quantitatively measurable, there is “a danger of ignoring long term goals which are most valuable” [Department of Education 1996a:17].

Two kinds of outcomes have been distinguished, namely essential outcomes and specific outcomes [Department of Education 1996a:17-19]. Essential outcomes are:

- * generic and cross-curricular;
- * not restricted to any specific learning context, but they inform the formulation of specific outcomes in individual areas of learning for all learners at all levels in the NQF;

- * working principles and as such they direct teaching, training and education practices and the development of the learning programmes and materials [Department of Education 1996a:17-19].

SAQA has proposed the following critical outcomes for learners: Learners will

- * identify and solve problems and make decisions;
- * identify and solve problems and make decisions using critical and creative thinking;
- * work effectively with others as a member of a team, group, organisation and community;
- * organise and manage one's self and one's activities responsibly and effectively;
- * collect, analyse, organise and critically evaluate information;
- * communicate effectively using visual, symbolic, and/or language skills in various modes;
- * use science and technology effectively and critically showing responsibility towards the environments and the health of others;
- * demonstrate an understanding of the world as a set of related systems by recognising that problem-solving contexts do not exist in isolation [Department of Education 1997a:10].

SAQA has also proposed the following additional five outcomes which support development:

- * Reflecting on and exploring a variety of strategies to learn more effectively.
- * Participating as responsible citizens in the life of local, national and global communities.
- * Being culturally and aesthetically sensitive across a range of social contexts.
- * Exploring education and career opportunities.
- * Developing entrepreneurial opportunities [Department of Education 1997a:10-12].

Specific outcomes refer to the specification of what learners are able to do at the end of a learning experience. This includes skills, knowledge and values which inform the demonstration of the achievement of an outcome or a set of outcomes [Department of Education 1997a:12]. The assessment criteria provide evidence that the learner has achieved the specific outcome.

The criteria indicate, in broad terms, the observable processes and products of learning which serve as culminating demonstrations of the learner's achievement. The assessment criteria are derived directly from the specific outcome and form a logical set of statements of what achievement could or derived should look like. While specific outcomes take the form of statements that "learners will" the assessment criteria generally indicate what learners have achieved [Department of Education 1997a:13].

Because the assessment criteria do not themselves provide sufficient details of exactly what and how much learning marks an acceptable level of achievement of the outcome, the assessment criteria are explained and detailed in the range statement. Range statements indicate the scope, depth, level of complexity and parameters of the achievement. They include indications of the critical areas of content, processes and context which the learner should engage with in order to reach an acceptable level of achievement.

While the range indicates the areas of content, product and process, it does not restrict learning to specific lists of knowledge items or activities which learners can work through mechanically. The range provides direction but allows for multiple learning strategies, flexibility in the choice of specific content and process and for a variety of verification methods [Department of Education 1997a:13].

The range statement also describes the broad contexts of learning by providing broad indicators that guide the choice of a range of methodologies and teaching and learning strategies that will support achievement of outcomes [Department of Education 1997a:14].

Because the outcome is the culmination of the learning process there is a need to provide learners with indicators by which they can plan and measure their progress towards the achievement of the outcome. Performance indicators provide the details of the content and processes that learners should master as well as details of the learning contexts in which the learner will be engaged, thus providing the teachers and learners with a breakdown of the essential stages to reach the process of achieving the outcome. Performance indicators will help to plan the learning process, track progress and diagnose problems [Department of Education 1997a:14-15].

Performance indicators will indicate the level of achievement that the learner finally achieves. Not only do they indicate whether the learner has achieved the outcome or not, it also allows for qualitative statement about achievements [Department of Education 1997a:15].

Learning programmes are the vehicles through which the curriculum is implemented at the various sites of learning. Learning programmes defines the learning activities in which the learner will be involved in the achievement of one or more specific outcomes [Department of Education 1997a:15].

It would seem, however, that much of the new thinking around performance indicators and OBE are very much similar to that of England and Wales and of the USA respectively (see sections 3.2.3.1 and 3.3.6).

4.12.4 SUMMARY

An analysis of the proposals on the table with respect to the new curriculum reveals a shift in the thinking around curriculum design and development. This new paradigm is underpinned by the South African Qualification Act of 1995 which had set up the National Qualification Framework (NQF). The NQF itself adopts a new approach to learning and focusses on lifelong-learning. The principles that support the NQF indicates a fundamental restructuring of the education and training system.

The draft curriculum document also begins to emphasise new content and values. Creative thinking and nation-building enjoy much attention as do other principles that have already been referred to earlier on. Outcomes-based education is being recommended as a replacement to the present system of education. Outcomes-based education, it is believed, will prepare learners to take their rightful places in the South African society.

4.13 EDUCATIONAL ASSESSMENTS AND STANDARDS

The Department of Education has issued its *Draft Policy on assessment of General and Further Education in South Africa* in which it argues that the old assessment paradigm still operating particularly at a micro-policy level, is “grossly inadequate” to deal with the challenges presented by new policies aimed at the transformation of education and training [Department of Education 1997b: 8]. The vision is that the new assessment policy should underpin and strengthen new learning objectives [Department of Education 1997b:8].

Existing policy places much emphasis on continuous, formative assessment, in the early learning years, while in the later years the emphasis is on summative assessment for the purposes of promotion, selection and placement. In the new paradigm, assessment is to be seen as an integral part of learning and teaching. In the new approach the most important feature of the outcomes-based model is that it “be seen as the mechanism of enablement” [Department of Education 1997b:20]. This approach says it is imperative that assessment practices are indicative of what the learner is able to accomplish in relation to the task that is learner’s ability to demonstrate his/her ability to perform the task against fixed criteria which are nationally agreed upon standards and registered on the NQF with the exception of Grades 1 to 8 in formal schooling where a standard will be expressed in the form of outcomes. Each learner is aware of exactly what is required of him/her to achieve the standard on any particular task. Each learner will be credited with exactly what he/she achieves independently of anyone else’s achievement [Department of Education 1997b: 21]. To this extent, Jansen [1997a:12], sees a contradiction and asks how one can insist that students use knowledge creatively only to inform them that “the desired learning-outcomes are already specified.”

Outcomes-based and performance assessment largely imply individual assessment based on observation of authentic tasks which can be carried out most successfully by the class or subject teacher [Department of Education 1997b:21].

The paradigm shift from a norm-referenced approach to a formative criterion referenced approach will mean that the focus will move from comparability to the assessment of an individual's performance against well defined standards which are aligned with the NQF [Department of Education 1977b:21].

In the chapter *Towards a Model for Assessment in Terms of an Outcomes Based Approach in South Africa*, " the Department of Education [1997b:28] defines the principles of effective and informative assessment and reporting. In terms of the proposal model, effective and informative assessment and reporting practice:

- * has clear, direct links with outcomes;
- * is integral to teaching and learning;
- * is balanced, comprehensive and varied;
- * is valid;
- * is fair;
- * engages the learner;
- * values teacher judgement;
- * is time efficient and manageable;
- * recognises individual achievement and progress ;
- * involves a whole school approach;
- * actively involves parents;
- * conveys meaningful and useful information

[Department of Education 1997b:28-33].

Some of the principles stated above have important implications for teachers, learners, management and parents. Teachers will have to select strategies that are derived from well structured teaching and learning activities. They will need to use a variety of assessment strategies that offer students multiple opportunities, in varying context to demonstrate what the learners know, understand and can do in relation to the learning programme outcomes [Department of Education 1997b:29].

Teachers need to make assessments on the weight of evidence about student progress towards achievement of outcomes. The reliability of teacher judgement is enhanced when teachers co-operatively develop a shared understanding of what constitutes achievement of an outcome. This is developed through co-operative programming and discussing samples of student's work and achievements within and between schools [Department of Education 1997b:31].

For the learners, assessments are also student-centred. There should be co-operative interaction between teacher and students and among students themselves [Department of Education 1997b:30]. To the criticism that OBE refutes the need for competition and its essential element, individual excellence [Mulholland 1997b:22], Vogel [1997:24] argues "co-operative learning is not a cop-out for teachers who may now leave pupils to get on with learning by themselves. Effective group work, and it is an effective methodology, requires meticulous planning, clear instructions, constant monitoring, guidance, assistance and careful assessment according to pre-planned schemes which lead to the desired outcome."

For management, issues relating to curriculum class groupings, timetabling, programming and reserved allocation become imperative as the assessment and reporting policy is developed through a planned and co-ordinated whole school approach [Department of Education 1997b:32]. Further, the involvement of parents in the review of policy in reporting processes, means a paradigm shift on the part of management. For parents, this approach implies that they are jointly responsible for developing assessment and reporting practices and policies according to their local needs and expectations [Department of Education 1997b:32]. Parents, therefore, are expected to be skilled and competent which may not be true for all schools. The question can be asked whether parents from historically disadvantaged areas with hardly any or no education are able to participate meaningfully or will they be willing partners to decisions they don't understand.

Commitment and availability are of paramount importance. It is expected that all stakeholders are committed to the programme. Further, they must make themselves available when meetings are held, especially when important decisions that affect the functioning of the school are made (refer to Pryke's research - section 3.2.3.5).

The recent history of this emerging democracy is replete with protests and marches, because people were not involved in the decision-making process and therefore rejected decisions that were imposed on them. Therefore, joint decision-making is to be welcomed. However, the issue of training of educators, learners and parents for the functions to be performed cannot be overemphasised given the fact that developed countries still see the need for training (see sections 3.2.3.5 and 3.3.10).

The draft policy on assessment also proposes a model of assessment policy for South Africa. The *Continuous Assessment Model (CASS Model)* [Department of Education 1997b:34] implies a "paradigm shift from promotion decisions used on the result of the single test or examination" (summative evaluation) to the "ongoing formative assessment of the learner" [Department of Education 1997b:34]. Portfolios of learner's work, as well as documented records of teachers appraisals, both verbal and scored over a period of time form the basis to continuous assessments and on which promotion decisions can be made [Department of Education 1997b:34]. All assessments will be underpinned by the criteria of the critical and specific learning-outcomes agreed upon and registered under the auspices of SAQA with the NQF.

The draft assessment policy for senior primary, junior secondary and senior secondary phases has introduced continuous assessment as a component of promotion requirements [Department of Education 1997b:34]. Previously, promotion in these phases was based purely on mid-year and final examinations. In 1995 the State introduced continuous assessment as a promotion requirement for all grades except the matriculation examination.

The strength and success of a CASS Model rests on the professionalism and ability of a highly skilled teaching corps who understand and are able to apply sound educational assessment principles. The assessment model proposes the following assessment methods:

- * continuous assessment;
- * diagnostic assessment;
- * achievement-based assessment;
- * self assessment;
- * peer assessment;
- * portfolio assessment;
- * performance assessment;
- * observation sheets;
- * journals;
- * teacher made-tests;
- * assessment of prior learning [Department of Education 1997b:36].

The above assessment methods have implications for both learners and teachers. In diagnostic assessment, for example, the teacher focusses on intended outcomes they want to assess, thus avoiding other aspects of the curriculum that are not important. In the achievement or outcomes-based assessment the learner, on the other hand, must demonstrate an acceptable level of ability and understanding after a unit, module or course has been completed.

Self assessment, on the other hand, implies that learners be taught to appraise their own work in order to value their own efforts. For the teacher in peer assessment, the challenge is to provide guidelines for the constructive and positive appraisal of group and pairwork.

In order that performance assessment is properly executed, by the school, the following five steps are recommended:

- * The outcome(s) to be assessed must be clearly identified (that is - create a clear and appropriate target for the learners).
- * The purpose of the assessment and the use of results must be determined.
- * The design of a performance task must elicit the expected outcomes.
- * The assessment criteria must be specified.
- * The scoring and recording instrument(s) must be selected and constructed.

The NQF when it becomes operational will recognise prior learning (see section 4.12.1). However, the assessment of prior learning poses a challenge to teachers. Teachers need to take cognisance of the level of mastery learners have achieved before placing them in programmes in order to maximise their learning experience by building on prior knowledge [Department of Education 1997b:45]. It is obvious therefore that teachers not trained in this form of assessment will not be able to cope easily with the new demands.

Another interesting observation that Williams [1997:vii] makes, is that learners will be allowed to take textbooks with them into the examination rooms as part of the restructuring process. According to Williams [1997:vii] this is major shift from the content-based, examination-led school system inherited from decades of colonialism. Although this point is not specifically mentioned in the draft assessment document, it may nevertheless indicate the thinking among policy-makers on the question of open-book examinations. The researcher does not want to debate the merits or demerits of this proposal. The question, however, is the feasibility of this proposal given the fact that many disadvantaged schools still do not have sufficient textbooks for learners [Morris and Mona 1997:4].

At the age of 15, South African learners must be able to identify and solve problems by thinking creatively and critically, use mathematics and language visually to communicate effectively, work with others in groups; apply science and technical skills in a responsible way that shows a deep understanding of the environment and community health; and understand other cultures [Williams 1997:vii].

With the restructuring of the assessment system, the need for moderation of teacher assessments becomes important. This new shift in thinking will by implication increase teacher assessments using contextualised observation of actual learner performance and this places enormous demands on the teacher. Differences in contexts must be taken into account in a reliable system of assessment [Department of Education 1997b:52].

The objective nature of outcomes-based assessments will require that a moderating model be implemented in order to ensure the maintenance of standards [Department of Education 1997b:52]. The Department of Education recommends that moderating committees be established at micro levels and infrastructure for the monitoring of outcomes of learner achievements be developed at provincial and national level [Department of Education 1997b:53].

With respect to the moderation of internal assessments, the role of learners is to assess their own work using exemplars to benchmark standards, while classroom assessments by teachers can be moderated by harnessing the expertise of peer assessment using staff at the school or of schools in the area [Department of Education 1997b:53]. Yet this procedure is not entirely reliable as it does not consider the differing variables inherent in rural, semi-rural, urban and peri-urban schools. The furtherance of nationally and internationally acceptable standards will always be interrogated by the local school community. In order that standards are comparable between and among various institutions in the country as a whole, there is a need for a well structured, meaningful in-service training programme. Given the fact that South African standards 5 and 6 pupils came last out of a class of about a million teenagers world wide who took the third International Mathematics and Science Study, curriculum review in terms of international standards is overdue [*Sunday Times* 1996:2].

With reference to moderation of learner achievement for examination and certification purposes, the Department of Education [1997b:54] proposes that a more sophisticated system of correlations and score equating could be developed to raise the validity and reliability of the final scores used for certification.

Another important point that the draft policy on assessment makes is the one which says that in the pursuit of national accountability, the national authorities, school provincial authorities, local school authorities, school principals and teachers are answerable to the public and the users of educational services for the results that have been achieved. It goes further to say that government must develop and maintain capacity for the systematic evaluation and monitoring of educational inputs, processes and outcomes [Department of Education 1997b:55]. The policy proposes the following with respect to monitoring:

- * Monitoring shall be conducted with clear ethical objectives in mind. This code of ethics is to be drafted by the central educational authority clearly stating the objectives and to what use the information obtained will be used.
- * Pupil-outcomes shall be considered as indicators of the cost-effectiveness and accountability of the system.
- * The central educational authority shall introduce a model of national systemic monitoring in key areas [Department of Education 1997b:55].

What the Department of Education and Training is proposing is a system of educator appraisals for purposes of accountability. This theme is discussed later in the chapter (see section 4.14).

The draft assessment policy guidelines show a marked shift away from present conventional practices. The whole issue of a new curriculum projects a new vision, breaks from the past and is futuristic. It is visionary as it realises what is required from the education system by the turn of the century, but much depends on how well this vision is shared by all stakeholders. It implies also that there must be a commitment from all for the achievement of the ideal. To this extent, the State must make huge resources available for the purposes of training and retraining.

Curriculum 2005, a discussion document containing the proposals with respect to curriculum issues discussed above was launched on 25 March 1997. According to Education Minister Bengu, in Williams [1997:vii], *Curriculum 2005* will be implemented in phases until the year 2005, when it will undergo a major review. *Curriculum 2005* has elicited both criticism and support from various quarters. Mulholland [1997a:1] and [1997b:22] is severely critical of OBE. In Scotland, Mulholland [1997b:22] argues OBE is limited to vocational and practical needs as academic excellence is still valued by the Scottish people while in the USA there is an awareness of opposition to the new system across the country. Mulholland [1997a:1] believes that OBE discredits and undermines traditional methods of teaching thus “enabling politicians and public servants to impose their world views and social attitudes to students.” He [Mulholland 1997b:22] refers to OBE as the answer to the “Pass one, pass all” cry once heard at South African campuses.

However, these assertions of Mulholland have not gone unchallenged. Education Minister Bengu [1997a:22] responded to Mulholland’s criticism by saying that it was an ideological assault on the new educational policy direction agreed upon by the broadest alliance of South Africans. He goes on further to say that the country’s “human resource development agenda seeks to ensure that learners are put on a life-long path from the onset, and that their learning beyond school is tightly linked to career mobility.” Support for OBE has also come from other quarters. Waja [1997:28] sees OBE as improving the quality of education while Russel [1997:28] agrees with the principles of OBE but questions the political agenda driving the pace of implementation. Mwamwenda [1997:28] disagrees with Mulholland on the grounds that the emphasis is on the cultivation and fostering of critical thinking in the learner. Jansen [1997b:24] in entering the debate believes that while Mulholland’s critique is “superficial and misguided” his (Mulholland’s) was one of the few “public and critical analyses of this educational system” and therefore a product of a good outcomes-based education.

And yet there are others who are in favour of OBE but are concerned about other issues. Garson [1996:13] quotes Mr. Mongakolo, a curriculum expert who believes while text books should not drive curricula change it is one way of reflecting the changes taking place in our

country. Mr Mongakolo's concern is that text books that reflect the new curricula are not yet ready. Mona [1996:3] questions whether the time frame for the introduction of the curricula is sufficient. He focusses on the time required for the piloting of the curriculum before implementation while teachers need sufficient time and support to help them become familiar with the new curricula. To this extent, thousands of teachers have already marched on to the Gauteng Education Department to protest amongst other matters, the lack of "visible training along the lines of Curriculum 2005" [Mecoamere 1997:1]. The *Financial Mail* [1996:50] while believing OBE is a radical approach questions whether Black teachers will be able to implement it. According to Rice in Williams [1997:vii] the national Department of Education and Training has launched a massive drive to educate teachers about the new changes. Rees in the *Financial Mail* [1996:50] in response to training is of the opinion that the amount of teacher training required will be "horrendous."

According to Freer in the *Financial Mail* [1996:50] the "level of understanding of many teachers will not be enough to complement this approach unless there are major shifts in teacher thinking and attitudes."

Rice [1996:24] questions the existence of a matriculation examination system in the light of the government's objectives of education based on outcomes, skills and competence. According to Rice [1996:24] for many years universities have discounted matriculation symbols because they have been "such inaccurate predictors of academic success."

Die Volksblad [1995:9] report on assessments quotes Professor Corné De Vries, chairperson of Suid Afrikaanse Onderwysunie (SAOU), as saying that an evaluation system that involves many aspects of the child's general development should be the ideal. He goes on to say that in the classroom the child should be treated as an individual, which by implication means working at his/her own pace. Such thinking is in line with OBE.

Jansen [1997a:12] while believing that the apartheid curriculum needs change, questions whether OBE will be able to transform the curriculum legacy of apartheid. He cites the following concerns as being stumbling blocks to the achievement of the goals of OBE.

- * Firstly the language associated with OBE is too complex. There are some 75 new concepts to understand in order to grasp what is meant by OBE. Schwarz [1994] is also concerned about language, but his concern is that OBE uses languages suggestive of the business world and not words that speak of reflections, serendipity and discovery (see section 3.3.6).
- * To the claim that OBE will make South Africa more competitive internationally he states that there is no study which demonstrates any relationship between “fiddling with the school curriculum and changing economic realities in a country.”
- * The reality in South Africa is overcrowded classrooms and underqualified teachers. The question is whether OBE can be successful without additional resource materials.
- * The fact that 30 % of learning time is lost to non-school activities is also of concern. Ramphela [1997:25] substantiates this view when she comments on the widespread abuse of alcohol by teachers during school hours as well as absenteeism. Further, some are holding other jobs or studying fulltime.
- * OBE sidesteps the important issue of values in the curriculum. There is no commitment to combating racism and sexism in society, or developing the Pan-African citizen, or the role of dissent in democracy. An outcome such as “appreciating the richness of national and cultural heritages” could be based on content which glorifies a narrow Afrikaner nationalism and equally, it could valorise, in another context, a militant ethnic Africanism.
- * Management of OBE will increase the administrative burdens placed on teachers at the very time schools are losing the best teachers through “rightsizing.” OBE enters an environment which directly mitigates against the conditions for its success.

Interestingly, Sewlall [1997:24] in his comment on teacher quality concludes that the enemies of change are those teachers who have not “picked up their chalk since the days of the struggle. They are the ones who cannot give an honest year mark for a matriculation student let alone assess each student daily.”

The introduction of OBE is the first step towards the transformation of the school curriculum. According to Handy in Sboras [1996:11] schools need to be re-educated, re-invented and re-designed but change is complex and it is common even “for the most committed to become pessimistic, cynical and critical because situational times lacks meaning and coherence” [Volmink 1996:16].

4.13.1 SUMMARY

Outcomes-based education maps out new thinking in terms of educational assessments and standards. The old traditional approach to tests and examinations is not perceived as the only means of assessing learners. Summative evaluation procedures are being replaced by formative evaluation procedures. The *Model for Assessment in Terms of an Outcomes-Based Approach in South Africa* defines new principles of effective and informative assessment and reporting. However, the concerns expressed by many critics are real and relevant. What is of paramount importance is for the Department of Education and Training to realise that OBE cannot be successfully introduced without also addressing other critical issues. Some of these issues are teacher training, adequate resourcing of schools and revised text book provisions. What is needed is a holistic approach to the transformation of the curricula.

4.14 APPRAISAL OF EDUCATORS

The Department of Education [1997b:55] advocates that the government must develop and maintain capacity for the systematic evaluation and monitoring of educational inputs, processes and outcomes.

Draft appraisal measuring instruments for heads of department, principals, deputy principals and educators, as proposed by the Joint Working Committee of the South African Democratic Teachers Union (SADTU) and the National Professional Teacher Organisation of South Africa (NAPTOSA) were recently submitted for consideration by the Education Labour Relations Council (ELRC). SADTU and NAPTOSA, are two of the major teacher organisations in South Africa. The appraisal documents were researched and prepared by the Education Policy Unit (EPU) of the University of Witwatersrand.

The aims of appraisal which seeks to promote reconstruction and transformation in education have been set out as follows [EPU:1996a:17].

- * To bring about the optimal personal development of educators and thereby enhance the quality of the education system as a whole.
- * To serve as a point of departure from which the development of educators can be undertaken in order to realise their optimum potential.
- * To improve the educative, teaching and management ability of educators through support and development programmes.
- * To determine the competency of educators for the purposes of optimum utilisation, merit, promotion and corrective measures.
- * To determine the success of training and development programmes and, where necessary, to make recommendations.
- * To maintain maximum accountability to all stakeholders.
- * To establish a nationally recognised appraisal system.

The philosophy behind appraisal is outlined as follows:

- * Educationists need to know about the strengths and weaknesses of educational staff for the purpose of self and staff development, so that achievement is recognised. A systematic, planned, fair, accountable and transparent procedure is therefore necessary which includes assessment for growth and development as well as for granting due rewards (promotion, certification and remuneration) [EPU:1996a:18].
- * The assessment of educators is necessary within the context of a non-racial democracy, the legacy of inequality from apartheid education and the economic and socio-cultural needs of the country.
- * Appraisal should be geared towards the continuous improvement and encouragement of educational practice in line with international, continental and local trends.
- * Needs and requirements with regard to development, utilisation and motivation of educators must be borne in mind throughout all processes of appraisal.
- * Appraisal should involve the provision of appropriate assistance and support, the provision of opportunities for self and group development, the recognition and encouragement of leadership qualities and other such skills, and should specifically address the need to engender confidence in educators.
- * Appraisal procedures should recognise that there are different teaching and management styles and recognise all worthwhile, appropriate and effective efforts thus giving due consideration to the multi-cultural, multi-ethnic society educational environment.
- * Appraisal should enjoy the confidence of educators by respecting as agreed upon educational principles, respecting all persons and their professionalism and by commitment to developing educators' potential.

- * Appraisal procedures and practices should be able to demonstrate why and how assessments are made in the context of disputes and close-call decisions [EPU 1996a:18].

The principles underpinning appraisal are that:

- * It should be open and transparent, and in essence a developmental process which depends upon continuous support.
- * It should involve relevant academic and management staff as part of the appraisal panel.
- * It should be inclusive of all stakeholders and its members should be empowered (oriented; trained; skilled) to conduct the process of appraisal.
- * It should inform educators of all aspects of the appraisal process, so that they can take the initiative in realising educational objectives, developing themselves and clarifying their aspirations in terms of their career-path.
- * It should give timeous feedback by way of discussions and written communication to appraisees.
- * It must provide the appraisee the right to have access to and respond to the assessment report.
- * It must allow for the audi alterem partem rule to prevail.
- * It ought to have appropriate criteria to measure the nature and level of the work performed.
- * It should allow for a balanced and accountable assessment within accepted criteria.

- * It should make provision for moderation of results especially for the purpose of merit awards [EPU 1996a:19].

This draft document recognises that the implementation of a new and different appraisal system will have to be accompanied by an extensive training and re-training programme of the appraisers as well as the appraisees. This is necessary to ensure that the appraisal system is successfully and properly implemented [EPU 1996a:19]. Consequently the following training and/or re-training programme is recommended to cover the following broad issues:

- * Changing the mind-set of most appraisers, who have consciously or unconsciously been implementing a judgemental, bureaucratic approach, to adopting a developmental approach.
- * Changing the mind-set of appraisees to accept that appraisal is necessary for the improvement of the education system, and that it can be a developmental and an evaluative process.
- * Developing an appraisal culture which can explain and clearly justify and motivate why appraisal decisions have been made (favourable and unfavourable) to appraisees.
- * Developing the skills, knowledge and attitudes for a developmental appraisal. Skills refers to drawing up schedules, systems and processes for appraisal within a school, district or region while knowledge is the capacity to explain how and why appraisal procedures take place. Attitudes affect the capacity to communicate and negotiate the sensitivities of the appraisal process, that is supporting and guiding the appraisees in the process; and being democratic and efficient.
- * Enabling a system of appraising the *New Appraisal System* to monitor whether it is being effective and successful.

- * Providing a system of re-training which incorporates newly developing international trends in appraisals which are relevant to South Africa [EPU: 1996a:19-20].

The measuring instrument for school educators emphasises the following criteria in the assessment procedures:

- * Contextual factors that have a direct influence on the effectiveness of the educator's teaching must be described.
- * Active participation of the appraisee in his/her own appraisal must be encouraged.
- * The instrument shall be used to confirm probationary appointment, promote in-service quality development, and make promotion service awards. While the first two are both developmental and judgemental, the last is purely judgemental.
- * Four people make up an appraisal team including the appraisee. The appraisee will be able to elect his/her own appraisal team. The team will be drawn from their own school, from departmental officials, members of the governing body and/or from other schools.
- * The appraisee will see the assessment criteria before, during and after the appraisal process.
- * The appraisal will take place over one year.
- * The sole purpose of the evaluation and appraisal process is to benefit the appraisee.
- * Appraisal reports are directed at improving educational practice through programmes of staff development [EPU:1996a:19-20].

The appraisal instrument for heads of department [EPU:1996b] and principals [EPU:1996a] focusses also on two other areas namely in- service quality development and promotion/service award. Unlike as in the past where different instruments were used for different purposes, this appraisal instrument is to be used for all purposes. In the past principals, for example, had an A-form done on the school. This appraisal instrument took a holistic approach to the management of the school and the appraisal was conducted by departmental officials. For purposes of promotion of principals, an interview system was preferred. Similarly, heads of departments were inspected in their service year and the aim of this inspection was to report on the performance of the head of department both as an educator and manager of the department of which he/she is the head. A separate interview process was followed for purposes of promotion. The present proposals do away with different assessment instruments. A single appraisal instrument is operationalised to achieve the objectives of development, merit awards and promotion.

With the present proposals, the top-down approach is watered down to a great degree. Underpinning the procedures and process is the active involvement of the appraisee in his/her appraisal. The appraisee, be it the principal, head of department or level 1 educator, has the opportunity to choose a colleague to serve on the appraisal panel. The rationale for the inclusion of a colleague in the appraisal panel is not spelt out, but one can assume that it is done in the interests of objectivity and transparency.

If this system of appraisal is adopted at the Educational Labour Relations Council it would mean a departure from the old system of appraisals for level one educators, heads of departments, deputy-principals and principals. As the process is transparent it calls for a great degree of commitment and objectivity from appraisers and appraisees. The training of appraisers and appraisees is paramount and should not only focus on skills but also on other noble qualities like truth and integrity. For this system to work, honesty and candidness are fundamental. This new appraisal strategy has much in common with that of England and Wales (see sections 3.2.3.8 and 3.2.3.8.1).

4.14.1 SALARY PROGRESSION NOTCHES

While the documents for appraisal are being finalised at the ELRC, the national Department of Education and Training had to develop appraisal instruments for educators and management staff for purposes of salary progression based on performance. A sub-committee representative of the national Department of Education and Training, SADTU, South African Teachers Union, (SATU), and NAPTOSA was appointed by a research committee to make recommendation in this regard. Any educator, be it a level 1 educator, a head of department, deputy-principal or principal employed at a school who has on 30 June 1997 completed at least 12 months continuous service in his/her present rank, qualifies for a performance appraisal [Research Committee of the Department of Education 1997:1].

Salary progression is defined as the progression from a specific salary position (eg. position 2 of range 7) to a higher salary position within the range (eg. position 3 of range 7) as well as progression from one range to a following range where more than one salary range is applicable, not as a result of the educators promotion to higher level post level [Research Committee of the Department of Education 1997:1].

In this instance also the instruments are divided into two parts, one for the level 1 educator and the other for heads of departments, deputy-principals and principals. In the documents submitted by the Department of Education and Training to the ELRC for adoption, the procedures make provision for self-appraisal by the appraisee, preliminary appraisal by the appraising officer and a panel consisting of at least 5 persons including the principal, appraising officer, monitoring officer, if not the principal, and any other educator at the same school nominated by the appraisal in the case of level one educators [Department of Education: 1997c:1]. The report also makes provision for the identification of strengths and weaknesses [Department of Education 1997c:6]. In the case of heads of departments, the panel comprises the principal and the deputy-principal and in the case of a deputy principal, the principal and

his/her departmental supervisor's nominee. In the case of a principal his/her departmental supervisor should act as assessing officer while the panel should consist of three departmental officials, including the assessing officer [Department of Education 1997d:1].

The significance of this approach is that educators cannot expect to be placed automatically on the next salary notch as was in the case in the past. All educators will now be assessed according to the instruments in place. The instruments not only provide for progression notches, but also addresses developmental needs of the educators. The report will have to comment on areas of work which are good and areas of work that require improvement and the ways in which improvement can be effected. Further, the appraisal also comments on skills and attributes which are strong and others that require improvement [Department of Education 1997d:5]. Unlike, as in the past, the process is a transparent one in which the appraisee has insight into his/her score and can gauge immediately whether he/she will be awarded the progression notch based on his/her performance rating. The message is clear. The educator has to meet required standards in order to qualify. It is the government's way of restoring accountability and credibility to the system.

For this system to work well, as in appraisal of educators, commitment from all parties concerned is vital. The document goes to great lengths to give the appraisee a fair chance and to avoid subjectivity on the part of the appraisal panel. Scoring is done by the appraisee, the assessing officer and by a panel with a view to be as objective as possible. The appraisal panel consists of among others any educator nominated by the appraisee (in the case of level 1 educators). The question to be asked is firstly, whether the level one educator has the skills to perform the task of appraisal, and secondly, whether the level one educator would not feel intimidated by his superiors. Further, one can ask whether the level one educator would be in a position to differ with the other panellists. The other point to be considered is whether the level 1 educator will actually want to argue a point with fellow panellists noting that he/she will also be subjected to appraisal, sooner or later.

4.15 SOUTH AFRICAN COUNCIL FOR EDUCATORS

Another initiative by the South African Government is the launch of the South African Council for Educators (SACE) [SA 1995c:13]. Section 12(5)(a)(xiv) of the Education Labour Relations Act, 1993 (Act No. 146 of 1993) expresses a function of the Education Labour Relations Council (ELRC) as: “The registration of professional educators for the purposes of regulating qualifications, standards and professional discipline of teachers, and their admission to the education profession, but without detriment to teachers in practice immediately prior to the conclusion of the agreement and who -

- * are or were registered in terms of the provisions of the Education Policy Act, 1967 (Act No. 39 of 1967), or any other law; or
- * hold the qualifications for registration in terms of such agreement [South Africa 1993:13].

Government Gazette No. 5497 of 5 May 1995 announced that a national professional registration Council for educators is to be established and the said Council be known as the South African Council for Educators (SACE). The powers and functions of the Council shall be to:

- (a) establish minimum criteria for the professional registration or provisional registration of employees as defined in section 1 of Act No. 146 of 1993;
- (b) keep a register of employees as defined in section 1 of Act No. 146 of 1993 and of every other person who complies with the minimum criteria for professional registration or provisional registration referred to in (a) above;
- (c) establish a code of conduct for employees as defined in section 1 of Act No. 146 of 1993;

- (d) establish a fair and equitable disciplinary enquiry procedure and appoint a disciplinary committee of the Council to perform those functions assigned to it in terms of such disciplinary enquiry procedure;
- (e) determine the nature and extent of disciplinary measures that the Council may take against any employee or former employee registered with the Council and found guilty of a breach of the above-mentioned code of conduct. Such measures may include, but shall not be limited to an order that the name of the accused be struck from the register referred to above or a fine;
- (f) determine compulsory monthly fees payable to the Council in respect of employees for whom registration with the Council is compulsory [South Africa 1995c:18].

SACE has developed a document in which the provisions of Government Gazette No. 5497 of 5 May 1995 are further fleshed out. Council makes provision for compulsory registration with it by all serving educators within four months of the date on which the registration process commences namely 01:09:1997. With effect from 01:09:97 all educators must register with the Council before appointment to a teaching post [SACE 1997:3]. The document defines a code of conduct and disciplinary mechanisms that are applicable to educators [SACE 1997:13].

This is a new institution for most educators and defines a new paradigm to which educators will have to become accustomed to. There is now a mechanism in place that monitors the conduct of all educators such that they execute their duties in a professional manner and that their behaviour will be compatible with norms and standards set by the profession. To this end, the Minister of Education, Prof Bengu, had the following to say at SACE's founding meeting in September 1995.

Today's occasion is yet another step in the Reconstruction and Development of our education system, and the development of a culture of learning and teaching in our sites of learning. The founding of this body to regulate the profession is likely to inculcate a sense of duty and responsibility among teachers, and develop professional attitudes towards their learners [Bengu 1995b].

Given the breakdown of a culture of teaching and learning, especially in township schools, the regulation by SACE of norms and standards will most definitely go a long way towards the restoration of a culture of teaching and learning. It is indeed the first bold step towards this goal.

Significantly, the Department of Education and Training has embarked upon a campaign to restore the culture of learning and teaching especially in disadvantaged schools. In its draft business plan, presented at a Hedcom workshop on 7-9 May 1997, the Department of Education and Training identified the following aims. By the year 1999 the project aims to have ensured that:

- * All teachers are motivated and disciplined and demonstrate this through teaching a full day, a full five-day week and a full-term and by preparing for all their classes and marking all their students' work.
- * All learners are eager and willing to learn and attend school for a full day, a five-day week and a full term.
- * All schools work for their school communities because all governing bodies are democratically elected and communities are involved in their schools.
- * All schools have the basic resource package necessary to make meaningful learning possible.

- * All schools are free of crime, characterised by a culture of non-violence and respect for others.

- * A South African Education Charter would have been adopted by all school governing bodies, teacher organisations and student organisations [Department of Education 1997e:4].

The above plan is a clear indication that the process of restructuring cannot be implemented successfully if there is not the will and courage of all concerned to make it work. Much depends on the seriousness with which all relevant stakeholders approach their tasks.

4.16 SUMMARY

This chapter focussed on the restructuring of the system of education in South Africa. It looked at those factors within the system of education that constitute a changing school environment for school management.

Significant changes have been introduced through the South African Schools Act No 84 of 1996. This Act which came into effect in 1996 is especially designed to facilitate the transformation of South African schools. For once in the history of South Africa there is a single act in place to serve the interests of the South African school population.

The Act is so designed that it firstly translates into policy decisions some fundamental principles enshrined in the New Constitution of South Africa. Some of these principles refer to human rights issues namely non-sexism, non-racism, non-discrimination, freedom of association and the freedom of beliefs. Insofar as schools are concerned some of the policy decisions are not so new (the establishment of governing bodies for example) while other decisions (the ban on corporal punishment, self funding etc) maps out a new paradigm for schools.

The curriculum is being re-engineered to reflect new values for a “rainbow nation.” The rationale for a new curriculum is driven by issues like nation-building, reconciliation, creative and critical thinking so that South African learners are proactively encouraged to identify with the new values of the country as well as preparing learners to compete equally and actively in the global economic environment.

In order to achieve the goals of lifelong-learning, the teacher is critical to the process. The restructuring process therefore has to restore the culture of teaching. To this end, the new educator appraisal documents have been presented to the ELRC for approval.

However, it is not only appraisals that will be contributing to a learning and teaching culture. SACE has been established to restore accountability, responsibility and credibility to the teaching profession. The Department of Education and Training is also actively involved in the promotion of culture of teaching and learning. The plan of action (refer to section 4.15) resulted in the “Culture of Learning and Teaching and Service Consultative Conference” held on 22-24 August 1997 at the Eskom Conference Centre, in Midrand, Gauteng Province.

Lastly, there are some interesting parallels between the restructuring processes in South Africa and those described in Chapter Three. The next chapter details the methodology that will be applied to determine the influence of a changing school environment on school management.

CHAPTER 5

QUALITATIVE METHODOLOGY AND RESEARCH DESIGN

5.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter describes the data gathering process. Since qualitative methodology is quite commonplace the researcher will only briefly discuss the theory and philosophical basis of the qualitative approach to research. Wolcott [1992:43] says:

No one can be 'above' or 'beyond' method, but with the new tolerance for qualitative enquiry, educational researchers need no longer feel mired in it either.

5.2 QUALITATIVE RESEARCH: A THEORETICAL BASIS

Qualitative research is an umbrella term used to refer to a variety of research strategies that have certain characteristics, namely, the data collected, analysed and interpreted is rich in description of people, places, and conversations which cannot be easily interpreted through statistical procedures. Research questions which are formulated, are aimed at an investigation of topics in all their complexity, and especially in their context [Bogdan & Biklen 1992:2].

Qualitative research is context specific, that is, it posits that ideas, people and events cannot be understood if isolated from their contexts. Researchers do not seek to examine phenomena in ways that are context free or context independent [Edson 1990:46; Hutchinson 1990:125; Shimahara 1990:80]. Strauss and Corbin [1990:17] say qualitative research produces findings that are not arrived at by means of statistical procedures or any other means of quantification. In the qualitative approach, researchers are more concerned about the quality of a particular activity rather than how often it occurs [Fraenkel & Wallen 1990:367- 368]. One of the main purposes of qualitative research is to reveal what is inside "black boxes" of ordinary life in educational settings by identifying and documenting the process by which educational outcomes are produced. [Erickson 1992:202].

Qualitative research does not set out to prove or disprove a hypothesis [Bogdan & Biklen 1992:31]. The objective of qualitative research is not to draw generalisations from given data but to understand behaviour from the research subject's own point of view, within the researcher's own frame of reference. Qualitative researchers generally collect data through sustained contact with people in their natural settings [Bogdan & Biklen 1992:2]. To Skeggs [1991:257-258] it is "a site where others can speak and represent themselves."

Qualitative researchers gather descriptive data and analyse data to draw conclusions and develop theories. This is called grounded theory: theory developed bottom-up rather than top down. Sherman and Webb [1990:3] believe grounded theory is concerned with theory generation, rather than verification, through discovery of what the world appears to be to participants and through the analysis of those perceptions of the basic social processes and structures that organise the world. Grounded theory studies grow out of questions researchers ask about people in specific contexts. The data gathered and analysed are contextual because participants are studied in naturalistic settings through the process of participant observation [Hutchinson 1990:125]. According to Woods [1992:381], qualitative techniques can be used to both generate and test theory. Grounded theorists generate theory based on behaviour patterns observed in the field and then turn to literature to find support for the emergent theory. Literature that illuminates and extends the proposed theory is interwoven with the empirical data. However, Wolcott [1992:44] believes that in the absence of "any apparent theoretical link to validate your work or make it seem more impressive, try candor." It is not always possible to find support in literature for emergent theory.

5.3 REASONS FOR A QUALITATIVE APPROACH

This research seeks to gauge the understandings, feelings and attitudes of principals towards the changes taking place in the school environment. Their perception of the changing school environment is the focus of the research. Perceptions can be facilitated through direct

interaction with the principals. In such instances the researcher is the instrument. To this extent, the researcher and research subject are inseparably interconnected. A methodology which employed only questionnaires was considered inappropriate for the research. It had the potential of alienating school principals and therefore could have had an influence on the findings.

Each principal experiences his/her own social reality and since subjects are different they therefore need to be studied individually. In-depth interviews with the principal would allow the researcher to understand and appreciate the world to which the principal relates. The researcher needs to understand the framework within which the principal operates, a framework within which subjects interpret their thoughts, feelings and actions. This approach therefore allows the researcher to develop a body of knowledge unique to the principal being studied and which can be used to develop conclusions about the individual. This approach also allows the researcher to understand the context from the research subject's point of view, such that it begins to impact on data analysis and findings. Qualitative research is therefore concerned with meanings as they appear to, or are achieved by persons in lived social situations [Greene 1990:175]. There is an effort to base the philosophical study of human phenomena, not in the speculation about the nature of the mind or the logic of nature, but rather in the historical and phenomenological analysis of lived human conduct [Giarelli 1990:26].

Unlike the quantitative approach, the qualitative approach allows for flexibility of methods. There are no prescribed procedures and steps that have to be adhered to. This flexibility gives the researcher the freedom to use an emergent design and make decisions about data collection strategies during the study.

Since the investigation is essentially exploratory in nature with a view to stimulating discussion rather than verifying data, the principals' perceptions on the changing environment gained in interviews may illuminate their experience of the changing environment and, as Steyn and Squelch [1997:2] believe, "provide useful information for further research."

To the question whether qualitative findings are generalisable, Bogdan and Biklen [1992:45-45] reply that reporting the findings of a study of one classroom does not imply that all classrooms are similar. Similarly, the findings of this study does not imply that all principals experience the impact of a changing school environment equally but rather the study is concerned with illuminating the ways in which principals react to fundamental system changes in their management context.

5.4 RESEARCH DESIGN

The research design for this study utilises three separate data collection strategies - questionnaire, an in-depth open-ended interview and review of documents. The investigation is qualitative by nature, and interpretive in design within the ethnographic tradition of research [Guba & Lincoln 1988]. This research is concerned with principals' perceptions of a changing school environment within their specific context. Direct participation with the principals was seen as being the most effective way in gaining insight into the perceptions of principals.

5.4.1 THE SAMPLE

Purposeful sampling was done. The logic and power of purposeful sampling lies in selecting information-rich cases for in-depth studies. Information-rich cases are those from which one can learn a great deal about issues of chief importance to the purpose of the research [Patton 1990:169].

The sample in this study is made up of a group of principals of secondary schools. While the management environment of the school at the micro level includes the full range of stakeholders - educators, learners, parents and school-based non-educators - this study focusses chiefly on the principals' perceptions of the change in the school environment. The prime thrust of this research is to determine the influence of a changing school environment on the principals' leadership role.

The greater Pretoria area is divided into area districts and each area district comprises primary and secondary schools. While some schools are private and independent, the majority are public schools. Each district is headed by a Director of Education in the Gauteng Education Department. The researcher had to first obtain permission from the Directors of the N3 and N4 districts to conduct the interviews (see Appendix 1).

While a changing school environment is relevant to both primary and secondary schools, this research limits itself to secondary school heads of public schools as some of the changes in the school environment are more relevant to secondary schools than primary schools. The establishment of a learner representative council and the inclusion of learner representatives in the governing body are more applicable to secondary schools rather than primary schools. Private and state-aided secondary schools were excluded from the sample.

The choice of schools was also influenced by its former department authority. Historically schools were segregated according to race and culture. While discrimination of any sort is outlawed in the new dispensation, the fact remains that not much has changed in terms of the racial composition of schools. The researcher deliberately chose two schools from the former House of Delegates (HOD) (historically Indian), two schools from the former House of Assembly (HOA) (historically White) and two schools from the former Department of Education and Training (DET) (historically Black). Unfortunately in the districts that were chosen for the research, there were no schools from the former House of Representatives (historically Coloured). While two schools that were historically White were chosen, the sample includes an English medium and a dual medium school. The reason for this purposeful sampling of schools is because the context within which the different principals operate in the different schools do differ and therefore the impact of a changing school environment may not be experienced similarly by all principals. There are no rules for sample size in qualitative enquiry [Patton 1990:184] but the researcher believes that two secondary schools from three of the former departments of education are adequate for qualitative inquiry.

Another point to be noted is that the former DET and former HOD schools are located in Black and Indian townships respectively while the former HOA schools are located in dominantly White suburbs of the city of Pretoria. Once the schools were selected on the basis of the criteria described above, the researcher telephoned the principal and requested permission to conduct an interview with him/her after having explained the purpose of the research. Once the principals had agreed telephonically to be interviewed, the researcher faxed/delivered to the school a letter confirming the date and time of interview. The relevant letter of permission from the education department was also forwarded to the principal. Further, once the interview was agreed to by the principals, they were informed of a questionnaire that they had to complete (see Appendix 3).

5.4.2 DATA COLLECTION

Data for this study were gathered by both formal as well as informal means.

5.4.2.1 Informal Processes

As a superintendent of education (academic) from January 1983 to December 1995, the researcher was responsible for advisory services rendered to school educators in former House of Delegates schools in the provinces of KwaZulu-Natal, Eastern Province and Western Cape. As such the researcher had ample opportunities to note the effect that a changing school environment had on school principals. Teacher protests over merit awards, teacher rejection of supervision and evaluation, teacher protest marches and chalks down were accompanied by an increased teacher militancy. This had resulted in many principals who were trained to manage in an orderly environment becoming the targets for teacher anger. Being a superintendent of education enabled the researcher to observe the effects of this changing environment on school principals.

5.4.2.2 Formal Processes

5.4.2.2.1 Questionnaire

A questionnaire was developed basically for the researcher to get an insight into the overall environment profile of the school. The principals of the selected schools were requested to complete the questionnaire prior to the interview. The questionnaire was used to gather demographic data as well as information on the school's academic results, its extra curricular programmes and its global environmental context (see Appendix 3).

5.4.2.2.2 Interviews

Qualitative researchers do not approach their research with a hypothesis to test. Qualitative researchers are primarily concerned with the understanding of behaviour from the research subject's point of view. Through sustained interaction with people in their normal settings, data is collected by qualitative researchers [Bogdan & Biklen 1992:2]. It is for this reason, the researcher chose interviews as the most appropriate method to gather relevant data. The idea is not to generalise these results to other situations but to find out how different principals make sense of their lives. Qualitative research is about capturing perspectives accurately. Attention is focussed upon how principals "capture their reality"[Shimahra 1990:81] or as Hutchinson [1990:130] says "interviews help the researcher see the situations through the eyes of the participants."

Unstructured interviews were used to elicit data from the principals of participating schools. However, in order to give direction to the interview principals were informed through writing well in advance of the interview of the themes that were to be covered (see Appendix 2). The following themes constituted the basis for the interview:

- * The South African Schools Act.
- * Outcomes-Based Education.

- * Educational Assessments and Standards.
- * Educator Appraisals.
- * South African Council of Teachers.

The themes indicated above are seen by the researcher as contributing to a large extent towards a changing school environment.

The above mentioned themes constituted an interview guide which was in no way a structured schedule but rather a list of general areas to be covered during each interview. An interview guide is prepared in order to make sure that basically the same information is obtained from a number of people by covering the same material [Patton: 1990:283]. During the interview the researcher decided on how to pose questions and when to do so.

In order to set the scene, the researcher first exchanged some pleasantries on arrival at the school. This technique allowed the principal to feel at ease so that he/she would be in a position to respond freely and openly. All interviews were captured on audio-tape and later transcribed. The researcher also noted down points he thought were necessary to pick up on. This technique facilitated the discussion and created the basis for a natural flow of discussion.

5.5 DATA ANALYSIS

5.5.1 INTERVIEW DATA

The taped interviews with the six principals were transcribed personally by the researcher as the researcher believed he would be better able to understand the context within which the different principals made certain viewpoints known. The researcher was better able therefore to grasp the subtle nuances. The interview was transcribed in its entirety notwithstanding certain utterances that might not have been relevant.

Knodel [1993: 44] says there are two sides to the analysis of data, a mechanical one and an interpretive one. The mechanical task involves physically organising and sub-dividing the data into meaningful segments. The interpretive task involves determining criteria for the coding of data and the subsequent search of patterns within and between these sub-divisions such that meaningful conclusions can be made. In order to execute this function effectively content analysis is performed whereby the data is identified, coded and categorised into patterns, or as Erickson [1992:217] says one begins by considering whole events, continues by decomposing them into smaller fragments, and then concludes by recomposing them into wholes.

The researcher read each transcript while listening to the tape to check accuracy of the transcripts. Thereafter, the researcher read the six transcripts several times over so as to get familiar with the transcripts. This process also allowed the researcher to pick out patterns which were then categorised as natural themes. As the themes emerged, they were colour coded.

5.5.2 QUESTIONNAIRE DATA

The sole purpose of the questionnaire was to provide the researcher prior knowledge of the school to be visited. By scrutinising the questionnaire data prior to the interview the researcher obtained an insight into the demographics of the school and this enabled him to interact in a meaningful way with the principal. In the next chapter some particulars of these six schools will be presented in a comparative fashion in tabular form.

5.6 TRIANGULATION

The data collected by these two different research strategies were then brought together in the discussion of findings. The questionnaire data, for example, will be used to supplement and add significance to the patterns and themes uncovered in the data emanating from the unstructured interview.

The interviews themselves lend themselves to comparisons. Comparisons could be made between Black and White principals, White and Indian principals, Indian and Black principals as well as comparisons between former Model C schools (former HOA schools) and former DET and HOD schools.

5.7 LIMITATION

In this study the perceptions of six secondary school principals are treated as reflecting the impact of a changing school environment on school management in the country as a whole. Because of the smallness of the sample it cannot be assertively stated that the ideas and conclusions presented here are representative of all school principals in the Republic of South Africa. Neither does this study claim to have identified all the issues associated with a changing school environment. This study, however, is grounded in the assumption that these findings can contribute to basic knowledge of the impact of the changing school environment on principals.

5.8 SUMMARY

This chapter has presented the research methodology of this study. It describes briefly the choice of a qualitative approach for the study. The data collection instruments, data collection, and data analysis procedures were also presented and discussed. The next chapter will present, discuss and analyse data generated.

CHAPTER 6

PRESENTATION AND DISCUSSION OF KEY THEMES

6.1 INTRODUCTION

In Chapter 3 restructuring of schools in England and Wales and in the USA was discussed from the perspective that it constituted elements of a changing school environment. Chapter 4 analysed closely those factors that constituted a changing school environment in a South African school management context. Both these chapters contribute to an understanding of the principal's leadership role in a changing school environment.

This chapter presents and describes data generated through the administration of questionnaires as well as during in-depth interviews with six secondary school principals. Firstly, a brief physical description of each school would be presented. Secondly, particulars of the school would be presented in the form of comparative tables. Thirdly, the significant themes that have emerged from the interviews would be analysed and discussed. The words of the principals are quoted without any attempt being made to correct language. If, however, it is believed that a meaning or remark is obscured, the researcher added a word or phrase within brackets.

6.2 A BRIEF DESCRIPTION OF THE SECONDARY SCHOOLS IN THE SAMPLE

6.2.1 SCHOOL A

School A, a former Model C school is situated in a better resourced suburb of Pretoria. The school is a huge double-storey brick and tile building covering a wide area. This co-educational school is surrounded by beautiful grounds and well laid out tennis courts and netball fields. The administration block is very impressive with several secretaries in attendance. It is equipped

with a telephone and a fax machine. The principal's office is spacious, neat and functional. It is also very appropriately furnished. The school has a well laid out parking area for staff and visitors. The school's property is protected by a high brick wall erected along the borders of the school yard. The school is also well resourced in terms of facilities. It has three laboratories and a well resourced library.

6.2.2 SCHOOL B

School B, a co-educational school, is also situated in a better resourced suburb of Pretoria. As a former Model C school, it looks impressive. This brick and tile double-storey building is well laid out and covers a wide area. The school has a big administration block and one is impressed by the neatness and orderliness of the administration block. The principal's office is neat and tidy. The office is very appropriately furnished and the pinboard contained much relevant and necessary information about staff and organisational details relating to the school's operation. The school also has three fully resourced science laboratories and the library is big with neatly laid out reading tables and chairs.

The school has rugby and soccer fields, tennis courts, cricket pitches and netball fields. The school also has an ample parking area for visitors and staff. The school is surrounded by high brick walls.

6.2.3 SCHOOL C

School C is a fairly newly built co-educational school situated in a former Indian group area. It is surrounded by sub-economic homes. Being a relatively new township the absence of trees and shrubs is striking.

The building itself is a single-storey brick and tile building and is in relatively good shape. There is a small administration block attached to the principal's office. This small administration block serves a dual purpose namely as the secretary's office and as a storeroom for stationery. The presence of shelves containing stationery restricted movement in the secretary's "office". At the

back of the room sat the secretary with a telephone on her desk. The principal's office is of a fair size and appropriately furnished. Both the fax machine and photocopier were located in the office. During the interview with the principal several persons called at the office to use the photocopier. Here, too, the pinboard was full of information about the staff and school. There is one small soccer field that also serves as a cricket pitch during summer. The assembly area is marked to serve as a netball court. A small parking area for about 15 cars is available for staff and visitors. The school was protected by concrete fencing. The school does have a library, but it is not well resourced. Other facilities like laboratories and a kitchen for domestic science are available.

6.2.4 SCHOOL D

School D is situated in a more established former Indian group area. This co-educational school is a double-storey brick and tile building surrounded by sub-economic homes. This is a school of average size and while a fairly sized staff room is located downstairs, the administration block, manned by two secretaries, is located upstairs. Adjoining the secretary's office is the principal's office. This office also was appropriately furnished, with several neat filing cabinets and a telephone.

The school has two tennis courts and a soccer pitch that serves as a cricket pitch in summer. There were several trees lining the parking area. The parking area itself is large, capable of accommodating ± 30 cars. The school was protected by concrete walls. The school is well resourced with respect to facilities. It has two science laboratories and a library well stocked with books and other audio-visual aids.

6.2.5 SCHOOL E

School E, a school for both sexes, is located in a Black township. It is a single- storey building. A small section of the building is brick and tile, while the greater section comprises of prefabricated classrooms. The building is in a general state of disrepair and neglect. There is no administration block as such. The principal sits in a very tiny "office." It is dark, cluttered

with books, files and broken typewriters. It is by no means appropriately furnished. There is no telephone in the office. One does not get the impression that one is sitting in a principal's office.

In the "office" was located a siren that was manually operated. At the end of every period, the interview was interrupted by a child reminding the principal that it was time to ring the siren. Adjoining the principal's office are the "toilets" which were in very poor working condition. The staffroom is very tiny and also in disrepair. Outside, the yard is unkempt. The whole environment is, at first glance, not conducive to effective teaching and learning.

The "library" is very poorly resourced. The "library" is just a small room with empty shelves and no audio-visual teaching resources. Classrooms are used as laboratories. There is no designated parking area as such. Large portions of the wire fencing around the school were missing.

6.2.6 SCHOOL F

School F, a co-educational school, is situated in a Black township. The single-storey building is badly in need of repair. There are no sports fields and the ground is sandy and barren. Litter is strewn all over the school yard.

The principal's office is tiny and can barely accommodate more than two persons. A small table and two chairs make up the furniture. The office has no telephone. In fact, this principal owns a cellular phone which he uses for private and official calls. The cost of official calls are borne by the principal. The photocopier is also located in the principal's office and the interview was regularly interrupted as staff wanted to make use of the photocopier.

The adjoining "toilets" are broken down and unhealthy. Outside, the buildings look as if they could do with several coats of paint. There is no parking for visitors or staff. Pathways leading to the office are sandy. The school is surrounded by wire fencing which was in most places not intact.

6.2.7 SUMMARY

It is now almost three and a half years after the first democratic elections of 1994. In spite of the government's stated policy of redress, the former DET schools are still either poorly or under-resourced. The schools are dilapidated and do not contribute to a learning environment. Such poorly resourced schools impact on the culture of teaching and learning (see Chisholm & Vally 1996). The question that begs to be asked is what the impact of these poorly resourced schools is on school management. Further, how are principals of disadvantaged schools expected to perform under such undesirable conditions.

If the State is serious about improving the situation in township schools, then it needs to commit itself into making more resources available to disadvantaged schools.

6.3 PARTICULARS OF THE SCHOOLS

6.3.1 Student Roll

<i>SCHOOL</i>	<i>MALE</i>	<i>FEMALE</i>	<i>TOTAL</i>
A	659	473	1132
B	426	594	1020
C	282	316	598
D	451	544	995
E	536	577	1113
F	507	509	1016

Table 1: Student Roll

Table 1 reveals that the numbers of male and female students are generally balanced in the schools in the sample. School B which has a lady principal has 168 more girls than boys in the school. The very poorly resourced schools, namely school E and F have more than a 1000 learners.

6.3.2 Racial Composition of Learners

<i>SCHOOL</i>	<i>BLACK</i>	<i>WHITE</i>	<i>COLOURED</i>	<i>INDIAN</i>	<i>OTHER</i>	<i>TOTAL</i>
A	142	984	6	-	-	1132
B	489	494	4	30	7	1024
C	412	-	13	173	-	598
D	424	-	15	556	-	995
E	1113	-	-	-	-	1113
F	1016	-	-	-	-	1016

Table 2: Racial composition of learners

Table 2 reveals that racial integration is taking place in schools that were previously designated for either the White or Indian racial group. School A and B for instance are well resourced former Model C schools located in previously designated White suburbs. Schools C and D both former House of Delegates schools have a considerable Black student intake. In school C the Black pupil enrolment approximates to 68,8% of the school's roll while in school D the figure is 42,6%. One reason for this more rapid integration of former House of Delegates schools can be attributed to the fact that both these schools are located not very far from the Black township of Atteridgeville. In other words, these schools are more easily accessible to township pupils than other schools in the city.

6.3.3 Number of Level One Educators

<i>SCHOOL</i>	<i>MALE</i>	<i>FEMALE</i>	<i>TOTAL</i>
A	4	29	33
B	9	23	32
C	6	12	18
D	12	27	39
E	17	18	35
F	12	16	28

Table 3: Number of level one educators

In Table 3, the former Model C schools, that is school A and B have 75% and 43,75% more female educators respectively, while in school C it is 50% more. School D also has 38,5% more female educators than male educators. In schools E and F while female educators are in the majority, the percentage is smaller, being 2,8% and 14 % of the school staff consecutively. It would appear from the figures given that White and Indian males are not choosing teaching as a career.

This raises the question of the impact of fewer male members on staff on effective management of schools. Principal D, for example, commented during the interview on the lack of suitably trained teachers in codes of sport that are usually managed by male members of staff. Principal D quoted an instance where a female member of staff agreed to “coach” and organise volleyball matches even though she knew nothing of volleyball (see section 6.4.8.2).

6.3.4 Racial Composition of Level One Educators

<i>SCHOOL</i>	<i>BLACK</i>	<i>WHITE</i>	<i>COLOURED</i>	<i>INDIAN</i>	<i>TOTAL</i>
A	-	33	-	-	33
B	2	30	-	-	32
C	5	-	-	13	18
D	4	4	-	31	39
E	35	-	-	-	35
F	29	-	-	-	29

Table 4: Racial Composition of Level One Educators.

Table 4 reveals that only school D can claim to have teachers from the Black, White and Indian racial groups. While school A which has 142 Black students (see Table 2) has all White educators, school B which has 489 Black students has just 2 Black educators. Overall the table depicts that integration of staff has still not been effectively addressed. However, it has to be borne in mind that the rightsizing exercise as well as increased teacher-pupil ratio can have an effect on integration (see sections 3.3.6 and 6.4.8.1).

6.3.5 Number on Management Staff

<i>SCHOOL</i>	<i>MALE</i>	<i>FEMALE</i>	<i>TOTAL</i>	<i>RATIO MANAGEMENT: EDUCATOR</i>
A	4	3	7	1:4,7
B	1	4	5	1:6,4
C	4	2	6	1:3
D	4	1	5	1:7,8
E	7	1	8	1:4,3
F	4	2	6	1:4,6

Table 5: Number on Management Staff.

In Table 5 the number on management staff (that is heads of departments, deputy principals and principals) is depicted. Of note here is the fact that except for school B which has more female members on management staff, the rest of the sample shows that there are more male members on management. Interestingly, school B which has a female principal and more female students has more female members on management. Table 3 shows generally more female members are on the staff than male members. Yet Table 5 has generally speaking more male members on management staff than female members. The question is whether there was a deliberate attempt by the governing body of the school and/or Gauteng Education Department to promote more males to management positions.

This finding is in keeping with the claim made by the Department of Education which stated that “the paucity of women in senior management positions in the education system is testimony to the gender discrimination which has pervaded all levels of the public service” [Department of Education 1966b:21].

When one analyses the management - level one educator ratio, the ratio extends from 1:3 (School C) to 1:7,8 (School D). However, this ratio increases for head of departments, in cases where the principal and deputy principal withdraw from direct supervision of level one educators. In the final analysis, however, the principal is accountable for the full staff.

6.3.6 Racial Composition of Management Staff

<i>SCHOOL</i>	<i>BLACK</i>	<i>WHITE</i>	<i>COLOURED</i>	<i>INDIAN</i>	<i>TOTAL</i>
A	-	7	-	-	7
B	-	5	-	-	5
C	-	-	-	6	6
D	-	-	-	5	-
E	8	-	-	-	8
F	6	-	-	-	6

Table 6: Racial Composition of Management Staff

An analysis of Table 5 reveals that the racial composition of management staff has remained unaffected by racial integration. Basically the status quo is as it was prior to the 1994 general election. However, with new posts being advertised nationally and all things being equal, the likelihood of integration at management level is increased. However, since governing bodies have been given the powers to interview and recommend candidates for promotion, there is a possibility that promotions are likely to be influenced (at least partly) by the racial composition of the governing body.

6.3.7 Qualifications of Staff

<i>SCHOOL</i>	<i>TEACHERS DIPLOMA</i>	<i>GRADUATE DEGREE</i>	<i>HONOURS DEGREE</i>	<i>MASTERS DEGREE</i>	<i>DOCTORATE DEGREE</i>
A	5	24	10	-	1
B	6	20	7	2	2
C	13	6	3	2	-
D	26	13	3	-	-
E	16	9	9	-	-
F	34	12	4	-	-

Table 7: Qualifications of Staff.

Table 7 outlines the qualifications of staff in the different schools. Generally, the picture is a positive one as staff are generally well qualified. These statistics compare favourably in the light of the findings of the National Teacher Education Audit Report [Hofmeyr & Hall 1996:31 - 32]. This report [Hofmeyr & Hall 1996] says that most African teachers holding senior posts in primary schools are underqualified. Over 73 % of principals, 42 % of deputy principals and 56% of heads of departments are underqualified. In the secondary school the situation is not as bad as 27 % of senior posts are occupied by unqualified or under-qualified personnel.

6.3.8 Matriculation Results

<i>SCHOOL</i>	<i>1996</i>	<i>1995</i>	<i>1994</i>	<i>1993</i>
A	97 %	98 %	100 %	97 %
B	99 %	94,2%	95,9 %	95,8%
C	-	-	-	-
D	40 %	91 %	100 %	98 %
E	80,2%	58 %	49 %	65 %
F	63 %	62 %	58 %	52 %

Table 8: Matriculation Results.

With respect to matriculation results, (Table 8), School A and B results are almost constant. School C being a new school has not yet entered any students for the matriculation examination. School D shows a sharp decline from the previous 3 year average of 96,33%. School E showed sharp increase in passes in the 1996 year. The previous 3 year average for School E is 57,3% and in 1996 the pass rate increased dramatically. School F also shows a gradual increase in passes.

There appears to be a relationship firstly between matriculation results (including exemption passes - Table 9) and the learning environment of schools. School E and F, for example, are the most poorly resourced of the schools in the sample and have also produced poor results except for school E in 1996. It can be argued that the learning environment is poor in some schools as a result of physical conditions which in turn are the product of the sharp disparities in educational funding for different racial groups during the apartheid era. School D, however, is a better resourced school and the results have plummeted from an average of 96,33% for the previous 3 years (1993-1995) to 40 % in 1996. Exemption passes in school D also dropped from an average of 66 $\frac{1}{3}$ % for the previous 3 years (1993-1995) to 22% in 1996. This school has a large intake of Black learners (presently 42,61% of the school role) and it begs the question to what extent did the enrolment of Black learners contribute to poor results. If this

is indeed the case the other questions that must be asked are firstly, what is the quality of teaching in Black schools and secondly, what strategies did educators in school D adopt to improve learner quality. The question can also be asked whether disadvantaged learners are taught in normal mainstream situations where lessons are pitched at the academically advanced segment of the classroom. Principal D did, however, mention during the interview that Black learners could not participate in extra academic programmes because of transport arrangements (see section 6.4.8.2 and items 14 and 15 of Principal D questionnaire - Appendix 3).

6.3.9 Matriculation Exemption Passes

<i>SCHOOL</i>	<i>1996</i>	<i>1995</i>	<i>1994</i>	<i>1993</i>
A	31,4 %	34,1 %	31,2 %	33,2%
B	Not available	Not available	37,7 %	40 %
C	-	New School	-	-
D	22 %	49 %	70 %	80 %
E	Nil	Nil	Nil	Nil
F	10 %	8 %	12 %	6 %

Table 9: Matriculation Exemption Passes.

Table 9 reflects exemption passes for the different schools. Notably school D has taken a sharp dip in matriculation exemption passes for 1996. While the exemption pass rate was quite high in 1994 and 1993 namely 70 % and 80 % respectively, in 1996 it dropped to a low of 22 %. In school E none gained exemption passes and in school F the percentages are very low. Examining matriculation passes and exemptions of disadvantaged schools simultaneously, one can ask whether the lack of resources (material and human) contributed to poor results. It does appear that on the whole township schools are still far behind the more privileged Model C schools insofar as academic performance is concerned.

6.3.10 Teacher - Pupil Ratio

<i>SCHOOL</i>	<i>NO OF LEVEL ONE EDUCATORS</i>	<i>NO ON MANAGE MENT STAFF</i>	<i>TOTAL</i>	<i>TOTAL NO OF LEARNERS</i>	<i>TEACHER- LEARNER RATIO</i>
A	33	7	40	1132	1:28
B	32	5	37	1020	1: 27
C	18	6	24	598	1:24
D	39	5	44	995	1: 22
E	35	8	43	1113	1: 26
F	28	6	34	1016	1:29

Table 10: Teacher - Pupil Ratio.

At first glance the teacher-learner ratio (see Table10) would indicate that classes are not overcrowded for any of the schools in the sample. However, this teacher - learner ratio includes all educators on the staff, that is head of departments, deputy principals and principal. Given the fact that management personnel teach for a lesser number of hours per week than level one educators, the teacher-learner ratio can in actual fact rise to 1:40 or more. The point is, however, whether teachers in under-resourced schools will be successful in classes of 40 or more.

6.3.11 Extra Curricular Programmes

School A (see items 11, 12, 13 and 14 of Principal A questionnaire - Appendix 3) has had 12 provincial caps and one national cap. The principal ascribes this success to “qualified teachers as coaches” and “motivation and hard work”. Similarly, school B has had \pm 10 students

representing the school either in the zone, region or province. Principal B ascribes this to staff being remunerated for coaching duties. In school C, while the number of sporting codes offered are fewer there were six students who represented the school. School E although very much disadvantaged offers a fair number of extra curricular activities. Fourteen students in three codes of sport represented the school either at zonal, regional or provincial levels. The picture is not as good at school F. Only two codes of sport are being offered. However, generally speaking, the picture that emerges is that the attention given to extra curricular programmes differs from school to school. Here too, one can ask to what extent did the lack of facilities impact on co-curricular activities in disadvantaged schools. Further, when comparing school E and school F, school E seems to fare better. The question is whether the principal of school E is more creative and imaginative than the principal of school F.

6.4 THE INFLUENCE OF A CHANGING SCHOOL ENVIRONMENT ON SCHOOL MANAGEMENT IN AN ERA OF CHANGE

6.4.1 INTRODUCTION

The Department of Education radically shifted the direction and vision of the education system after 1994 with a series of policy initiatives and new legislation [Department of Education 1996b:11]. In Chapter 4 some of these policy initiatives and their relevance to school management have been examined. The rest of this chapter inquires into how principals perceive the change in their environment and thereafter to evaluate the impact of the changing environment on school management.

Structured interviews are avoided in qualitative research, but on the other hand the researcher does need a set of thematic areas which he wants to cover [Measor 1988:67]. It is for this reason that principals were informed through writing of the themes to be covered (see Appendix 2). However, while the new policy initiatives and education legislations served as points of reference for the purpose of conducting an in-depth, open-ended interview, no attempt was

made by the researcher to restrict discussion beyond the stated themes. The other concerns of the principals are also presented and discussed hereunder. For purpose of easy reference the principal of school A will be called Principal A. The same will apply to principals of school B,C,D,E and F.

6.4.2 SOUTH AFRICAN SCHOOLS ACT

The South African Schools Act, No. 84 of 1996 was promulgated in 1996 to provide for a uniform system for the organisation, governance and funding of schools (see section 4.5).

6.4.2.1 Overall Impression

Generally, the principals are positive towards the South African Schools Act. Principal B for instance says “I have no problem. I believe if you have the right relationship with your pupils, teachers and with your community, then the Act is easily workable.” Principal A thinks the Act is “working well” and that it is “good for education.” Principal F sees the Act as “an appropriate response to the changes in the country, both constitutional, provincial and (in) many (other) spheres including education.” In summing up, the picture that emerges is one that sees principals generally positively inclined towards the Act.

The views expressed by principals in the sample are important because they signify firstly, whether they accept the changes and secondly, whether they are prepared to manage the school in terms of the prescriptions of the Act. As Cook [1996:15] says “it (the South African Schools Act) signalled the death knell of apartheid education by introducing compulsory schooling for all between the ages of 7 and 15 and by taking away the power of school governing bodies to exclude children because of race.” However, it has also been welcomed by other sectors of the community. Nzimande [1996:3], a politician, says that the Schools Act managed to achieve the greatest degree of democratic participation “and that it has the backing of all the organisations of the democratic movement.” There are, however certain aspects of the Act that principals view with concern. These are discussed hereunder.

6.4.2.2 The Governing Body

The views on the governing body show differences of opinion among principals. Principal A and B are satisfied with the concept of a governing body. Principal A says the present governing body is the same as those in former Model C schools while Principal B, the head of a former Model C school adds that being so is a “big advantage for the school.” The principal states:

I think that in the last 4 to 5 years the governing body had a tremendous impact on the school.

Principal B while happy with the concept of a governing body, also sees other advantages in the sense that the school would have a “new governing body with a lot of new blood, new idea(s), perhaps a greater preparedness to offer services and to be of help.” Principal B adds that in the past the governing body was not closely connected to the school and the “job was still done by the teachers and principal.” Principal F while admitting to no problems with the governing body and noting also “there is no school that can go without a governing body” believes the concept of a governing body is a “response to particular political questions and it is a response to a particular ideological decision.” He believes that while it is supposed to be “universal” it is not so in terms of participation in the former Department of Education and Training (DET) schools. Principal F adds further that while it is for former House of Assembly (HOA) schools “business as usual”, in former DET schools, the governing body becomes “contested areas to parents and teachers and students.” The “business as usual” comment supports Principal A’s perceptions of the new governing body. Principal D also believes that a governing body is a positive development but is concerned that too much of power is located in the governing body. Principal E however, is concerned that he has to do “all the spade work” for the governing body. Principal C in welcoming the creation of a governing body, believes it has been given too much power.

When one analyses the initial responses of the principals one sees basically two camps. Principals of former Model C schools are very much more at home with the concept of a school governing body. This is to be expected because with the introduction of former Model C schools in the early 1990s, the establishment of a governing body was a prerequisite. Principals of former Model C schools therefore grew accustomed to working with parents as stakeholders.

The principals in the former HOD and former DET schools have some reservations. Principals of the former HOD schools by law had to establish Parent-Teacher-Associations (PTA's) and therefore have experience in working only with PTAs. The present governing body, however, includes students as stakeholders something to which they have not been generally accustomed. Further, the bigger numbers in the governing body together with the statutory powers that it enjoys do cause some trepidation among these principals.

The principals of the former DET schools experience a different kind of challenge, namely trying to manage the contestations that manifest itself among the stakeholders. The question is how much of this contestation is due to old mindsets that were so evident in the days of the struggle. Essop [1992:3], for example, says that one of the reasons for the crisis in education (in the pre-election era) was the lack of democratic control within the education system. The struggle was to include students, parents and teachers in the decision-making process. The question now is whether the different stakeholders are still "fighting" for control over the decision-making process. Chisholm and Vally [1996:37] found that in Soweto schools, for example, many PTSA's (Parent-Teacher-Student-Associations) members did not understand their functions, powers and responsibilities and had resulted in much conflict.

6.4.2.2.1 Power Relations

The powers that have been allocated to the governing body appears to be a problem to Principal C and Principal F. The bone of contention is the fact that the governing body according to Principal C has the power to appoint personnel to the school. Principal C has already experienced a "little bit of nepotism." He adds further:

You see it's not the person who is qualified for the job, it is the person that they know, and sometimes you find a person who is lowly qualified and who has no experience, and due to the governing body knowing the person they have appointed the person irrespective of his experience.

On the question of appointments and promotions, Principal C questions the appointment of personnel by the governing body on the strength of the applicant's CV. Although the governing body has been given training in interview procedures it is, according to this principal, of no consequence. Principal C adds that in most instances the governing body would not even read the interview schedule provided by the Gauteng Education Department (GED). Further, "they can't even comprehend the questions, that have been drafted by the department." He states:

You find sometimes that the candidate gives an answer which they themselves are taken unawares as they don't even know what the candidate is referring to, and personally, I feel those powers of the governing body should be reduced.

Principal F comments on the power of teachers on the governing body when it relates to promotions. According to this principal, "because of their (the teacher's) literate advantage, parents would prefer them" to be members of the interview and selection panel. Recommendations from the governing body are "never turned down" by the GED as "in most cases the interview committee is influenced by the teacher organisation the applicant belongs to." This principal showed concern that the GED was not exercising any control over promotions.

Further, Principal F describes how teacher politics affects the election of teacher representatives on to the governing body. According to Principal F, a teacher holding a particular view will want to be the one that represents the teachers on the governing body "and you end up with one particular view or practice." Teachers have become, according to Principal F, conscious of the fact that one particular teacher organisation is favoured by the Gauteng Education Department for appointments and promotion posts. The effect of this, according to Principal F, is that "there is an obvious flood of teachers to that organisation."

For Principal D, the Act has not “given a lot of freedom of choice for principals and teachers.” He adds that the Act gives a lot of rights to the governing body but asks about the rights of teachers. Principal C adds further that the requirement that the number of parents on the governing body should be one more than the sum of non-educators, educators, and learners places teachers at a disadvantage on the governing body. The principal argues thus:

Because you find now if the parent body is in the majority then they dictate to the schools and in many instances it is not from themselves. You find political parties tell the governing body ‘this is what you have to look for in your school’.

This principal goes on to say that if the parent member “can’t get his way through, he has a tendency of dictating. He is not transparent and is not productive.” Principal D, believes that because corporal punishment has been outlawed, teacher’s rights have been undermined.

For Principal F, the governing body has become a terrain for contestation for the following reasons:

Teachers want more powers than parents. Parents in some areas want more powers than teachers. But unfortunately many ex (former) DET school teachers are in much more powerful position than parents, as they are much more enlightened in the main, and literate and many parents aren’t literate enough to grapple with ideas against teachers.

Principal D also sees a problem when it comes to voting as he believes they (the parents) “have their own hidden agendas.” According to him the previous PTA at his school used to caucus before the PTA meeting and in the meeting proper “you get outvoted”.

Presently I am not happy with the balance. In fact teachers are not happy with the parent body, with any parent body.

The teachers at this school were “always at loggerheads” with the parent body as teachers believed “they (the parents in the PTA) always came to criticise the teachers.”

For Principal B, the power game is not so serious:

I have found that if you as a principal play open cards with your governing body as to where you are going as a school, then the powers of the governing body as such are really your powers.

This principal's strategy is to meet with the chairman of the governing body prior to the meeting of the governing body so as to get agreement on issues thus resulting in conflict-free meetings.

This principal sums up the power relationship with the governing body in the following manner:

I don't feel I have lost any powers. I feel that with the body that I have here my hands are stronger than what it was in the past, but I think that depends on the co-operation you have with the group. I think your relationship with the governing body and your openness to be prepared to say that your ideas (the governing body's) are better than mine was.

In analysing the principals' responses, one can see that principals are generally not in favour of the power granted to the governing body more especially to the parents in the governing body. The parents are criticised for nepotism, for having too much power over teachers and for being dictatorial in their attitude. Interestingly, these are views of principals of former HOD schools. On the other hand the principal of a former Model C school sees this power of the governing body as the power of the principal. In the Black township schools, however, the parents are at a disadvantage as the teachers are more knowledgeable and therefore are in a more powerful position.

It must be noted that in the schools where these criticisms are levelled, the governing bodies have only just been established. The researcher would like to believe that with time and with a greater degree of respect for and cohesiveness within the governing body, many of the fears will disappear.

In the Northern Province for example the establishment of governance in schools met with resistance. To overcome this resistance, the Northern Province Department of Education announced the initiation of a pilot training programme for school governing bodies among disadvantaged schools. The aim of the pilot training programme was to train parents, teachers and students in the task of administering public schools together with principals [Sowetan 1996:20].

On the question of promotions in former DET schools, it would appear the principals are not far off the mark. Lund [1996b:2] reports on Metcalfe's (Gauteng's Member of Executive Committee for Education) denial of unfair selection for promotion. The MEC was responding to allegations of "underhand intervention by departmental officials", namely candidates being appointed despite having been suspended from previous posts for alleged misconduct and unfair selection procedures [Lund 1996b:2]. If, however, incapable candidates are appointed to key positions in a school the repercussions are obvious insofar as the culture of learning and teaching is concerned.

Further, it places an added burden on the principal insofar as teacher productivity and professional development of such teachers are concerned. The principal will have to develop strategies to bring such persons to acceptable standards. Also, one can ask whether the principal would not be intimidated if he/she knows that such appointments have the support (overtly or covertly) of officials of the GED. Another issue linked to the above point is the impact of partiality on school climate if the principal succumbs to any sort of intimidation. The principal is required to act out his/her role as a transformational leader. The question is whether this is possible if he/she feels intimidated by either the GED or teacher union concerned.

6.4.2.2.2 Parents on Governing Body

6.4.2.2.2.1 Elections

The different schools had held elections for parent members to serve on the governing body. Interestingly, Principal A reports that it was not necessary to have elections as the required number was nominated to serve on the governing body. Although there was no quorum for the meeting, it was not necessary to call up another meeting. A similar situation prevailed at school B, both schools being previous Model C schools. School E on the other hand had held elections on the day of the meeting. It would appear that the requirement of prior nomination of parent members to the governing body was waived because, as the principal says, “our parents are foreign to one another.”

They don't know each other, because they seldom come to school to check progress of children.

Principal F and Principal D both did not have a quorum but because as the required number of parents was nominated there was no need to reschedule the elections. Principal D sums up the interest of parents thus:

That just shows the apathy of the parent(s). They are not really interested.

Other reasons why parents are not interested are because parents have long distances to travel or have heavy work commitments. Principal D says:

We've got a very high percentage of Black intake from areas that are outside Laudium. Parents can't come because of distance, and secondly parents are workers, they haven't got the time. By the time they get home it is seven-thirty, eight o'clock (evening). So when do they attend meetings? When do they really come to the school to attend to the pupil's problems?

Principal D adds that three Black parents were keen to stand for election but because they “nominated” and “seconded” themselves due to ignorance, they were disqualified by the electoral officer. This had resulted in the governing body comprising of only Indians and it is a problem for Principal D as he believes issues will be examined only from an Indian perspective.

Principal C has problems with the elections of parents on the governing body, as “you find in most incidents (cases) the person who should be elected does not stand for election.”

And you find the rest of the house will have to do with those who have been elected, who have no knowledge of education.

To overcome this problem, the principal suggests a questionnaire be sent to parents to elicit their knowledge on matters educational. He believes on the basis of an analysis of the questionnaire one can draw some conclusions about parents’ knowledge of educational matters. However, this suggestion may be in contradiction to the requirements of the Act and therefore may not be feasible.

Principal C believes in his area, “you get under-privileged people” who are “only interested in their living wage. They have to look after their jobs and they cannot give sufficient time to items regarding schools.” This principal speaks also of a different dynamic that comes to play in the more advantaged areas. He states:

Well you will find now there are certain teachers that will canvass for parents that do belong to their own ethnic group.

The principal questions whether a governing body can function effectively if it is guided by ethnicity and sectarianism.

What becomes abundantly clear with respect to elections is the apathy of parents. The fact that there was no quorum at most of the meetings for the election of a governing body is not something new. The MEC for Education, Mary Metcalfe, is quoted as saying that the disappointing turnout of parents is not unusual. Metcalfe in [MacGregor 1997:21] says “the

nature of civics is that a small group of people accept the responsibility to lead. The rest accept that if those people are happy to do the work, let them do it.” At the end of the day, however, it is quality participation that matters. As will be seen below (see section 6.4.2.2.2) quality participation is lacking. In such instances principals must feel handicapped as the anticipated co-operation from all stakeholders is not forthcoming.

6.4.2.2.2 Parental Participation on the Governing Body

The quality of parental involvement on the governing body differs in the different schools. Principal B sees the advantage of having a new governing body in terms of “new blood, new ideas” and a greater “preparedness to offer services and to be of help.” The larger governing body is prepared to offer opinions and suggestions that Principal B did not find in the past. The principal states:

I think because it is a larger group it is actually easier to speak out than when they are a small group. When you’re only 4 or 5 everyone is listening to you but when you are 7 or 8 or 12 or now 17, I find that they are more open to expressing their personal opinion and even suggesting changes.

Further, Principal B comments on how parents in the area are prepared to “pay” but are not prepared to “help.” In order to bridge the gap between the parent community and the school, the principal initiated a new grouping of parents and gave it a name. Such a group met every Tuesday at which gathering all parents were invited to listen to and debate topics of concern to parents:

It was originally instituted for parents who had children with drug problems. What it basically means parents are meeting regularly once a week to discuss pupil-problems.

Principal B has trained staff and parents to counsel parents on their problems. However, there is no link between this grouping and the governing body and the principal is concerned over this.

Principal A is also pleased about parental participation on the governing body. The school has business people on the governing body and “input from them is tremendous, a big advantage” to the school.

Nepotism within the governing body is a problem being experienced by Principal C. The principal quotes an example where the “parent members got together and ousted out people “who they did not like” according to their “whims and fancies.”

Further, Principal C mentions that parents do not understand meeting procedures. According to the principal “they know sweet nothing.”

The fact that parents are in the majority in the governing body is also of concern to Principal C who says because of this fact education is “being neglected and suffering.” The Principal quotes an example where the daughter of a parent on the governing body was appointed as secretary at his school although she had very little secretarial skills.

A similar picture emerges with respect to Principal D. The principal mentions that the parents don’t know their functions:

Most of them have the impression that, look here, they have been given the control of the school and they can actually implement certain things. The parents in the governing body think they have all the powers.

Principal F is also very dubious about parent participation on the governing body. Although the principal is supposed to be an ex-officio member, this principal ends up chairing the meetings because the chairman is incapable of handling meetings. This principal says that even with “training and retraining” he doubts whether the parents will be able to chair meetings:

As I have said it depends on the level of literacy and many literate parents have their children in ex (former) Model C schools.

Principal F believes the lack of capacity among parents on the governing body impacts negatively on the effective and efficient functioning of the governing body. A similar problem is being experienced by Principal E. He mentions that regardless of having a governing body he has “do the spade work.” He adds:

Even the running of meetings, you find the chairman does not know how to run the meetings. You must first show the chairman how to run a meeting.

Principal E mentions that there are former teachers on the governing body “who have the expertise” but because of their job commitments are not willing to take over the chairmanship of the governing body.

From the views expressed, it is evident that meaningful parental participation on the governing body differs considerably among the different schools. In the former Model C schools, the principals experience no problems as such with parental participation. In fact, parents are very much integral to the management of the school.

In the former HOD schools, principals are not entirely happy with parental involvement. Parents are participating but not to the satisfaction of the principals.

In the former DET schools it would appear that parents lack the skills. When parents lack the skills and knowledge one asks whether they are acting out their roles as was intended in the Act. Given this fact the principal’s task in disadvantaged schools becomes that much more difficult. If uneducated and illiterate parents serve on governing bodies, the task of managing the school efficiently and effectively can be problematic.

Capacity building is therefore critical to meaningful participation. This need has been recognised by the education department and all provincial departments are running capacity building programmes to train new governing body members including parents and teachers [MacGregor 1997]. In keeping with this theme a spokesperson in MacGregor [1997] is quoted as saying:

But this (a governing body) is a novelty. A lot of work is needed before parents will be willing or able to participate more fully in the education system.

The fact that the more educated parents enroll their children at more advantaged schools does imply that township schools are denied the opportunity of having better quality parents on the governing body. But one has to ask why this is so? The researcher believes that the breakdown of a culture of learning and teaching contributes to a large measure for this movement of learners away from township schools. It is now time for all stakeholders concerned to restore the culture of teaching and learning back to township schools. To this end, the department of education needs to ensure that more resources are made available to township schools. There must be a deliberate attempt by all concerned to improve the situation in township schools. Such attempts will begin to strengthen the role of the principal.

6.4.2.2.2.3 Educators on the Governing Body

6.4.2.2.2.3.1 Elections

Schools A, B,C and D have experienced no problems with election of teacher representatives on the governing body. School E has representatives from teacher unions and staff associations. Principal F speaks of active canvassing for one particular teacher union resulting in only one particular teacher union's views being articulated at governing body meetings. Even if teachers feel otherwise, they nevertheless vote for that particular organisation as they are being guided by promotion opportunities. If they don't vote for or belong to that particular organisation their chances of promotion are jeopardised. Principal F states:

Usually a particular teacher holding a particular view will want to be the one that represents the teachers on the governing body.

The politics around elections for educator representatives on the governing body is cause for concern in the former DET schools. The idea of partnerships between all people involved in education is at the heart of the Act [MacGregor 1997:21]. If that is so then teacher representatives on the governing body are representing teacher interests as a whole. If,

however, educators are elected on the basis of the organisation that they belong to, the question is whether this will not lead to conflict. Secondly, if only a single organisation is represented, one wonders whether that would lead to animosity between and among staff organisations that exist in that particular school. The concern is also what the influence of a single teacher organisation represented on the governing body has on the principal's management role. The question is also whether the principal will feel intimidated at governing body meetings knowing full well that the teacher representatives are representing a union's interest rather than that of teachers.

6.4.2.2.2.3.2 Educator Participation on the Governing Body

For Principal F, the educators "do not know what school administration is all about, therefore participation is not always meaningful." According to the principal they are elected from "rank and file" to represent teacher interests. In administrative matters they are "completely blank." Another source of concern for the principal is that teacher representatives seldom report back to their constituency. Critical decisions that teachers take are not brought by teacher representatives to the governing body either. The principal says:

If teachers want to go on strike, teachers come in here and say 'our organisation has organised a strike and we are going.' And I say 'well that's good,' there is nothing I can do.

According to this principal the union informs the local labour relations office of its intention to go on strike and thereafter "all laws are suspended unofficially." The principle of no work no pay is "not even considered" and teachers can "strike for a week with full knowledge that they will be paid." Principal F is powerless. As much as the student's right to education is a constitutional requirement, the principal is loathe to report the matter to the police because "the police union is in league with" the teacher organisation. This situation has led to Principal F reacting in the following manner:

No, I have reached a point where I keep asking myself what is it that I am still doing in this mess. I have asked myself that question in front of the Superintendent General. 'Don't you think I am crazy to be in this mess?' I always ask publicly: 'Am I mad to be in this mess. Can I feel comfortable where teachers can leave at will, students can come at nine o'clock and nothing happens?'

Principal D is not too positive about teacher participation on the governing body:

At the moment they are trying. Look, this is the first time we have had this educator participation, they are trying.

The principal then goes to comment on teacher reluctance to serve on any committee, let alone the governing body. In the past three years there were three different staff associations and they all had to be disbanded because of teacher apathy. Focussing on the three representatives serving on the governing body the principal says:

They are not very happy. They don't want to be there because they have to sacrifice time to come to the meetings, and sometimes the meetings are held on weekends. You tell a teacher, 'you know we are giving you a meeting notice. This Saturday there is a meeting'. He's always got an excuse.

It is not only at governing body level that teachers show a lack of professional interest. The principal explains how teachers view it as their "democratic right" to stand up and leave a meeting when they so desire to do so. According to the principal this democratic right creates problems for him as issues are "never fruitfully completed." At the end of twenty minutes, the teachers embark on what the principal refers to as the "silent treatment." This strategy involves not participating in any discussion, as that will only prolong the meeting. When asked why teachers behave in this manner the principal responds:

I would say, a lack of vision, there is a lack of vision, they don't really know what is the demand, what they are really supposed to put into education. For them it's a job. It affects me, as a manager.

Principal B reports positively on teacher participation on the governing body. The teachers are allowed to speak freely at the meetings, and it is “working well.” This principal’s strategy is to first meet with teacher representatives prior to a governing body meeting so that there is no opposition from staff representatives to the principal. Principal B states:

Whatever differences of opinion we have we should solve before we go into the meeting so that we go into the meeting as a united group.

However, unlike school D, teachers in school B do not place much value on democracy. The principal explains that a staff member had to be elected by staff to accompany the principal to a district meeting. This was a requirement of the local district office. When the principal requested the staff to elect somebody, “they were not interested.” The principal adds:

To me it is becoming a laughable matter in the staffroom when I say ‘I am looking for a democratically elected person.’ Because they very easily say, ‘okay you go, you are democratically elected.’ Dissension from the staff is non-existent.

Principal E welcomes teacher representation on the governing body. He says he has “got positive teachers” and they give direction to the parents. He also meets with teachers prior to a governing body meeting so that there can be unanimity on controversial matters.

Three distinct pictures emerge on analysing the principals comments. In the former HOD schools, it would appear teachers are unco-operative and it has become a management problem to the principals. These teachers are generally not prepared to sacrifice their personal time for the benefit of the school. It becomes abundantly clear that a principal in this type of situation is going to be frustrated. What is needed now is a paradigm shift on the part of teachers. Teachers must realise that for the government to achieve its goals of reconstruction and development, teacher accountability and responsibility are critical. The very same argument can be used for teachers in the former DET schools. Teachers need to respect school heads as well as the governing body. The secretary general of the All Africa Teachers’ Organisation, Tom Bediako called on SADTU delegates at an annual SADTU conference “to respect their

principals and learn to recognise authority” [Mabote 1995:6]. To this extent, the secretary general of SADTU Thulas Nxesi, in [Mabote 1995:6] said at the same annual conference of SADTU:

The time has come to sacrifice for the nation. It’s part of the Reconstruction and Development programme.

The principal of a disadvantaged school has several obstacles to overcome insofar as the educational environment is concerned. When teachers begin not to share the same vision as that of the principal and school management, then the principal’s problems are exacerbated which can be very demotivating for him/her. The principals of Model C schools seem to be satisfied with teacher participation.

Finally, it becomes abundantly clear that teachers need to receive training with respect to their functioning in the governing body. They need to understand their roles and responsibilities. It must become evident to teachers that serving on the governing body is no punishment, rather it enhances teacher empowerment.

6.4.2.2.4 Learner Participation on the Governing Body

Generally, principals welcome learner participation on the governing body. There are, however, certain reservations.

Principal A is doubtful whether learners will make any impact on the governing body. He speaks from past experience. This school has had learner representatives on the governing body since the beginning of 1996, and “there wasn’t a big input from them.” The principal believes that serving on the governing body is a new experience for learners and “they are a bit taken aback by the whole situation.” He believes learners do not have the “vrymoedigheid,” the freedom to talk because of respect for their teachers on the governing body. While the principal believes it will go better in the future, he still believes that it would not work very well.

Principal E welcomes learner participation on the governing body except for what he regards as “crucial matters.” He adds however they are very passive on general issues. When it has to do with LRC matters they usually give reports, otherwise they “don’t participate freely.” When sensitive issues are being discussed the principal believes that learners should not be present. The principal argues thus:

If you caution a teacher in front of students, they might lose respect for the teacher.

Although the Act is silent on this point the principal says:

We are culturally bound by norms and values of our society and if you reprimand an elderly person it should not be done in front of children.

However, to date, the governing body was not faced with a situation where teachers would have to be reprimanded.

Principal D reports that learner representatives on the governing body are good students academically speaking, but because “there are teachers also represented on the governing body, they are not outspoken.” While they don’t participate freely at governing body meetings, they nevertheless generally address their issues with the principal outside the meeting. The principal is unhappy over this state affairs and says to these learners:

I say if you have something (to say) you must speak up.

The principal believes that they don’t want to speak up out of respect for their teachers. When sensitive issues arise the learners are not asked to leave. For Principal D this is the only way the “leadership qualification (qualities) of the pupils can be developed.” Neither is the principal concerned that learners would lose respect for the teachers who are being discussed at governing body meetings. The principal sums it up thus:

Look, the respect will already be lost, in this sense, look pupils, they read teachers. They will respect teachers depending on the amount of respect they get from teachers.

For Principal F, learner participation on the governing body is non-existent. The learners do not participate meaningfully at governing body meetings and neither do they report back. On the very week of the researcher's interview with the principal, the principal nearly had a learner's strike on his hands because there was no report back to the student body at large from student representatives. The student body as a whole was angry.

On sensitive issues, there is according to this principal nothing in the Act that says that they should be excluded. The principal "blots out" sensitive items on the agendas that are not meant for learners. This is done so that learners have no prior knowledge of those sensitive issues that will be discussed at the governing body meeting. But the principal believes to ask students to recuse themselves because of the sensitivity of the matter is "anachronistic." He says:

I will always say that the Minister of Education presented this Act to parliament and parliament accepted it as it stands, who am I to amend it in practice?

Principal B also reports that "at this stage they (the learners) are very quiet, they don't say a word, they are as neat as a pin."

They do not participate in any way unless they are directly asked and they always fall in with us. I have had not had any life out of learner members on the governing body.

Principal B has not got to the stage where sensitive issues were to be discussed but says:

I do think that if you do (discuss) some very sensitive issues, perhaps you do the general things in the beginning and then excuse them.

Principal of school C holds the view that the learners must be educated. He believes they have to be given the necessary training:

You know you have to update them and tell them what their functions are and how far they can go.

The general view thus seems to be that learners are not participating meaningfully on the governing body. This is the case in all the schools. From the descriptions given by the principals learners either do not have the capacity or they feel intimidated by their teachers' presence at the meetings. This state of affairs only serves to emphasise the point that training is absolutely essential for learners.

Another interesting development is the principal's reluctance to discuss sensitive issues at governing body meetings. This is, indeed, not an easy issue to resolve. If respect for teachers as well as confidentiality are the problems that principals anticipate, then it only strengthens the argument for proper training for learners. In the final analysis, it is the principal who has to manage the process. The principal has to ensure that the Act is implemented as required by law and at the same time promote a conducive learning and teaching environment. For Black principals, as in the case of Principal E, it would appear that cultural values are being violated when teachers are called to account at governing body meetings. For such principals conflicting value systems can impact on their management role.

6.4.2.2.2.5 Non-Educators on the Governing Body

6.4.2.2.2.5.1 Elections

School F has no non-educator members on the governing body because this school has been without a secretary for several weeks. But more importantly, the electoral officer did not know that non-educators were to be elected on to the governing body. School B has two non-

educator members on the governing body, one of whom is the chairlady of the finance committee. School C has two non-educator members elected on to the governing body. An interesting situation developed in school D. When the principal spoke to the cleaners about elections for them to serve on the governing body the one cleaner said in Afrikaans:

You want me to come to the meeting and do what? To come and clean the room for you?

The principal says because of a lack of understanding, they don't understand the rationale for serving on the governing body. The other representative on the governing body in school D is a secretary who was "compelled" by the other secretaries to serve on the governing body. Out of three governing body meetings thus far she has attended only one. He believes it is good to have them on the governing body provided they have the "necessary expertise." He sums up the situation thus:

You see today even the non-educator, they are here for a job, they just want to do that, and then that's that.

School E has two non-educators elected, a security guard and an administration clerk. Principal A has two secretaries serving on the governing body.

Two points clearly emerge from these views. Former ' Model C' schools experience no difficulty with respect to elections of non-educator members on to the governing body. This, however, is not the case in the former HOD and former DET schools. The reaction of the cleaners in school D deserves comment. It is obvious that the concept of a school governing body is not fully understood by everyone in the school. It can also be asked whether this requirement in the Act is not a bit too idealistic, especially for disadvantaged schools. It would appear that while the intention of the Act is noble, there are practical problems. What is important is how new policy decisions are communicated. The onus is on the department of education to keep the public informed such that suspicion and ignorance are done away with. Such timeous and clear communications will enable the principal to better manage the institution.

6.4.2.2.2.5.2 Non-Educator Participation on the Governing Body

The two secretaries serving on the governing body of School A are fully trained. They have served in the past so it poses no problem to the governing body in respect of meaningful participation. Similarly, in school B, participation is meaningful and one of the non-educator members on the governing body is the chairperson of the finance committee. In contrast, Principal C “can’t see why it is necessary to have such a person (non-educator) on the governing body because he is not given voting powers.” However, the principal does believe it is good to invite contributions from non-teaching staff. He argues thus:

Look we have the cleaners, we have secretaries here. Most of the time we don’t know what is their problem. People are taken for granted so it is nice to know what is (are) their opinions.

In school C, non-educators report meaningfully insofar as the cleanliness of the school is concerned. In all other matters non-educators make no contributions.

In school E, the non-teaching members participate meaningfully insofar as it concerns their work in schools. They report on school security and inform the governing body on vandalism. The administration clerk reports on her unique problems with respect to office work. For Principal D, the non-educator participation is non-existent. He goes on to say that the cleaners are at that “level where the only thing they can do is (say) yes and no.” He believes that the “government is overambitious” in requiring non-educators to serve on the governing body. Principal D says:

They (the government) are not looking at reality. Look it is beautiful. Everybody is participating but in actual fact that participation is zero.

These views suggest that the quality of participation of non-educators on the governing body depends on the kind of training they have had. In the former Model C schools, the secretaries are participating meaningfully. Yet at the disadvantaged schools, the picture is not so

encouraging. The fact is that non-educators are by law expected to be members of the governing body. The only way to improve participation of these members is to empower them, and that in effect means running a series of training courses.

One has also to examine the potential effect this requirement in the Act will have on the principal's authority. Prior to the implementation of the Act, the principal was the "boss". Now the principal has to adjust to a new way of thinking. The principal must now begin to see non-educators as co-managers. For principals belonging to the old school of thought this may not be that easy to achieve.

6.4.2.3 Corporal Punishment

The majority of the principals, except principal F believe that the abolishment of corporal punishment in terms of the Act was not a wise decision. For Principal D the problem is finding an alternative to corporal punishment. While believing that the clause on corporal punishment recognises the "rights" of learners, he asks at the same time about the rights of teachers:

You know teachers are bound. They are bound to such an extent that they become frustrated.

It is because of this requirement does he believe, that teachers have adopted the attitude of just "doing their job". He believes that the cane should never have been abolished:

Today the child has got no fear because he knows nobody can use the cane on him, and because of that we have a number of problems at school. In fact today there is no more child abuse, there is teacher abuse.

The principal reports that learners use abusive language on the teacher and are disrespectful. They do not do their homework because they know the rules. According to the principal, the only other recourse is to talk to the learners, but the learners "take the talk through one ear and out through the other." This principal believes strongly that the head of institutions should be allowed to administer corporal punishment (see items 18 and 19 of Principal D's questionnaire - Appendix 3).

Principal E does not wish to use the cane on the school premises but in some circumstances “we have got no alternative.” For this principal good discipline is a matter of culture:

Because our peoples - you know the way they grew up, they are used to being corrected, but now this freedom you get from the Act which gives them certain rights. I think it is over exaggerated and misunderstood by most Black people.

The principal states further this “type of freedom given to learners is not a safe freedom, it is a freedom that leads to suicide.” Alternative forms of punishment such as cleaning up the school premises, for example, “does help a little bit,” to maintain discipline.

The governing body of this school is playing a minimal role in school discipline. According to this principal, the discipline that was there in the past is no more because of the ban on corporal punishment:

Right now the bell will ring, you will still see them (the learners) talking to one another at the gates while the lesson (will) have started. Where as in the past immediately after the bell has rung, they know that they are supposed to be in the school premises.

The principal says further that suspension does not work as a form of punishment as the parents are not “totally linked (au fait) with the progress of the child at school.” According to the principal, parents have no direction and do not know what is happening at school. To substantiate this view of parent apathy, the principal speaks of parents who have yet to come and collect the previous year’s (1996) June reports.

Principal C disagrees with the abolishment of corporal punishment. Like Principal D, he believes that the head of the institution should be allowed that discretion. He argues thus:

Okay, fine take the cane away from the classroom. That’s fine because I do agree to a certain extent teachers have been misusing the cane, but it should be left in the principal’s office and it should be governed to a certain extent.

This principal believes that by clearly defining a set of rules on the use of the cane, corporal punishment can be managed effectively and discipline would not be allowed to go out of hand. The principal mentions that recent bad behaviour towards teachers and parents is a direct result of the outlawing of corporal punishment. Parents are also affected. He says:

Parents are coming to the school and complaining about their child, saying that they cannot control their child. So how do I control the child? I have to use a hard voice or do I have to use hard language which is again some sort of what do they say improper conduct.

As in the previous school, learners are aware of the rules governing corporal punishment resulting in them abusing teachers and cleaners.

“I think it is a very bad thing for the school at this stage.” This is the opening remark of Principal A. This school experiences problems with the younger learners in standards 6 and 7. According to this principal, students are disobedient and talking doesn’t help. The principal is not certain whether suspension as an alternative to corporal punishment will ensure the desired results:

In fact some pupils say, “oh we will be very happy if you suspend us” because it is a holiday for them. They stay at home and the parents don’t know how it is going to affect the child.

Very often defaulters do not take letters of suspension to their parents so that parents do not know why the child has been suspended:

So where do we draw the line. I feel corporal punishment must be inflicted.

Principal A says it is easier to work with older learners as they are “responsible.” Like school D, teachers are “hugely frustrated.” They send the defaulters to the office and “I am going to tell them (the learners) not to do it again.” As a final resort, the parents are contacted. In order to maintain discipline proactively, the school has adopted a merit system whereby a learner is either credited with points for some achievement or points are deducted for bad behaviour.

When a defaulter continues to lose points, at a certain point the learner is asked to account for the loss of points to the governing body. Together, they try and work out a solution. But the principal goes on to mention that the reason for poor discipline is that “problem children have problem parents.” Finally, with reference to the cane the principal adds “I think that’s the thing we should get back. If done (administered) in a good and proper way, it is very effective.”

According to Principal B, the ban on corporal punishment, “is a pity because on occasions, that’s all a little boy needs.” This principal uses the example of a two year-old child who would do something naughty even though warned not to do it:

He is testing his boundaries and if you don’t take action he is going to disregard that boundary.

The principal says that if action is taken the child begins to get disciplined. Similarly, “if you give him two or three caning(s) in the right way, in the right spirit, it has always worked.” The alternative strategies that this school has developed involves defaulters cleaning the toilets:

So we don’t speak about punishment, we speak about the consequences of your actions. You have chosen not to perform academically. It is our duty to prepare you for work out there, so you will clean the toilets.

However, this activity comes with its own consequences. It has according to the principal put a lot of stress on the staff, because they have got to “organise the punishment routine, they have got to oversee it, (they have) got to do all the paper work.”

Principal F speaks from a totally different perspective. “I support the outlawing of corporal punishment.” When asked how bad behaviour is addressed, the principal mentions two types of punishment. The first is manual labour and the second is suspension as a punitive action:

I mean if you say I can use corporal punishment I will definitely use it. But I have gone beyond that and try to analyse the situation. It doesn’t serve the purpose in the sense that I have a 32 year-old student in her standard 10 year here full time. And if you say punishment, what you’re actually saying is that you must beat that woman.

For this principal the use of corporal punishment is an indication that the principal has completely failed.

While corporal punishment is unconstitutional because it infringes on the child's right to be protected from maltreatment, abuse and neglect, most of the principals are in favour of reintroducing corporal punishment. It is also clear that the strategies that they have in place to replace corporal punishment are clearly not working.

The ban on corporal punishment has also affected other principals [Grey 1977:4-5]. Another principal in *The Teacher* [1996: 16] writes:

I am the principal of a primary school in the Free State. I and my staff have used corporal punishment to maintain discipline in our school. Can you suggest alternative methods of maintaining discipline?

It is clear that principals feel a sense of powerlessness in dealing with poor learner discipline at schools. In the past the principal was allowed the use of corporal punishment and it would appear gauging from the views of principals it helped maintain order at schools.

In one instance where corporal punishment was administered principal-teacher conflicts resulted. Cook [1997a:3], for example, reports on a school where pupils sit idle as teacher's squabble over the principal. The South African Democratic Teacher's Union accused the principal of breaking the Schools Act as the principal is alleged to have punished children for being absent. Tsoari in Cook [1997a:3], a SADTU branch organiser, says because absent pupils are "beaten the following day with a stick" the teachers wanted the principal to leave the school.

While the use of corporal punishment cannot be condoned one can ask whether this action by teachers is not an example of teachers using this incident as an excuse to oust a disciplinarian principal who may insist on teachers working in the classroom.

Rameshur [1996:206] has noted that teachers not satisfied with “increased control over their own sphere of influence,” are seeking to extend their control to the school management sphere of the principal. It would appear therefore that these forces are still at play and thus producing negative pressures on principals and their ability to cope with the changing environment. One can argue also that the disintegration aspects of the pre-1994 school management context persists.

Some principals have implemented other forms of punishment but these need to be reviewed as they may be in violation of the child’s rights. *The Sunday Times* [1997:1], for example, reports of a case where a five year-old girl was given “room arrest” where the girl was isolated in a special cell. Human right activists are supporting the girl taking the government and provincial education department to the High Court. Victor [1997:6] reports on a school that locks the gates against stragglers. According to Victor [1997] locking the school gates has done wonders for pupils’ punctuality.

Clearly a way has to be found where good discipline can be promoted without having to resort to draconian measures. However, it is not only South Africa that sees the ban on corporal punishment as problematic. In the USA, for example, the opponents of corporal punishment have linked the opposition to corporal punishment to the broader issues of child abuse including sexual abuse [Johns & MacNaughton 1990: 389]. The USA had to therefore find alternative strategies. Johns and MacNaughton [1990:391] recommend the following alternatives to corporal punishment. The researcher believes that these models should be tried out as they offer some solutions to the problems experienced by principals. Obviously some of the models are applicable to some schools while others are not. The school context needs to be examined before embarking on the use of a model or models. Some of the strategies are listed hereunder:

- * Behaviour Management Models. These models have their roots in behavioural psychology which have to do with first determining desired classroom conditions and second on a process of systematic application of positive and negative reinforcement.

- * **Classroom Management Models.** These models stress the need to plan management procedures, teach the procedures to students, monitor pupil behaviour and deal with inappropriate behaviour which does not imply corporal punishment.
- * **Socioemotional Models.** These models have their basis in counselling, personality theory, and psychotherapy and they emphasise a positive learning environment and interpersonal relationships between teacher and child. A climate of genuine acceptance, clear and open communication and democratic procedures are emphasised.
- * **Group Process Designs.** These models borrow from the principles of social psychology and developmental psychology and they stress that the central task of the teacher is to establish and maintain an effective classroom group.

Diamantes [1992:233-235] offers the following alternatives to corporal punishment. These alternatives are important more especially for teachers as they outline different strategies to combat poor discipline. The severity of the punishment correlates strongly with the seriousness of the misdemeanour.

- * **Home contact.** This should be initiated at the first sign of repeated serious disruption. One should “calmly explain to the parent exactly what happened and seek support in helping the child succeed in school.”
- * **Time-Out.** A learner that has misbehaved is requested to complete his/her work in another room - in other words he/she has to report to “the time-out room.” This system will work if learners have prior knowledge of this strategy.
- * **Daily Progress Sheet.** Repeat offenders are forced to get daily feedback on behaviour from the teacher. Learners are expected to carry a form to each class which has to be initialled at the end of the period. The form is then carried to the next class.

- * **Isolation.** When a learner is severely disruptive, he/she is removed from the classroom to an empty classroom, cafeteria, or gym under the supervision of an adult.
- * **Work Detail.** This alternative requires “a willing and capable custodian to monitor the student while he or she is out of the classroom.” In such instances the learner is asked to assist the custodian in the collection of litter and trash.
- * **Detention.** Disruptive learners are detained for an hour after their parents have been notified of the date and time of detention.
- * **Field Trip.** An after-school or evening field trip, to the local juvenile correction facility can be very effective in acting as shock therapy to learners.
- * **Saturday Suspension Class.** The understanding is that the defaulting learner must serve Saturday school supervised detention.
- * **Reinforcing Systems.** Positive reinforcement by teachers of good and proper behaviour can have a positive influence on behaviour of other learners.

However, given South Africa’s unique situation, it cannot be taken for granted that schools have the capacity to understand how these strategies can be implemented. Steps should be taken to skill principals and teachers in the management of poor behaviour. The education authorities should seriously consider conducting a series of workshops for principals and teachers on effective management of undisciplined learners. Such workshops would focus on “unlearning” of old habits and the instilling of new management techniques. The alternatives recommended by Johns and MacNaughton [1990] and Diamantes [1992] can also be explored further at these workshops.

6.4.2.4 Code of Conduct

A code of conduct for learners is generally acceptable to principals. But they would like to see it being abided and respected by the learners. While Principal F welcomes the code of conduct, his condition is that it must be implementable and respected. “If it just there to be ignored, it would be of no help.” This principal does not believe in suspension or expulsion because “the moment you throw a student out you are actually creating a car hijacker and we do not want that.” Principal B is positive towards a code of conduct. This principal took the Congress of South African Students (COSAS) code of conduct and adapted it for use in the school. Those students that do not abide by the code of conduct, are paraded in front of the school assembly and suspended for two days. The learners’ parents are informed of the “suspension.” Suspension to this school has a different connotation:

When I mean suspension, I mean in-school ‘suspension’. You are isolated in the school and they sit here in the office under supervision in the office. The staff sends down work to them and they have their breaks separately.

School A always had a code of conduct. It was a part of the school for the last few years and the school is busy with the drafting of a new code of conduct:

But I think it is a perfect thing to have because it is important for the governance of the school. Everybody knows what the rules are (and) it makes it easier for the principal and staff, governing body and everybody.

Principal C is in favour of a code of conduct:

Now there will be order, the child will know where he’s going to and where he is coming from.

Principal E like Principal C “welcomes the code of conduct,” but he has his doubts. He links the code of conduct of learners to that of teachers. If senior teachers do not respect the code of conduct for teachers, then the learners believe that they need not adhere to the code of conduct for learners:

The code of conduct for learners will only work if the code of conduct for teachers is working, that they set an example.

This principal anticipates problems with respect to expulsion when included as a disciplinary consequence in the code of conduct. An expelled learner who cannot find alternative accommodation at another school has to by law be readmitted back at the school. And it is for this reason the principal believes that the code of conduct does not work.

Principal D welcomes a code of conduct, but believes that the learners must have contributed to the design of the code of conduct. When asked whether it will work, the principal expressed his doubts. This principal also makes an interesting observation insofar as ownership of policy is concerned. The code of conduct is drawn up by the present stakeholders for use by future learners. The principal believes that in the later years the code of conduct will be rejected by both learners and teachers as they will rightly claim that they were not part of the decision-making process around policy for a code of conduct. The principal quotes an example where teachers at the school wanted to know why learners should wear uniforms. When told that it was part of school rules they refused to accept the rules as they argued they were not a part of the decision-making team that agreed on the rules.

The general examination of the discipline issue has focussed much attention on the need for a code of conduct. One important reason for the code of conduct was to re-establish and develop the culture of teaching and learning especially in disadvantaged communities [Mecoamere 1996:1, Citizen Reporter 1996:12, Pretorius 1996:4]. Metcalfe in Mecoamere [1996:1] says "schools in many areas are barely functional," and it is believed that a code of conduct for high school students places importance on responsibility, discipline, justice, equity and peace. Nevertheless, one has to agree with the principals that disciplinary steps indicated in a code of conduct must be implementable. Otherwise, it would be difficult to reinforce the culture of learning and teaching: In spite of Gauteng schools agreeing to a code of conduct, a three week-old school boycott of schools in KwaThema, East Rand has affected thousands of pupils [Masipa 1997:3]. In this case it would seem, the school's code of conduct was of no effect.

This situation reflects the frustrations that principals experience. A code of conduct has to be adhered to, otherwise it becomes meaningless. Situations such as these tend to impact negatively on principals' management roles. They may resign themselves to the situation, like Principal F in the sample, and simply go through the motions while the more conscientious principals, however, may fall prey to work stress and burn out.

When teachers begin to question the principal on decisions around school uniforms, they are being openly confrontational towards the principal. The principal is therefore, confronting a new, changing world. The learning and teaching environment has become dynamic. The principal has to either manage these conflicts successfully or allow the school to disintegrate into anarchy.

6.4.2.5 Learner Representative Council (LRC)

Principals are generally in favour of LRC's but are disappointed with the interest shown by learners towards LRC's. In school D the elections for the LRC "went off well." However, because of a lack of interest the students "elected" three "standard 10" learners because they were senior students of the school. According to Principal D, boys on the LRC "don't want to take on the responsibility of organising sports functions" which he believes is a function of the LRC. He believes training will help:

They need training. Two of them did attend a LRC workshop, but the feedback we got from them is that nothing really happened there.

Principal E is favourably inclined towards a LRC as he believes in the freedom of association. However, he qualifies his statement by saying that he has problems if they hold meetings during school hours. In school E, elections for the LRC is a political issue. Conflict arises when students from different student organisations canvass for votes. In the school there are three student organisations namely COSAS, PASO and AZASO each linked to a political

organisation. The principal explains how if a teacher overtly or covertly leans towards a particular political organisation then he/she is either respected or disregarded depending on the political affiliations of the teacher:

This poses a problem particularly to teachers who usually show that they are aligned to a particular organisation because these children (learners) have the tendency of respecting a person because he/she belongs to their organisation.

The principal sketched briefly how the LRC worked in the past where the LRC “believed they (it) had powers beyond teachers powers and they (it) had the right to hire and fire teachers.” In the past the LRC functioned as an enemy of the staff but now “after they were given direction, the present LRC knows that it has to work hand-in-hand with the office.”

Principal C is quite positive towards the LRC. Members of the LRC have been informed of their functions and now that they have a constitution, they have become “part and parcel of the school and they feel they are free.” Previously, according to Principal C, students had no recourse to address their concerns but now with the establishment of the LRC they feel they can approach staff or management. However, it has become necessary for the principal to tell them how far they can go, “as they had the tendency to overstep the mark.” The establishment of the LRC has resulted in the school working “happily with learners at the school.”

Principal B speaks of a “democratically elected LRC” that came into existence at the end of 1996. This group of students was sent on a camp where “they fused together as a group and where they decided on what they were going to do.” But now with the new LRC, the principal finds things have changed. The principal sees a need to inform the LRC that they have powers, as they “don’t really know what to do with the powers.” The principal states:

So as far as actually taking possession of their powers, that has not materialised.

The principal adds further that the present LRC showed no initiative and was not in a position to do things for itself. Another problem the principal experiences has to do with feedback. LRC members do not report to their constituencies. In order to address this concern the principal arranged that the class together with the LRC representative meet on a Friday morning at a

specific time without a teacher being present. The idea was for the LRC to give feedback and to share common concerns in an open and unintimidated manner. However, this was not to be as the learners requested the presence of a teacher. The principal attributes this to learners not taking possession of their powers.

The principal also has problems with the legal requirement with respect to elections:

The problem that I do have (is) with the legal aspect of the elections, in that we may not now elect the LRC for next year.

If the principal was allowed to hold elections in the current year for the following year's LRC, the newly elected LRC members can then at the end of 1997 go off on a camp to fuse as a group:

So I have no problem with the LRC, I just have a problem with the way they restrict us on when we may elect.

Principal A is positively inclined towards the LRC. In fact it is something he has had in the school for years. The difference now with the new LRC is that they have "more functions to perform" and "it is in a more organised fashion."

In school F the LRC comprises some 52 persons, but the principal is not quite sure where he stands as far as this matter is concerned. The principal believes that the LRC at his school is "only wasting time." He adds further:

You got to understand student politics, especially in the ex (former) DET schools. If the LRC does not bring the school to a stoppage for a day, then they are an useless LRC. Then you may end up with a change in student representatives in the LRC.

The other concern for this principal, as it is for principal B, is that the LRC does not report back. Because the LRC did not report back timeously and regularly it nearly caused an ugly incident at school. The students were angry with the LRC as they believed it was not effective in representing their interests. This nearly led to a shut-down of the school. The principal had to

muster up all his communication skills to persuade learners not to embark on strike action. For this principal student participation on the governing body or in the LRC is more symbolic than anything else.

Seth Maduna in Sentsho [1996:3] seems to confirm Principal F's views on a disruptive LRC. He says the problem of discipline in schools is exacerbated by the way students elect their representatives. When students elect they go "for the ones who have proven to have total disregard for authority." A member of LRC, Owen Lejane, in Sentsho [1996:3] says:

It is true that some SRC's (LRC's) are just there to disrupt whatever the authorities are doing. But we also have very little disciplinary control over the students who elect us into office.

An analysis of principal's views on the LRC reveals a core problem, namely a lack of training. This lack of training of LRC members has resulted in LRC members not knowing how to empower themselves. If the LRC is not meaningfully engaged in the governing body, the effectiveness of the governing body is called into question. Chisholm and Vally [1996:37] say that by and large, "the PTSA (now governing body) members do not understand their functions, powers and responsibilities." This has the potential of "undermining the administration and running of schools at the level of discipline, relations with the community, synergy between management, teachers, parents, pupils and relations with the structures of the Department of Education."

The question of organisational conflicts is not new especially in former DET secondary schools. Chisholm and Vally [1996:1] say that learning and teaching collapsed because there were among other reasons "tensions between rival organisations and between all elements of the school community." The rationale for the establishment of LRC's needs to be revisited and understood by all parties. Otherwise the potential for conflict in former DET schools will be heightened further weakening principals' ability to manage their schools effectively.

6.4.2.6 Language Policy

The feelings of the greater number of principals with respect to the medium of instruction is that English be given preference. Principal C is quite forthright and says:

I feel the medium of instruction must be English. English should be the universal language of all schools. Definitely. So there's a common language throughout South Africa.

The principal believes that the student population should decide on a second language:

If the children are in majority Afrikaans, that would be the second language why not?

This school does not have a language policy and the governing body has not yet engaged in language policy development. This school continued making use of past policy on the medium of instruction:

We just carried on from the ex (former) House of Delegates, we found it works.

Individual students who want to be taught through the medium of a particular language is not possible. The principal feels it won't be viable because "we wouldn't have the number for it," and there won't be a "teacher available most of the time."

School A is a dual medium school. Students are taught through the medium of Afrikaans or English. This school is registered as a parallel medium school by the Gauteng Education Department, which indicates there is a language policy at the school. However, this policy has been in existence from 1995, and was decided upon by a previous governing body that was established through the act governing Model C schools. The principal is not quite sure how the new governing body will react to the existing language policy.

School E has developed a language policy. While the medium of instruction is English, there are three second languages that were “inherited from the past.” The principal believes while it is a good thing to be taught in the mother-tongue it is however, in practice, not possible.

School F does not have a language policy. The medium of instruction is English in all subjects from standard 6 to standard 10. The principal believes teaching through the medium of English “is a terrible obstacle.” The principal is keen on mother- tongue instruction, “but unfortunately our languages were not allowed to develop to a point to take up its position against English and Afrikaans.” English, according to the principal, is the third language for the learners as well as for teachers. Further, students are expected to write examinations in their third language which is not easy for learners.

School B has English as the language of instruction and offered Tswana as a second language in place of Afrikaans, but because of there being so few takers in standard 8 it had to be dropped. Interestingly, the school offered Sotho as an academic subject, but here too there were no takers. When asked what the school's reaction would be to admission of a learner who is not proficient in English, the principal replied that such learners were not denied admission. This principal believes, like Principal C, in a common language of instruction:

I think that it is a terrible thing to force English from pre-primary right through to matriculation, because I think that will be disaster for the colloquial (vernacular) languages, but educationally I think that might be the solution.

Principal D also believes that English should be made the official language of instruction. Trying to cater for all language groups will according to this principal require additional teachers. Presently with the increased teacher-learner ratio and living with the consequences of the “rightsizing” exercise, schools would not be able to cope with language demands insofar as medium of instruction is concerned.

The issue of a medium of instruction is an emotional one and has already led to much controversy among schools (see section 4.7). The policy states that if a school offers learning and teaching in the language chosen by the learner and it has a place it has to admit the learner. However, Bengu in Mercury Correspondent [1997a:1] admits while the policy's ultimate objective was "to provide education in all subjects in all pupil's preferred language," this "would take many years."

With respect to African languages, Ramphele [1997:25] seems to be in agreement with Principal F when she says:

It is difficult to imagine how one acquires second and third language competence academically if one has not learned those skills in one's first language.

The National Education Policy Investigation (NEPI) (1993) says:

The findings of comparative studies and other research into the role of language has challenged popular perceptions about apparently obvious solutions to the problems of existing education policies. A possible solution, popular among those severely disadvantaged by current policies, is to have one lingua franca (English) and to ensure access to it by making it not only a compulsory subject of study, but also the medium of instruction from the first year of school.

The majority of the principals in the sample opt for English as the medium of instruction which is also the recommendation of researchers who participated in the National Education Policy Investigation [NEPI: 1993]. Nevertheless, it must be remembered that learners have their constitutional rights as well and they can demand to be taught in the language of their choice. The other point to be borne in mind is the pressure that will be brought to bear upon governing bodies to develop policies that will be acceptable to all learners. Further, this important decision on language policy has to be taken in the light of diminishing resources, both material and human. The potential impact of this on the principal's role also has to be considered. While the principal may be keen to meet the needs of his/her school community, practical problems may dampen his/her enthusiasm.

6.4.2.7 School Funding and School Fees

The payment of school fees and fundraising enjoys different emphasis in the different schools. In school A, in cases where parents cannot afford school fees, the parents are asked “to pay a small percentage or just pay something” depending on their financial situation. But the non-payment of fees is a problem for school A. In the previous year the school had over R500,000 outstanding, resulting in a cutback on spending on sport and culture:

We got a budget that we work from and we draw up a budget. We know the things (how much) we are not going to get. We work our expenditure according to that, but the main principle at our school is that education comes first and if there's no money for other things, it gets chopped.

Principal A is positive about fund raising as required by the Schools Act:

I think it's a very sound system. I think it is working well. Go look at all the Model C schools. There are lots of parents who can pay and it is working.

Principal E says that generally the governing body is not involved in fund raising. The school relies on traditional means of fund raising namely raffles and/or film shows. But the principal believes the governing body has “got to function properly if the improvement of schools is going to be a priority.” Principal E also believes that it is a positive step to get schools to raise their own funds, but believes in all fairness there should be a distinction between “advantaged and disadvantaged schools.” He says the government should play a bigger role in disadvantaged schools by deliberately and purposefully “improving facilities.” The fact that White schools have halls, is according to the principal a facility that can be used to the advantage of the school. If the department of education were to build halls for disadvantaged schools, then halls can be used “creatively” to fund-raise.

Parental involvement in fundraising is also questioned by this principal. The principal believes that the Act has “weakened” parents, “in the sense they now believe everything has got to be done for them.” The principal says:

You take the situation like school funds. There's been a lot of laxity from the Act. Such funds is (are) not a prerequisite. The problem is the way our people are interpreting it is quite different. Even those parents who are able to pay, they don't want to take out anything, but when they take their children to White schools, they are prepared to pay up to a thousand (rands) or more, but they fail to pay a simple R50.00 a year.

This principal believes parents operate under a misconception believing that because it is "their government" they don't have to pay. When questioned why parents are willing to pay at White schools, the principal responds thus:

Our schools were disadvantaged from the beginning. The buildings for example are not up to standard as compared to our White counterparts and as a result you find that when I say 'you must pay school fund,' they look at the building. They think the building is being built by us (the school). Those buildings (the White schools) are being built by White teachers and principals. In White schools they see the facilities and they know what they are paying for, but here the facilities are not there, so they don't understand what they are paying for.

School F is not strict on fees. Unpaid fees are written off because there is "absolutely nothing" the school can do. The amount asked for is R30,00 per annum, but it is not forthcoming. Such a situation affects the school's budget:

By May - June we run out of money. Like as it is now I am running this school out of my pocket. I'll get my money at the beginning of next year. I must make out a personal cheque to the supermarket otherwise we will not have what we got here.

The school managed to raise R20,000 for the year, but after having to settle the previous year's debts, (the purchase of a computer and getting the school painted), there is no money left:

Then we have no money, but the school can't come to a standstill. What I can afford, I buy. At the beginning of the (following) year they pay me back from school funds. And we start off with a deficit, right from the beginning of the year.

With reference to the requirement in the Act concerning fund raising, Principal F believes, like Principal E, that it is unfair:

It is unfair in the sense that the government is deliberately blind to the disparities that existed before in terms of development, attributes etc.

The parents, according to this principal, believe that they should not pay for education as that is the responsibility of the government which is different to White parents who say “government must pay for education but we are prepared to go an extra mile.” For this principal, asking schools to raise their own funds, in actual fact means “Model C schools should remain better schools.” He believes it won’t be as easy to raise funds in Black communities as it is in White communities.

This principal felt so strongly about township schools that he began to communicate with the Gauteng Education Department over the issue. He asked the GED to “declare township schools as disaster areas” so that more monies could be pumped into township schools:

I spoke to the President (President Mandela) about that. He doesn't want to do that. You are dealing here with a government that does not want to govern.

This principal does not expect to raise anything more than R3000 a year through community involvement. The school has no relationship with the private sector and the learners are “completely negative as far as raising of monies is concerned.”

Principal C conducts a thorough investigation before learners are exempted from payment of school fees. However, the principal adds that the school cannot depend on fund raising and donations from the public because “people do get fed up.” The principal is quite critical of fund raising as required by the Act:

How much can we fund-raise? How far can we go? We have got to take the earning power of parents of the area (into consideration).

The principal also states that because the private sector is “fed up” as they are “taxed all the time,” the government must play a greater role. This principal thinks the government is shirking its duties. He asks why now “all of a sudden” certain expenses have to be borne by the school.

He argues thus:

I got (have) a very poor underprivileged community. Many of the people living here by my school is (are) living from hand to mouth. Husband and wife are not working. There wouldn't be food at home. So I personally feel the government must continue funding the schools.

Principal B budgets with the understanding that a “certain percentage of pupils will not be able to pay.” Principal B does not believe in fund raising. According to the principal:

When you start functions like that you load your teachers. You have a feté. Who does the job? The teachers. And quite frankly, I think the teachers are loaded enough, that's a personal opinion, that's not necessarily the reason why we do not have fetés at this school, because that decision was taken before I became principal of this school. I am partly in agreement with it. Even the PTA's used to make very good money with the raffles but who did the work? The teacher.

This school has worked out an effective system to collect fees, and when a parent defaults, the matter is handed over to an attorney:

But if we hand over 5 a year, then that's it. We have communicated with parents. We will only take action if this parent has ignored our 12 letters or 20 or 30 letters a year.

This principal has definite views on the costs of education:

I don't think our country will ever be able to supply education to the entire population. If we could go back to 30/20 kids in the classroom that will be marvellous, but we do not have the resources. We will never have that (those) resources, not in the next 20 years, unless something drastic happens.

In school D fundraising has not taken off. The principal says that while the governing body is there for a specific reason namely “to uplift the school” it is not so in reality:

Now, here, I don't have the idea that they (the governing body) want to uplift the school's education. They are more interested in: Is this thing being done? Is that being done?

The teachers of the school according to Principal D "come from the old stock." Because they have been "too long with the House of Delegates, they feel education must be provided by the state." Like Principal C, Principal D believes "the government is getting away with a very important responsibility." In some schools there are "trained parents, well equipped" to fund-raise. This is not true for school D:

But in our schools we have disadvantaged pupils whose parents will never have the time to assist the school in raising funds.

Like principal F, this principal advocates positive discrimination:

I feel the State should control this idea of who should get more, subsidised more, and also should be subsidised less.

From an analysis of the principals' perceptions two points emerge. First, the non-payment of fees negatively affects the activities of schools. Second, there is a widespread belief that the State is shirking its responsibilities towards the disadvantaged by requiring disadvantaged schools to raise their own funds. The fact that parents are resisting the payment of fees is becoming quite commonplace. Bissetty [1997:8], for example, reports on parents in the province of Kwazulu-Natal who have held mass meetings to fight financial responsibilities that have been passed on to them by the State.

Former HOD and DET schools are not accustomed to fund-raising on a large scale as was the case in former Model C schools. These schools relied heavily on the State to provide funds for their day-to-day management needs. This requirement in the Act changes the position. These principals are now required to raise the funds together with assistance of the governing body. They do not have the experience in large scale fund-raising which shows in their comments.

With reference to government responsibility for education financing, Chisholm and Vally [1996:49] say that if the schools resources are not “supplemented by public funding, alienation will grow.” They believe these schools (disadvantaged) must be “given priority in the proposed index of needs calculations and the education redress fund” [Chisholm & Vally 1996:49].

The situation at the disadvantaged schools gets worse because parents appear to operate under a misconception. They further expect the government to take sole responsibility for the education of their children. Ben Parker [1997] in an address to a COLTS (Culture of Learning and Teaching and Service) consultative conference says that while the new democracy is trying to “empower us we seem to have become disempowered.” Part of the problem, says Parker, is “the dependency on the state created by apartheid persists.” He says:

We have moved from a culture of dependent domination under apartheid to a culture of dependent entitlement under democracy. One damaging aspect of this continuing dependency is that many people interpret democracy as being primarily about rights. They have rights and entitlements to everything. They forget that rights are linked to duties, entitlement is linked to achievement, and that the freedom of democracy is linked to discipline.

Principals are placed in a predicament when school fees are not paid. The action to be taken has to be carefully considered. In one school [Rickard 1997:1], the school punished the child as the parents had not paid the school fees. The child was “banished to the corridor” whenever the rest of class had lessons in art, music, library and computers. Lawyers acting on behalf of the parents claimed that the school had no legal power to punish the child as it was doing. Besides being discriminatory because children of poor families are treated differently, the school is violating the principle of compulsory education [Rickard 1997:1]. Clearly then principals will have to think of other more creative ways of getting school fees paid.

John Rawls in [Moulder 1991:63] . a distinguished professor at Harvard University has developed the theory of distributive justice. He argues that it is not unfair to distribute public

funds unequally and sometimes it may be wise to do so [Moulder 1991:63]. It would seem therefore, given the undesirable conditions especially at Black township schools, the state needs to intervene to expedite redress.

Expecting the Black schools to generate their own funds to reconstruct/improve their schools may not be the ideal solution to the problem. In the final analysis the differences between advantaged and disadvantaged schools will be further exacerbated and the seeds of conflict will thrive under such circumstances.

To this extent the minimalist gradualist approach model may be applied. This equity model emphasises equity and redress, and aims to improve the poorest schools. All schools would be encouraged to raise funds, but there would not be compulsory school fees [SADTU News 1996b:1]. The fact is some schools are better resourced than others. The disparities are historical ones. It is therefore encouraging to note that the Department of Education and Training will be using the information indicated by *The School Register of Needs* to find the best way to distribute finances more evenly and point budgets to redress [Cooke 1997b:15].

However, there seems to be also among the disadvantaged a misconception about their role in school funding. It would appear Black parents believe that it is the responsibility of the State to provide all the necessary resources for the schools. This type of a perception is dangerous and can lead to conflict. What is needed now is an active campaign by the authorities to inform the parent community about the SA Schools Act. The media namely television, radio and the print media can be effectively used to spread the message.

The national Department of Education and Training is "hard at work devising a formula to determine the probable income of fee dodgers based on observable household characteristics" [Pretoria Correspondent 1997:6]. This proposal for national norms and standards for school funding, is set to bring about drastic change to the school funding system. According to Cooke [1997b:15] the regulations set guidelines for the charging of fees:

“Under the system, the parent body will make the decisions about what the school should charge and who should be exempt, but the department sets the scales for exemptors.”

In cases where parents are unable to pay the fees, they will be assisted by the State.

However, while the researcher believes that the State can do more by way of redress in disadvantaged schools, the governing bodies of these schools need to be trained in fundraising strategies. The State does not have unlimited resources and the school community must begin to assume a greater role in the funding of schools.

6.4.2.8 Open Enrolment

Almost all principals were of the opinion that if there was accommodation in their schools then learners will be admitted. But learners in the immediate school feeder area would be given first preference. Principal D was asked to comment on the abolishment of tests (as practised in the past) as a pre-condition for admission:

I am not against testing for the pupil's sake. Yes it (testing) has merits.

This principal believes testing will allow for correct placement. The principal would prefer placing him in a lower standard and “let him develop” instead of “placing him in a standard where he is going to spend two or three years without progress.” Principal D adds further that disadvantaged children are disadvantaged even further as they are going to be at a “complete loss,” in trying to cope with the demands of that particular grade. According to the principal, teachers also experience problems with a number of pupils “who should never be in a particular standard.”

School B had previously conducted tests for admission purposes but not any more. Once the pupils have been accepted, “all the std 6's write tests, but that is just for grading purposes.” Pressed for views on testing, the principal says:

I can understand why we did it. We had no idea of the implications of opening up the school. I think everybody was scared. I know that we were scared. Is it going to work? What was going to happen to standards? So lets select.

Principal C believes it is unfair to ask learners from disadvantaged areas to write tests for admission purposes, as “education is not on (at) the same level” in all areas. To this principal, disadvantaged learners should be admitted and placed and thereafter, the school should decide on strategies on how best to help such learners.

When principal F was asked to comment on enrolment policy, the principal made an interesting observation:

The Act was actually supposed to deal with Model C schools and that is what the Act is doing. Our schools are running without an Act, that is paramount.

This principal criticised the Act in the sense that it affords the governing body powers to develop its own admission policies. Because the governing body is allowed to develop its own admission policy the department of education has “gone back to what they used to do in the past, that is zoning.” Testing, according to this principal was an indirect way of limiting the numbers of other racial groups attending former Model C schools.

From these views it is evident that the principals are generally keen to admit learners as long as there is accommodation available at their schools. However, it would appear that school principals give first preference to pupils living in the immediate feeder area of the school.

The principals do all agree that testing for admission purposes is not necessary and unhelpful given the context in which apartheid education operated. But teachers are experiencing difficulties with learners from disadvantaged schools. This is to be expected. Parker [1997] distinguishes between working class learners and middle class learners. For working class learners “life is spent on the street rather than in the home. Much time is spent securing the basic needs of life.” Parker [1997] concludes that the “exclusion of the working class from access to the out of school environment of a middle class learner, directly affects their

performance at school.” This view is also echoed by Khasana in Ntabazaula [1996:5] who says that while the attitude of teachers and students had to change, social and economic problems have also contributed to the poor performance of pupils, and many of them “had to travel long distances by train and often arrived late for classes” a point also mentioned by Principal D (see Appendix 3).

However, for principals especially of the more advantaged schools, the admission of disadvantaged learners poses several challenges which have to be managed. Under the previous system of education the school comprised a homogeneous grouping with similar cultures, standards and upbringing. The opening up of schools to other races changes the situation. In any one class there will be learners of different cultures and abilities. Learners from advantaged schools will on average be better equipped, unlike learners from disadvantaged environments. The principal has to promote effective learning among the disadvantaged through deliberate interventionist strategies. Further, an added challenge will be to promote multiculturalism and nation-building especially among a school population that was divided in the past. The principal will also now be required to interact with parents of learners other than White and that also creates a new paradigm for principals.

6.4.2.9 Freedom of Conscience

Most of the principals interviewed experience no problems with this requirement of the Act. Principal B, for example, has made arrangements in the school to cater for the religious beliefs of students who are not Christian. School assemblies are usually begun with a Christian prayer and provisions are made for those pupils who refuse to attend on religious grounds. Such learners are normally accommodated in the media centre, or sometimes wait in the foyer until the religious part of the assembly was over. When asked whether these arrangements impact on tone and management of the school, Principal B responds thus:

Look, I am openly Christian in my assemblies, in the sense that I speak openly about God and Christ and my beliefs. But, I will never say if you don't go this way you've had it because that is dogma, you can't do that.

This principal also believes there are non-believers at school and but they are not “preached to,” rather the head prays for them. Even at staff meetings, the principal doesn’t insist that non-Christians need to be present when the meeting is being opened with a prayer. A similar view was expressed by Principal F:

Personally, I am a heavily irreligious person, and we hold assemblies in the mornings as an administrative act of control.

The principal is also cognisant of other religious groupings in the school and they are allowed to practise their faiths. When asked about the values that govern the school the principal responds thus:

I think I don't want to say we have any one particular value system. Our first aim is success. Whatever we do is geared towards achieving success at the end of year. That’s what drives us. Values are all grounded in our quest for success.

Principal E says he has “a slight problem” with “freedom of conscience” clause in the Act. There are different beliefs as well as common beliefs in the school community and this principal respects that. However, it is with school management that he is concerned:

Teachers can say 'I cannot be on the list of teachers who are in charge of assembly.'

This principal is concerned that teachers are going to refuse to conduct the prayer at assemblies. Such reactions he believes can undermine his authority in the school. The principal adds while believing in freedom of choice, in an “institution run on a set of values, it is difficult to excuse some persons” because of their beliefs.

Principal D, too believes there should be freedom of religion and agrees with the relevant clause in the Act:

Every person should be allowed to practise his own religion.

In school D, to meet the challenges and “difficulties” posed by different faiths, the assembly is begun with a universal prayer, and “if teachers on Monday mornings feel” that they are in “a religious mood” then they handle the prayer. Like Principal B, Principal D excuses those who object to prayer meetings as a matter of conscience. There were, for example, some 7th Day Adventists who would not pray with the whole school during the assemblies and they were excused. Such children join the assembly after the prayer. The teachers at this school however, have not requested to be excused from assemblies because of the nature of the prayer. Because the prayer is “universal” in character it is acceptable to teachers.

Principal C, like Principal D, “totally” agrees with the Act:

Freedom of thought should be given (allowed) and be respected.

On the impact of this provision on school management, the principal says:

We must respect their views. If they feel they must be excused then they are.

Assemblies are begun with a neutral prayer such that it “accommodate(s) and suit(s) each and everyone's culture and religion.”

School A also has also experienced problems with this requirement of the Act:

We are a Christian school. That's our policy, but we recognise the beliefs of certain children.

However, learners that do not want to attend religious study periods are not forced to do so. But Principal A sees this requirement in the Act causing problems in the future with respect to school management. He believes that non-attendance at assemblies by teachers can impact on the tone and management of the school.

Freedom of conscience is enshrined in the new Constitution of the Republic of South Africa. It would appear that all of the principals respect this clause and are therefore abiding by the clause in the Act. But there are principals who believe management problems can result through strict adherence to this requirement in the Act.

It must be remembered, however, that the greater majority of South African schools are Christian in character. Christian religious education and values were actively encouraged in schools. Many principals themselves are deeply committed Christians. The “freedom of conscience” requirement of the Act creates a new mind-set for principals. The principal has to adjust his/her management plan to fall in line with new thinking. This may not be so easy to do especially in cases where principals do not believe that all religions are of equal value.

6.4.3 THE CULTURE OF LEARNING AND TEACHING

In discussing the South African School Act, two themes emerged in an indirect way, namely the culture of learning and teaching and the role of the Gauteng Education Department in undermining the culture of learning and teaching.

The quality of teaching is advanced as a reason why township students opt to attend schools that are located in the previously designated White and Indian areas. Principal E for example says:

There are some instances where you find there is laxity among certain schools. Where you find the teaching quality has gone down to such an extent that the quality of work that the child gets ... as a parent you feel concerned.

The other factor that impacts on the culture of learning and teaching is teacher strikes:

You'll find we usually have strikes. National strikes is (are) acceptable, but some schools here instead of sending representatives, you will find the whole school on strike. And now what happens to the discipline, because teachers remaining cannot manage the whole school, they cannot. Children have to go home.

Parents are in some cases informed of the strike, but the principal asks: “What happens to the children at home at about 09:00 when the parents are at work?” This results, according to the principal, in “drop-outs, child abuse, sexual abuse, and absenteeism.” He states further:

Most girls fall pregnant and cannot go back to school. These are some of the things which are frustrating to the parents.

This principal is concerned that while the teachers have problems with the department of education it is the child that suffers. He presents the following analogy to describe the disastrous results of this antagonistic relationship between the teachers and the department of education:

When two elephants fight it is the grass that suffers.

Principal E also relates how teacher’s dress influences learning. According to this principal, learners respect a certain teacher because he/she belongs to their preferred political organisation. The converse is also true. Recently there were some teachers going to school wearing ANC skippers “and then forgetting that in a class you have got three organisations.” PASO and AZASO students do not have respect for a teacher who wears an ANC skipper resulting in tensions and a climate that is not conducive to teaching and learning.

Vandalism also impacts on teaching and learning at school E. Furniture, doors, and other equipment were stolen:

This school is highly vandalised. A person just comes, cuts the fence and goes away with the fence.

Principal F in reasoning why Black parents send their children to schools in more advantaged areas says:

“... those parents want their children to learn in English for instance, but much more importantly our schools are no schools.

The principal in saying that “our schools are no schools” is passing commentary on the poor culture of teaching and learning in the school as well as the poor resourcing of the school.

Principal F says further:

Those parents that are critical, then refuse to send their children to a particular school.

Principal F is most uncomfortable when teachers and learners “come and go at will”. He gets no help from parents as “parental control is just as bad as the disadvantage they experience.” The Gauteng Education Department also does not intervene to restore teacher discipline at schools and the principal is forced “to make do with the situation as it is.”

The values that this principal cherishes are the following: punctuality (being at school on time), diligence, productivity (“you got to remain at school for the whole day”), respect (“don’t trample on other people rights,”) sobriety (“do not come to school drunk,”) and no smoking in public (“in our culture we do not allow 18 year-olds or younger to smoke”). But the principal finds it difficult to impose these values as he does not get the necessary support from the Gauteng Education Department.

Principal F describes the ineffective and damaging role of the Gauteng Education Department on the culture of teaching and learning at his school by quoting the following example. An educator at his school was charged (a charge subsequently dropped by the plaintiff) for wanting to murder a school girl. Further, the educator also neglected his duties. Very often he was found sleeping in his car instead of teaching:

Instead of firing him and charging him, they (the GED) took him to the district office. And now he is my senior. They promoted him.

This is what infuriates the principal. He does not believe the Gauteng Education Department is exercising its authority evenly and objectively. According to this principal, many lazy teachers were promoted and are now “managers out there.” Nepotism is also an important factor with respect to promotions:

The process will be fair, to look fair. You will not pick out a mistake from the process.

But the principal says the interview and selection process is guided by nepotism. Also, the teacher organisation to which candidates belong to influences the promotion of candidates. According to this principal, a “top candidate” will not be appointed if he/she does not belong to a particular teacher organisation:

But it is not only happening at school level, it is also happening at district level.

Principal F adds that the lack of support from the Gauteng Education Department has contributed towards the culture of non-teaching and non-learning:

In fact we as principals we are prepared to restore the culture provided I have, let me say a fall back position. If I say ‘you have got to be here at 7:45 and if I book you 3, 4, 5, times, then you are in trouble.’ You must really be in trouble. And at the end doing the right thing becomes routine. But that is not the case. Principals are thrown into the deep-end of the pool.

Like Principal F, Principal E describes how teaching time is abused by some teacher organisations:

What I do not understand is that now members fail to understand the written word. These two organisations have got rules governing them, that now teachers should not hold meetings during school hours. But you find some teacher organisations feel that they are privileged because now the government of the day is theirs and then they abuse these powers.

Principal B, on the other hand, speaks at length about the conditioning of educators in the former White departments of education to accept and respect authority even if they don’t approve.

But this conditioning is for this principal “dangerous” because “when we now get opposition from pupils, for instance, we find that we suddenly have discipline problems because you are not used to handling that.” The principal had to adjust the “whole discipline policy” because

the “pupils are changing.” The problem, however, according to Principal B, lies with the staff “who are not changing yet.”

Principal B also comments on the influx of township learners to the urban schools. According to this principal, because strikes are common at Black schools, parents prefer to send their children to urban schools. This principal feels strongly that township parents need to be informed of their rights and that they (the Black parents) “demand that the child be taught.” The principal argues thus:

Because if I send my child to school and the teacher sits in the staffroom and my child is not being taught, I have my rights. They move and then move into White areas and they are not solving the problem.

Vandalism is a problem that affects teaching and learning according to Principal C. This school had been vandalised quite regularly and the principal believes the department of education needs to do more to combat vandalism. According to the principal the department of education is “very lax about it (security).”

Principal D feels like principal F, the lack of support from the Gauteng Education Department with respect teacher’s work:

The teacher comes late. You’ll record it, you’ll make them sign and that’s about all. Over and above that what can you do? Report them to the Director. We need the back up.

Even in cases where the Gauteng Education Department requests information on defaulting teachers, “there is no action,” according to Principal D. The latest incident that impacted an teaching and learning was the recent SADTU strike. “There is no prior warning, no pre-planning.” He states:

They (the teachers) will come at a certain time and say they will be leaving with the idea that you must know they are going for a march.

It had affected the learners just when the principal believed that he was winning the battle with respect to teaching and learning:

All of them (learners) drop down because the pupils feel the teachers are on the road, so let us go.

This principal believes that because parents are “not very familiar with law,” they are inclined to support the teachers. In effect then there is no community pressure on teachers to act professionally.

Rameshur [1996: 145] found in his study that the principal was the “man-in-the-middle.” He had to address the needs of pupils, educators, and the community, while also fulfilling the policy expectations in the former House of Delegates. With respect to supervision of teachers, Rameshur [1996: 148] states that management staff tended to “avoid any direct monitoring and evaluation of the implementation and outcomes of education policies.” On the impact of the teacher union on the management subsystem Rameshur [1996: 148-154] states that there was a general perception among many groups of educators that the teacher union was “more concerned with the protection of teacher rights than those of pupils.”

Many respondents in Rameshur [1996: 151] held the view that the actions of the organised teacher body “affected the principal’s ability to manage the school.” Rameshur [1996: 154-158] also found that because they (the parents) were not able to exert direct pressure upon teachers they seemed to turn more frequently to principals and the former House of Delegates with complaints against individual teachers. Another important finding, [Rameshur 1996:158-162] was the opinion of some respondents that while the environment had changed drastically there was an absence of “effective strategic planning and strategic management in the education department.” Interestingly, when one evaluates the principals’ views, one finds that many of the findings cited by Rameshur [1996] still persist in the post 1994 era. The principal is therefore the man-in-the-middle without the full support from relevant role players in the education process. The comments of the interviewees seem to express a similar concern.

The situation in the former DET schools seems not to have improved. Chisholm and Vally [1996] have identified the following factors that affect the culture of learning and teaching namely:

- * Infrastructure: School buildings, facilities and resources.
- * Leadership, management and administration.
- * Relationships between principals, teachers, students and parents.
- * The socio-economic content.

Many of the factors that have been identified by the principals relate quite closely to the abovementioned authors' findings. If these undesirable conditions still persist, one cannot expect the principal to be very effective.

It is because of this breakdown of a culture of learning and teaching did the national Department of Education and Training establish a Directorate to begin to address this problem in an integrated holistic fashion.

Deputy Minister of Education, Father Smangaliso Mkhathshwa [1997] in a speech at the COLTS consultative conference said that the campaign to build a culture of learning and teaching fell under two categories namely:

- * Building a positive perception of schooling by finding, recognising and publicising schools of best practice.
- * Improving conditions in the schools.

It is important to note that learners, teachers, parents, school management, the provincial and national departments of education all have pivotal roles in improving the culture of learning and teaching. As Parker [1997] says:

A serious attempt must be made to integrate schools, learning centres, home and the street into a holistic learning environment. We need to involve as many people as possible in the lifelong-learning system. The South African Schools Act provides a good framework and set of regulations to help us achieve this. We need to adopt a whole-school approach to the development, reform and transformation of our schools.

The question of nepotism (see section 6.4.2.2.) does not seem far fetched also. In a letter to the editor [Ditshego 1997:13] argues that the department of education should promote those who deserve it. The author goes on to say:

When it comes to job patronage and appointments, nepotism and favouritism are the order of the day. Rarely are people appointed on merit. In Kagiso there are qualified teachers who are being overlooked when it comes to promotion.

Obviously, if underserving persons are appointed to schools on promotion, such acts are bound to impact on learning and teaching. SADTU in Mona [1997a:3], for example, says one of the factors contributing to the breakdown of learning and teaching is the poor management in Black schools which can be further attributed to the way provincial education departments are managed.

If it is true that incompetent persons are appointed at district office level, (as Principal F contends) it can be concluded that district offices are not very effective. Principals are looking for support and guidance from the district office. When such support is not forthcoming, principals are left stranded. Such situations it can be argued contribute to poor school management, a point alluded to by SADTU [1997].

At school level, school management needs to be empowered by the department of education. To this extent, the principal must be ably assisted by the department of education in cases of teacher misconduct, neglect of duty and insubordination. The department of education needs to act decisively in cases of teacher misconduct if it is serious about improving teaching and learning. The establishment of SACE (see section 6.4.7) would go a long way towards restoring teacher accountability but ultimately teachers must begin to act out their roles as true professionals.

Principals need to acquire new skills to manage the transition. Old ways of doing things are not appropriate for a new democratic South Africa. Therefore it is crucial that training courses are organised to meet the new challenges of the 90's. To this end, the Department of Education [1996b:22] says:

One of the main challenges for education management is the development of an appropriate ethos and capacity in the systems, structures and managers of the education system so as to ensure that the newly defined goals are achieved. This involves clarifying the relationships between the national and provincial education departments, as well as between key stakeholders in the education process such as the trade unions, professional associations and civil society organisations.

The empowerment of parents is also critical to the process. There were cases in the days of the 'struggle' when Black parents were firmly behind teachers during teacher strikes and boycotts. However, it would appear that Black parents are still trapped in the old paradigm. Parents must now begin to realise that the struggle now is for their children to get a proper education. The rights of parents and learners with respect to education must be communicated clearly to them. The television, radio and the print media can be effectively used to inform learners and parents about their rights.

Principals also must begin to establish links with parents such that they (the parents) are kept informed of their children's progress and behaviour at schools. The principal must make every effort to involve parents in their children's education. Purvis [1993:47] has identified the following steps in order to improve school-community relations:

- * Send a short bulletin every two weeks to all employees - These are high priority items that the principal wants everyone to know.
- * Meet monthly with representative groups of teachers from the school, classified employees and parents. Such meetings reduce gossip, and makes those people feel important.

- * Offer to meet with employee organisations on a routine basis. They will communicate the principals' views to their members.
- * Communicate more effectively with all stakeholders thereby minimizing destructive gossip at schools.
- * Organise monthly meetings with a representative group of business people. Let them know their suggestions are valued.
- * Plan school programmes jointly with all segments of the community.

Townley and Schmieder [1993:35] in describing how principals can reach out to communities include amongst others a "School Performance Profile." The authors refer to a Californian school which is required to develop yearly a profile of student achievement and other pertinent data about the school. This publication is distributed to all parents and interested students. Such a publication also forces teachers to improve their performance as they are aware that poor performances can be ascribed to poor teaching.

The researcher believes that improving the school-community relations will contribute to a large degree to a culture of learning and teaching. All stakeholders through joint working relationships become accountable for the school's progress.

The department of education can also initiate and facilitate a journal publication on matters educational for schools. Such journals can focus on best practice models, highlight staff development issues and offer practical guidance towards solving problems. Contributors to the periodical can range from students, parents, teachers, principals, departmental officials, the private sector and other interested persons. Such periodicals must be circulated widely to all schools. These articles will expose school management and educators to best practice models which may be applied to their schools.

Lastly, the authorities may also want to consider concluding performance agreements with individual schools. Such agreements must of necessity take contextual factors into consideration and further it must spell out what the department of education's responsibility is towards the achievement of the agreed to performance targets. Performance agreements will evaluate success in terms of mutually agreed key performance indicators which are linked to objectives.

6.4.4 OUTCOMES-BASED EDUCATION (OBE)

Generally speaking the principals interviewed are quite positive about OBE although they do admit that they do not have in-depth knowledge of OBE.

The response of Principal D towards OBE makes for interesting analysis. For Principal D, OBE is a response to apartheid education in the sense that it replaces the old system:

We must be honest. We don't know any other education. We feel that apartheid education is the only education. And now our eyes are opening up and we begin to realise that there are other issues.

Principal A is positive although he says "I haven't got experience about this whole system, so I can't make comments on it, but I think it can work." Similarly, Principal E sees the advantage in OBE in that it is "going to move our children from content-based (education) to skills-based (education). Principal C believes OBE gives the child "a fair opportunity" to "develop his (her) skills "and prepares learners for the world of work," a view also echoed by Principal D. To Principal F, OBE is a "fine idea." He states:

I think it is an acceptable education(al) principle (in) that education must be based on outcomes and limit rote-learning.

Principal B reacts totally differently to OBE. When asked about Curriculum 2005 the principal responded:

I ignored all of that because it is political. My attitude as far as all this is concerned (is), they can sort it out and I will follow the instructions. So I don't get upset about it.

Principal B comments thus on OBE workshops run by the Gauteng Education Department:

I went to one meeting and I listened to this meeting. And I eventually decided, right, this meeting is a political meeting, this is not an educational meeting. And I made sure that I sat next to someone I can 'lekker' chat. I had a ball. Otherwise I would freak out.

This principal openly admits that she has not yet read the circular on Curriculum 2005:

It is still in my suitcase (satchel). I am not letting that upset my vision because they (the Gauteng Education Department) haven't sorted out the nitty gritty.

Principal E also points a finger of indictment against the Gauteng Education Department. He is unimpressed by the little knowledge departmental officials display with respect to OBE:

It seems now even those who (department officials) are telling us what to do, they have forgotten the page they got it from.

The principal comments also that from subject advisors who are supposed to give direction "you find that you don't get anything from them." He adds:

I said to my subject advisor, give me one example of a skills-based question. And she said 'yes, you know last year's matriculation question and memo is (are) skills-based. When I looked at what we had done in the past, I found it was still content-based.

Principal D also attended a workshop organised by the Gauteng Education Department wherein they had an overseas expert demonstrate OBE to principals. Here too the principal expressed disappointment:

I personally feel she wasn't successful ... because you don't know where she was going to.

This principal believes that OBE workshops are still very much theoretical:

So many of the teachers haven't got an idea of (an) OBE lesson, how to conduct group work. They are all at a loss.

Principal D describes teachers' reactions to the workshops run by the department of education thus:

The idea was to train teachers in school. But they (departmental officials) have no idea themselves. They just gave the teachers a talk, it was a lecture, but most of the teachers said that they could have read (about it).

Principal D is dubious about the consequences of OBE:

Look here, it may lead to children eventually being prepared for whatever vocation ... after leaving school, ... but I say it is idealistic, we have got to see the proof.

Principal F believes because the department of education had not yet started intensive training "they are backtracking." (A reference to the decision of the national Department of Education and Training not to introduce OBE in grade 7 in 1998).

It would appear that the quality of the workshops conducted by the department of education has left much to be desired. Principal E, for example, relates how his teachers believed that a workshop run by a non-governmental organisation (NGO) was "more advanced than the one conducted by the department of education." With respect to the NGO workshop the principal says:

Teachers were keen to give feedback because they were now better informed after attending the course presented by the NGO. They said the NGO course was more advanced.

It would appear that the capacity of departmental officials is of a serious concern to principals. Principal B is actually glad that she was not successful in her application for promotion to the Gauteng Education Department:

I am actually glad I did not get that promotion because I can't work with people (with reference to departmental officials) like that. I don't know to what extent the people that were planning all these meetings are competent on the ground. When last were they in front of the class?

This principal also asks to what extent are they taking all their "high fallutin ideas" and "very good ideas" from books?

The communication of policy decisions around OBE is also problematic. Principal A, for example, believes that the concept OBE was not communicated very well to teachers:

There were a lot of seminars, a lot of talking but nothing much was said at those meetings: they are talking, talking and talking but they don't get to the point.

This principal believes his teachers are concerned about the changes. "They are not happy about that." The teachers have become negative towards OBE because they are "fearful. Fear of the new situation." He adds:

The few things that they hear from the news and other persons, is (are) all negative.

Principal C in response to communication from the department of education says:

They have sent us some reading material on it. We've read through it. It is quite informative.

However, for the teachers "it is (all) very low profile" "because they don't know much about it." The principal states:

Just like myself, they are also just reading the reading matter and they can only assess, you know. Everything on paper doesn't work until you put it physically into operation.

In addition, there are certain obstacles that the principals have identified that will work against the successful implementation of OBE.

Principal F, for example, says his problem is "the system itself, whether the system is able or designed in such a way that we will be able to achieve what OBE sets out to achieve." The principal lists among the problems:

- * teachers not doing their work;
- * inadequate budgets; and
- * a department of education not prepared to exercise its control.

According to this principal, OBE will be "teacher-centred" and in the end, the teacher "will take decisions ... whether the child is ready to move forward or not." The principal says:

My experience is that township children will just progress as before whether they have covered that work or not. When the time comes to assess 'you'll just say so many students will have to proceed forward etc.' It will definitely undermine the very same aim that it is supposed to achieve, noble as I say it is. I don't think the system is ready to take this up.

Further, Principal F in response to group work says:

When I went for training, they told me that children should work in groups. When I say teaching, I started off with some 50 students in the class. All those ideas were thrown out through the window, the same is going to happen now.

Principal C wants to give OBE a chance in the sense that "once you put it physically into operation then you will see the pros and cons of whatever is being offered." This principal does believe that big classes won't affect OBE as under the former House of Delegates, big classes were not "something new." But the principal is insistent that all material be made available to schools if OBE is to be successfully implemented by teachers:

But if materials is (are) not available then we will find a tremendous amount of problems. For instance, like myself. I don't have a fully developed library. I haven't got a library. Then if they have to put this in operation tomorrow, I am totally a failure.

Principal E experiences a similar problem:

When it comes to facilities, it is a problem in our school. When you speak of a library, you may be thinking of a library having a lot of books and everything. Ours is just a skeleton.

Further this principal believes that the large numbers in the classes, 45 - 50 in the standards 6 - 8, are not conducive to group work as required by OBE. He says: "In such a class it (is) just a chaos." Similarly, Principal A and Principal B also believe big numbers in classes will impact negatively on the successful implementation of OBE. According to these principals, teachers have not been trained to handle big classes. Learners working at their own pace, a principle that underpins OBE is also problematic to principals. Principal A believes that fear of failure serves as a motivation for learners to study conscientiously. This principal is concerned about what the effect of this requirement will be on learners who don't work conscientiously and who also are not motivated at home by their parents to apply themselves diligently. Learners working at their own pace does not pose a problem for principal C:

I don't think that should be of a disadvantage. Again at the end of the day that slow learner will also achieve what he wants to achieve.

Principal C is not a favour of examinations as it is not the ideal way if assessing a learner. OBE gives the learner the "opportunity to prove himself."

This is not a view shared by the other principals. Principal E believes that OBE cannot be implemented without a deeper understanding of the fundamental principles.

Our schools might look like a circus. If a child knows that now 'I cannot fail, I must read at my own pace,' we will be creating a chaotic situation. We need to create time frames, they are very important. Without time frames I don't see us achieving a lot.

Principal D believes working at one's own pace can work in classes 1 and 2. In the later years if the learner is in a class of learners who are not of his/her age group, it can lead to "complexes." He says these learners will suffer from "an inferiority complex" if they feel they are not up to the required standard.

Similarly, Principal E says learning at one's own pace is going to affect the learner mentally:

I think there must be limitations to how long a learner can be accommodated in a particular standard or school.

Principal B complains that the lack of training of teachers will influence OBE:

If we speak OBE and you work in large groups and you must organise your groups according to where they are or their abilities, the person in charge of that group must be creative. I don't know how long it is going to take to train people, that concerns me.

Principal F believes that only when the culture of teaching and learning is "back on track" can one introduce OBE. It will work in former Model C schools, according to Principal F because of a superior culture of teaching and learning. Besides the culture of teaching and learning, it is also not a matter of "hastily transplanting a system from a first world country into a third world country." The principal asks whether OBE can be introduced without any prior analysis of the situation in the townships:

The fact is that OBE is teacher-driven and there's no question that the majority of teachers are not yet ready for this.

The principal believes that because teachers have not been trained in handling OBE and further because teachers are not accountable as "the authorities have lost control over teachers," OBE will not succeed:

There will definitely be no control over teachers and as I say it will be teacher-centred, it will be teacher-driven and the teacher at the end will be the be all and end all of OBE and the children will suffer.

Out of this diversity of opinions, several deep convictions emerge. These may be summarised as:

- * OBE has political connotations.
- * Officials of the department of education are neither informed nor effective.
- * The workshops organised by the department of education are not effective.
- * Former DET schools do not have the resources nor the teaching and learning culture for OBE to be successful.
- * Policy delivery and communication processes leave much to be desired.

With respect to political connotations, it has to be remembered that the government of the day has a responsibility to “build a new nation” [Parker 1997]. Parker [1997] adds “obviously, OBE has problems and risks but it also provides us with the opportunity to begin building a national lifelong-learning system in South Africa which fits in closely with our national vision of a democratising, developing, peaceful, equitable, free and just society.” The deputy-director general of the National Department of Education and Training, Rensburg [1996:7] says “the new curriculum is intended not just to bury apartheid education but to set the country on a new course.” While Parker [1997] and Rensburg [1996] may be articulating a new vision, the question is how can a new system that is poorly communicated and does not have delivery capacity, at both departmental and school level, be successful.

The fact that there were problems were noted by the Department of Education and Training. A task team established to investigate the feasibility of OBE found that Curriculum 2005 could only be introduced to class one in 1998 as provincial education departments do not have the staff or money to go ahead with plans to introduce the curriculum to other classes as well [Mercury Correspondent 1997b:3]. This announcement by Education Minister Sibusiso Bengu was received with mixed reaction. Some teachers organisations are “rejoicing” while the country’s biggest union (SADTU) has expressed disappointment [Mercury Correspondent

977b:3]. The National Professional Teachers Association (NAPTOSA) was concerned that teachers were not properly trained and therefore welcomed the decision while on the other hand SADTU believed this decision will delay the transformation of education [Mercury Correspondent 1997b:3].

The question is whether the new government officials in seeking to legitimise and justify their appointment to senior administrative positions are creating change of a radical nature to prove that they have a new vision or a new plan.

Teachers themselves have expressed their concerns with respect to the lack of resources. 'Worried Teacher,' in a letter to the editor [1997:30] says:

The cost of using outcomes-based education should also be considered. The resources required are considerable, which is not a problem in wealthier schools, but what of disadvantaged communities? The old inequalities can only become worse.

Baloyi [1997:29] says "he [Minister Bengu] makes me teach in dilapidated classrooms, he leads me to teach unwilling pupils and undermines my profession." This writer is implying is that the restoration of the culture of learning and teaching and the proper resourcing of especially disadvantaged schools will be critical for OBE to succeed. Morris and Mona [1997:4] say that the coming into power of a new government in 1994 was welcomed by many teachers, parents and pupils in the townships, as they believed the "endemic crisis facing township schools will be addressed." However, according to the research conducted by the authors, the crisis conditions persist. The question is how can a principal of a former DET school be expected to manage the implementation of OBE if the crisis continues.

The role of the department of education in communicating effectively is also problematic. Mnyakeni and Matima [1997:29] say if OBE is to succeed then "workshops in the Sandtons of this world need to stop and people on the ground including parents need to be told (even in Zulu) what the Curriculum 2005 is."

Some of the principals cited large numbers in classes that will impact on the success of OBE. The World Bank [1995:15] found that although learning is enhanced in classes smaller than 25 pupils, there is very little difference in learning-outcomes in classes with over 25 and 40 pupils. Pupil-learning is only affected in classes over 40 pupils. The picture that emerges is one where the principal is expected to deliver in a context where policy is not communicated effectively and neither is the necessary support from the department of education forthcoming.

6.4.5 EDUCATIONAL ASSESSMENTS AND STANDARDS

The majority of principals interviewed are favourably inclined towards continuous assessment (CA) as a technique to gauge learner's progress. Principal C believes continuous assessment means "assessing the child from day-to-day, from week-to-week and you've got the child on it(s) toes."

He is put in the frame of mind where he is educationally oriented.

Principal E says continuous assessment "puts them (learners) in a working mood," even when teachers are not in the classrooms. While Principal D believes there are "two sides to continuous assessments," his view is that it "gives the learners a good idea of how a learner is progressing." Further, the principal adds that many of his teachers believe that continuous assessments give them a "better idea of the pupil's ability." For Principal A, continuous assessments are not something new as continuous assessments have been part of the school's examination policy for a long time.

Principal B makes an interesting observation namely - that the "pupil's mark drop(s) when you use continuous assessment." The principal believes that it "works for some of the members (teachers) and not for others" and it works "better in some classes and less successfully in others."

Principal F questions whether continuous assessment is anything new. For this principal continuous assessments in township schools mean giving the class a “monthly test” and the marks are regarded as credits for continuous assessment. For Principal F, the problem is making use of continuous assessments in a standard 10 class, when there is a “serious problem at the bottom,” where teachers may not assess students, but one finds that “students have marks.” The first requirement for this principal is that “teachers must become dedicated personnel” and “they have got to do a honest day’s job.” The honesty of teachers as well as other assessing skills are major problems for the principal.

Principal B believes that for a minority of pupils who fear examinations, continuous assessment is a good principle. This principal revealed how continuous assessments were manipulated by schools in the past. In the former Model C schools, principals used to manipulate the system by “sending up marks.” This manipulation involves “stealing” marks from average candidates and crediting other candidates who would have otherwise failed or not achieved an A or B symbol in the subject:

And very few schools send up failure marks and personally the results that we had, the passes were high because we could play the marks.

The regret for this principal is that with the new examination system, principals are not given details about averages, thus they cannot manipulate the marks anymore.

With respect to standardisation of pupils’ efforts most schools experience it in different ways. For school D, “one of the most difficult aspects of the school is to look for uniformity in teachers.” The head of department’s role as instructional leader has diminished. Even if the head of department is keen to run a workshop on standards and standardisation, “you will find one teacher will have his own idea and the teachers regard themselves as top teachers, and because they are argumentative they don’t want to share their ideas.” Principal D says that teachers believe that they know best and therefore the school experiences problems in “having

uniformity in testing.” Similarly, Principal F says the heads of departments in former DET schools “are the most disempowered people.” Because the heads of departments do not have a job description, they are not able to be assertive. They are not able to play an empowering role “because of antagonism“ and “because of a lack of control from the top.”

When I say top, I mean from the principal level down, because there is no back-up system. The subject advisors for instance do not come in and assist the HOD’s because the subject advisors themselves are not experts. And it is just one load of trouble.

Further, the principal comments that the English subject advisor had already cancelled two workshops for teachers. All that English subject advisors are presently doing is controlling the oral marks for standard 10. A similar theme is echoed by Principal D when he says:

Look at the moment there is not a single subject advisor that can come into the school and say they have a good idea of OBE. All those subject advisors themselves are groping in the dark.

School F manages standardisation from the office. A common test is administered in all classes “irrespective of the number of teachers that teach the subject.” School E, on the other hand, has a system of moderation in place. In this regard, the heads of department are playing a crucial role. Principal C adopts a more practical approach to standardisation:

As the head of the institution you will have to call him (the teacher) from time to time and assess the whole situation. You got to see where the standards are being lowered, where the standards have improved, where the standards are sometimes very high.

Interestingly, most principals mentioned only testing as constituting continuous assessments. Very few mentioned other forms of assessments namely project work, portfolios, self assessment, peer assessment etc. Principal F, however, says that portfolios would not work as the teachers have not been trained to do that:

Our teachers haven't moved from the old methods of teaching. Now if you're going to credit participation you find that at the end because you spend about 30 minutes talking you forget that they (the learners) have to participate and you must give them marks and you use your subjective view and allocate marks the way you see them.

As for project work, Principal F says because it is a "lot of work and teachers don't prefer it."

From the aforementioned, it would seem that principals generally perceive continuous assessments in a positive light. But once again the ability of teachers to assess is being questioned. The new curriculum requires teachers to teach their pupils how to think. MacGregor [1996:5] comments that many teachers argued that "a major problem would be whether teachers, many of them poorly trained and underqualified or set in their ways would be able to teach their pupils how to think."

The role of the Gauteng Education Department is also questionable. The schools are expecting assistance from subject advisors but this is not forthcoming. Continuous assessment holds the promise of transforming the way teachers think about the nature and quality of students' work [Cress 1996: 9]. In the growing move away from "chalk and talk," it provides alternative ways of setting, working and valuing assignments [Cress 1996: 9]. To this extent, teachers will be relying on principals to provide the leadership role in this area. The question is how can the principal be expected to lead when the department of education neglects to empower such principals. It would appear, therefore, it is not only teachers that need training. Subject advisors, as well as principals need training in new forms of assessments.

6.4.6 APPRAISAL OF EDUCATORS

Generally speaking all of the principals interviewed were in favour of teacher appraisals. But it would appear the principals differ in terms of the nature of appraisals. Principal D, for example, says:

I am in favour of appraisals. I am in favour of appraisals that is (are) more of an advisory capacity.

This principal says he comes “from the old school of thought” that valued appraisals, but with the “unions stepping in” it has become a “very contentious matter.” The unions according to the principal have given the educators the impression that management cannot walk into a teacher’s classroom “to supervise.” Neither can management insist that the teacher deliver a lesson. Because of this situation there is “not a single bit of supervision” in the school. Management, according to the principal, is placed in a difficult situation:

We can’t do much. We have no right to fire a teacher, there is nothing. Even if we have to report a teacher to the highest authority, nothing is done about it.

Because teachers believe the classroom is their “domain” where they are the “bosses” and “teach the way the want to”, there is no accountability on the part of teachers. This principal uses an indirect form of supervision to retain some semblance of supervision:

We have a workshop. In that way we are trying to justify what the teachers are really doing. So we are diplomatic.

Principal B says appraisals are essential to “realise one’s shortcomings.” The principal believes appraisals will impact positively on teachers as they will have to “pull up their socks.” Because of a lack of clear direction from the Gauteng Education Department, there is presently no supervision at school B. The only supervision that takes place is at the request of the individual teacher.

Principal A perceives appraisals as a way “to motivate your teachers, a way to uplift the standards of teachers”, and a way to “address shortcomings.” This school, like school B, has no appraisal policy, and no supervision of teacher’s work is undertaken.

In school C, there is supervision for development as opposed to appraisal for merit and promotion. The head of department visits the teachers in an advisory capacity.

Principal C has some strong feelings about appraisals. He describes the school’s supervisory activity thus:

They (supervisors) go into the classroom on an advisory capacity, not fault-finding. They write reports but it (they) must not be negative. They must not demoralise the teacher.

Principal C comments on the skills of appraisers. He argues that most appraisers do not know how to appraise. Besides needing experience, the appraiser has “got to be fair” when he/she appraises and should not be “biased”. However, visits by heads of departments are not underpinned by any policy formulation on supervision/appraisals.

Principal F is concerned about the subjective use of appraisal instruments. “While it is a fine idea” the principal believes it has got its “limitations.” He adds:

As far as I am concerned it will never be used in a very standard manner, irrespective of the instrument.

The attitude of students towards learning and the teacher towards teaching will, according to this principal, influence the appraisal process. Principal F believes the appraisal process can be manipulated as follows:

I mean if I know that I will be judged by a panel in the next 2 - 3 weeks then my performance will be okay. If my appraisal will take place at the end of the year, maybe it will pin me down for one year.

This principal is implying that once the appraisal exercise is over, there will be no incentive for the educator to continue to be hard working and dedicated. A similar concern was raised by critics of the appraisal system in England and Wales (see section 3.2.3.8.1).

Principal E believes that appraisals are to be welcomed “because that will also help teachers who are not putting any effort, to put some effort into their teaching.” This principal affords another interesting reason why appraisals will work:

This appraisal, I am linking it to teacher merit. If you think of any person who is looking for money, that's the teacher. The only way you can get him, you know, to do the work, is to give him what he wants. So, if they know they are going to be merited, they will try by all means, because all of them will want to be remunerated. It will improve the quality of the work.

Principal E describes appraisal in his school as "superficial, it is not too deep." and not grounded in policy as the new education department had requested that schools stop appraisals for purposes of merit awards. Principal E nevertheless, believes appraisals are necessary for development:

Times are changing. You cannot say you are trained for life. You have got to move with the times.

And yet Principal F believes appraisal for development is a 'pie in the sky.' This principal argues that development implies one has "good managers who are able to develop their subordinates." But he adds "I do not see my immediate senior as someone who can develop me."

I am saying presently in the ex (former) DET schools some of the principals definitely need development, and they cannot develop anybody below them. Some of the Directors cannot develop their immediate subordinates (principals).

Asked to comment on performance related progression notches, Principal F believes it is going to be difficult to implement:

Productivity in a school situation simply means that my class passes and I am in control. I determine who passes in the end by designing a particular set of questions, tests. And that is not all. Because assessments are supposed to be continuous, I may design assessments in such a way that it suits me, unless it is standardised. Productivity is one area that has to be defined and redefined.

Principal E, on the other hand believes progression notches should be linked to productivity and service:

When I speak about service I am not only referring to only experience in years - but I am talking about a person who has progressed through the years. If the person is not making any effort, I don't think he deserves to be paid for that.

Principal A is totally in the dark about salary notches linked to productivity while Principal B believes it is a very good thing "because there are staff who do not deserve merit or automatic increment." However, for Principal B, it is question of how does one really judge a teacher's efforts. Like Principal F, this principal believes if appraisal is linked to results it would be "fatal" because if "I desperately need an increase I will pass my kids." Further, Principal B does not want the responsibility to decide on teacher's increments.

For Principal C, increments should be "automatic" The problem for this principal like those above is "how do you assess productivity?" The principal argues thus:

You joined the profession, you qualified as a teacher. Look, increment should be a natural thing irrespective of who and what you are.

Principal D is strongly in favour of performance related salary increments:

This will eradicate those teachers who are just here to receive at the end of the month a salary. Yes, I welcome that. It will pay those teachers who are working hard. And they will benefit and in fact there will be more dedication among teachers.

This principal goes on to say that many teachers show no "real commitment" towards their calling:

You know I have seen teachers leave the school building without a book in their hands, to say, look here, I am going home and to do some form of preparation, they (are) going to do some marking.

When asked about their feelings towards the new appraisal instrument, most of the principals had no knowledge of the instrument. When informed that appraisers can choose their own appraisal panel, most principals reacted very negatively to the idea.

Principal D responds thus:

Look it should never be that you can choose your appraisers, because you (will) choose those that you feel will appraise you better than others.

Principal C is not in favour of this requirement and says that if he were to choose his own panel of appraisers he cannot see himself not getting the promotion, because “I am going to choose a panel that is going to promote me.”

For Principal A, the appraisee’s selection of an own appraisal panel poses a problem because “he can choose some of his friends you know.” A similar view is echoed by Principal F when he says “You will not choose those people that will jeopardise you.” A view echoed by Principal E when he says “I know I will qualify, (so there is) no need for hard work.” And Principal B, however, differs totally from the views expressed above:

Basically the staff will be honest when it comes to nitty gritty. Human beings want recognition for what is done. You don’t want somebody else to get that recognition if you know it is due to you. You are not going to give it to somebody unless somebody really deserves it.

In all these views one theme recurs: principals’ feeling that the new system may lead to a total loss of authority to implement strategies for teacher supervision and appraisal. Most principals all agree there is need for appraisals as they will contribute towards teacher’s accountability and responsibility, but they, however, await interventions from the department of education. Parker [1997] in addressing the need for a culture of learning and teaching says:

Firstly, teachers and civil servants are not subject to proper systems of accountability. A lazy teacher or a corrupt civil servant is not going to change if they do not have to. If there is plenty of opportunity for corruption and incompetence, and no risks or penalties, then we should not be surprised when people choose to be lazy or corrupt.

In order to address this problem, Parker believes “we need a comprehensive system of performance appraisals, of teacher and civil service education and training.” Parker says further:

Those who refuse to acquire the necessary knowledge, skills and values - must be penalised, and even retrenched. Those who do become lifelong learners and competent teachers and administrators should be rewarded [Parker 1997].

Chisholm [1997:2] says “appraisal has always been and will be contentious.” To Chisholm [1997:2] teacher appraisal will not resolve all problems at schools, but rather it seeks to emphasise two points namely, that the way things are done are crucial to the success of any project and second, that appraisal is not an end in itself but a means to a larger end, the democratisation and enhancement of learning and teaching in schools.

Contrary to the views expressed by principals in the sample on the process of appraisal for teachers, Carrim [1997:52] found in pilot studies that “teachers were relieved to know that they had a central role to play in the appraisal of their own practices and were delighted to realise that their appraisals would not be determined by a single person.” Notably, “principals were equally pleased to know that the responsibility of such decisions were not to be made by them alone [Carrim 1997:52]. This finding makes for interesting analysis. The fact that principals are pleased to share the responsibility does indicate that either principals genuinely want to democratise the appraisal process or principals fear taking decisions on their own for fear of repercussions. This raises the question whether joint responsibility actually indicates abdication on the part of principals. Lastly, one can also ask what will the influence of the principal be on the appraisal panel if he/she is now a fellow member of a team of appraisers.

With respect to the composition of the appraisal panels, “the nomination of the peer on the panel” is “welcomed for relaxing the appraisee and also providing him/her with constructive feedback” [Carrim 1997:44]. However, in secondary schools a peer on the panel “presupposes that there is someone in the peer’s class while the appraisal is on” [Carrim 1997:44]. Human resources and time are problems to be solved which ultimately become the principal’s problem.

Contrary to the views of principals in the sample, none of the pilot school principals criticised the fact that the appraisee could choose his/her own appraisal panel.

6.4.7 SOUTH AFRICAN COUNCIL FOR EDUCATORS (SACE)

With respect to SACE the principals are all very much in favour of it. The principals afforded different reasons on why they welcome SACE.

Principal D believes that belonging to SACE will restore “credibility” to the teaching profession. Principal C believes some teachers “go beyond their limits” and SACE can play a meaningful role in regulating the professional behaviour of teachers. Principal E says SACE has a lot to do with the restoration of a culture of teaching and further having a single registration body creates “unity in a school.” Principal A says SACE is important because “the teachers are professional people,” and if they are not doing their work professionally “SACE can call them to account.”

Principal F believes, however, SACE can be effective only if the department of education “is prepared to abide by the decisions of SACE.” SACE can, according to this principal, contribute towards the culture of teaching provide the department of education is prepared to act against unprofessional teachers. On the other hand, Principal A, while believing that SACE “is essential,” hopes it is going to be “more active” as in the past “it was a body that took our money.”

In the old system of education, only White teachers were required by law to register as teachers. By creating a single body, the government is firstly ridding itself of the vestiges of apartheid, but more importantly it is sending a clear message to other Indian, Coloured and Black teachers that SACE seeks to set out and promote acceptable standards of conduct. Some teachers welcome SACE because it will give the profession a clear responsibility for controlling its own destiny and regulating the conduct of its members [Makhaye 1997:15]. It does however, place added

responsibilities on principals of especially disadvantaged schools. They will have to see to it that the principles enshrined in SACE insofar as professional conduct is concerned are adhered to. If teachers flout the principles enshrined in the SACE document, the principal may have to report such acts to SACE. At times the community may put pressure on the principal to act against unprofessional educators. The point is whether the principal will in the end take the steps that are necessary or begin to adopt a softer line for fear of being undermined by teachers.

6.4.8 OTHER ISSUES OF CONCERN

The different principals indicated also other concerns which can be constituted as being part of their changing school environment.

6.4.8.1 Teacher - Pupil Ratio

For Principal B, the teacher-pupil ratio causes the "greatest stress at this stage" as this principal is not sure of "what should be the right staff numbers." The indecisiveness of the department of education to provide proper guidance causes much uncertainty:

You rightsize, then you don't rightsize. Then if you rightsize you are going to lose so many (teachers) and a week later you're told you are short (of) one teacher.

This vacillating policy of the department of education has resulted in insecurity:

I have now reached the stage, I say 'okay, we'll take a chance, and we believe this will not happen.' I mean that is ridiculous to plan like that.

Because the department of education is not providing direction, Principal B feels they cannot "settle" down. The principal believes planning is further affected by the disruptive action of unions:

I sometimes wish the unions will just take their hands out of education and let us get down with the job. But they fight everything and in the meantime we (have) got to do the job.

Principal B is concerned also about staff leaving the profession:

Many are leaving because of the transition. I tell my staff there is a a future ...
but I don't know how long everybody is going to hang in there.

Like Principal B, Principal C disagrees with the teacher-pupil ratio as he believes the classes are too big. He believes his school is built for 600 pupils, but with increased numbers, there is "no justice being done to the student's education." The big classes has the effect that "children that were previously deprived are deprived even further." They are the ones that need individual attention but the large classes militate against that.

6.4.8.2 Extra Curricular and Co-Curricular Activities

For Principal D, the concern is the lack of extra learning opportunities after school hours for those students who live outside the township:

Initially in the school there were only pupils that lived in the area. And it benefited (them) because it was within their walking distance. We would develop (a) lot of things, we could develop extra classes for pupils because they were living around here.

But presently learners travel from other areas in the pursuit of a better education, but "they are not to getting better education because they cannot take full advantage of what the school can offer." Further, the principal states:

They come late to school because they have to travel such a long distance. And I sympathise with the pupils. They come here sleepy. They pitch up sometimes at 9 o'clock, half past nine, because they are travelling quite a distance.

Sport also suffers because these students cannot participate in sporting activities that are arranged after school hours (see items 14 and 15 of Principal D's questionnaire - Appendix 3). The principal believes this state of affairs impacts on the school climate and is a "sore point in the sense that sport is neglected" If sport were to be played it had to take place during school time and that impinges on "instructional time."

An added problem for Principal D is the lack of expertise among teachers in the different code of sports. He is concerned that teachers who are handling some of the sporting codes know nothing about the sport. And therefore the sport “doesn’t take off.”

6.4.8.3 Racial Tensions

Racial tension is another issue that confronts Principal D. Racial tension manifests itself in the classroom and on the sportsfield. The principal is concerned about how these racial tensions are relayed back to the learner’s parents by learners themselves:

The youngsters are going to relate this to their parents and they are going to give their side of it.

The principal says he was able to control racism but he asks “but (for) how long?”

The rightsizing exercise is a cause of concern for some principals. Principals are concerned that there are no clear directives from the department of education on the issue. The transfer of teachers from overstuffed schools and provinces to those understaffed was seen as a strategy to achieve equity in education [Mona 1997b:4]. Teacher unions like SADTU and NAPTOSA are critical of the rightsizing process for various reasons. However, Chief Director of Education, Duncan Hindle in Mona [1997b:4] responded by saying that “while there are no disputes that inform the agreement, there maybe problems with the management and administration of the process ...” However, it can be deduced from what principals are saying that the department of education is not playing a constructive role in the whole rightsizing exercise and this increases the frustration levels of principals.

This uncertainty of the future has led to teachers leaving the profession. Clearly, the perceived lack of security on the part of some teachers and the inability of the education department to allay fears are contributing the teachers leaving the profession. When teachers leave because

of the rightsizing exercise, the school has to manage with fewer staff members. Principals had in the past a fairly generous staff complement and that facilitated planning and organisation. But now the principal has to manage with fewer members on staff and yet is expected to equal the quality services rendered in the past. Fewer staff members also affects the number of courses that the school can offer and the principal then becomes accountable to parents when course selection becomes restricted.

Of concern also is the long distances that learners travel to get to and from schools. On the one hand these learners are seeking a better quality education, but the downside is that they arrive late and leave early. The principal is basically at a loss. Principals want to provide extra academic and sporting activities but are stymied by the fact that learners cannot stay behind after school because of bussing arrangements.

Moreover, principals are also cognisant of the fact that they take final accountability for the success or failure of their schools. If the year-end results are not encouraging, the principal's management and leadership roles are questioned by the public at large. At the end of the day, it is the results that matter. It is true that a community regards highly a principal whose school produces good results. The converse is also true. In the final analysis the community is not going to concern itself with the factors that contribute to poor results and this must surely affect principals.

High teacher-pupil ratio seems to pose a problem to some principals. But a look at the table (see Table 10) reveals that it is not so high. Further, the findings of the World Bank (see section 6.4.4) refute this claim.

With increased integration, racial tensions are bound to increase. Naidoo [1997:3] reports on racial tensions in Kwazulu-Natal schools while Cameron [1997:4] reports of racial incidents at a Springs school in Gauteng Province. The Pretoria News [1997:2] also reported racial incidents at a Laudium school in Gauteng Province. The fact of the matter is that the principal as the man-in-the-middle is increasingly being called upon to resolve racial conflict in his/her school. Given the sensitivity of decisions that parent communities may interpret as racism, the

principal may not always be comfortable with recommendations for fear of raising the ire of parents. In order to address this problem, serious consideration must be given to empower the school community in combating racism.

Principals play a pivotal role in easing racial tensions and improving race relations at school. These goals can be achieved through the development of school policies that reflect a new culture, one that cherishes non-discrimination and human rights. The principal also has to reorientate the teaching staff to a new way of thinking. It is no secret that there are educators who are still trapped in old ways of thinking. The principals needs to actively engage teachers in new thinking through workshops, seminars, retreats and conferences. The problem is however, exacerbated, if principals are trapped in old mind-sets and refuse to change.

Learners also need to understand what is meant by non-racialism. For learners to begin to work and play with each other irrespective of race, creed, or colour, does not come naturally. For many learners this is a new experience. School policies must actively promote racial harmony. Summer camps, field trips, excursions deliberately planned can go a long way in learners bonding together. However, there must be deliberate planning for racial harmony. As Klugman director of the U.S. Department of Justice in Jones [1994:37] says:

We don't believe that you bring in someone to train your staff in something called 'cultural sensitivity' or 'cultural diversity' and that somehow, this training changes attitudes and solves your problems. To change behavior one needs a work plan with time lines and a system of rewards and penalties.

6.4.9 SUMMARY

In this chapter demographic information was firstly presented and analysed. Thereafter the major themes that emerged from the in-depth, open-ended interviews with principals were presented and analysed.

What emerges from the responses of principals of especially disadvantaged schools (former DET and HOD schools) is that principals are not coping adequately with the changing reality. This is so because of various environmental factors that impact on their management role.

Essentially, the disintegration aspects of pre-1994 school management context still exist. Former DET schools are still very much under-resourced, the culture of teaching and learning has not yet been restored and teacher militancy seems to grow. Teachers have not yet come to terms with the demands of change, and are therefore obstructing the realisation of the aims of the Act. In their regular protest actions, teachers are frustrating the principal.

At the end of the day what is required is the acceptance by the school of a new value system for a new democratic order. Educational change is very much dependent on organisational culture and organisational culture is very closely linked to values (see section 2.6). If the principal is to manage educational change successfully, then he/she has to put much energy into changing organisational culture.

The principals' frustrations are also evident insofar as learners are concerned. The fact that the principals are not allowed to administer corporal punishment is of concern to them. Finally, principals of disadvantaged schools are also concerned about the parents' failure to enact their responsibilities as required by the South African Schools Act. Such a situation has affected the principals' ability to manage their schools effectively and efficiently.

On the other hand, principals of former Model C schools are relatively speaking, better placed to manage effectively. Governing bodies of former Model C schools function much more effectively and the principals benefit from this co-operation.

The next chapter will be devoted to recommendations and conclusions.

CHAPTER 7

CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

7.1 INTRODUCTION

Chapter 1 set out the problem statement that gave rise to this investigation. The objectives of the study were clearly articulated and pointed the direction in which the study will proceed.

Chapter 2 clarified some key concepts and grounded them in operational definitions.

Chapter 3 investigated the restructuring of the system of education in England and Wales on the one hand and the United States of America on the other.

Chapter 4 similarly investigated the restructuring process in the Republic of South Africa.

Chapter 5 set out in detail the methodology to be employed while Chapter 6 analysed the questionnaires and also presented, discussed and analysed the key themes of the unstructured interview.

The major currents of education change in the present school context demands a specific management response from the principal. The reality of this study suggests that the principals and schools which require the greatest management resources are most likely to experience management failure as a result of principals being surrounded by conflicting demands and often left unable to steer a path out of the chaos. This chapter provides a synthesis of findings and also makes recommendations for the improvement of the situation.

7.2 SYNTHESIS OF FINDINGS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

The significant themes that were discussed and others that have emerged during the qualitative investigation are synthesised here and integrated with prior research and theory as indicated in the previous chapters. The key elements of the themes are presented below.

7.2.1 THE SOUTH AFRICAN SCHOOLS ACT

7.2.1.1 The Governing Body

Generally speaking, the establishment of a governing body has been welcomed by principals (see section 6.4.2.2). However, the following seem to be the more specific areas of concern which affected their management of the school:

- * There was often no quorum at the election of parents resulting in delays or election of parents who are not best suited for the task (see section 6.4.2.4.1).
- * Apathy among parents in educational management and school-wide issues (see section 6.4.2.4.1).
- * Absence of meaningful parent and teacher participation especially in former DET and HOD schools (see section 6.4.2.4.2).
- * Absence of meaningful learner- and non-educator participation (see sections 6.2.2.6; 6.2.2.7.1 and 6.2.2.7.2).

Generally, it seems that power relations in the management of the school left some principals confused as they were facing new, conflicting pressures and can no longer rely on position power.

Therefore it is recommended that:

- *Intensive training for governing bodies be started as a matter of urgency. Training in the exercise of their powers, the conduct of meetings, the control of school budgets, fundraising strategies, the conduct of interviews for appointment of educators to the school and conflict resolution.*
- *Governing bodies of disadvantaged schools should be given priority attention for training.*
- *The principal together with the governing body and other stakeholders should begin to develop a shared vision for the school.*
- *The governing body should begin to develop jointly with other stakeholders educational goals for the school.*
- *All principals should be afforded intensive training in the management of change.*

7.2.1.2 Corporal Punishment

The impact on school management is:

- * Frustrations on the part of principals and teachers.
- * Principals had to develop alternative strategies which were not always successful.
- * Negative influence on the culture of learning and teaching (see section 6.4.2.3).

Therefore it is recommended that:

- *Principals and teachers be trained in making use of alternative strategies (see section 6.4.2.3).*
- *The governing body ought to take a more active role in learner- discipline.*
- *Relationship-building experiences as expounded by Diamond [1992:142] need to be encouraged (see section 6.4.2.3).*
- *Principals should proactively develop better communication channels with parents (see section 6.4.2.3).*
- *Greater emphasis should be placed on a culture of co-responsibility at schools.*

7.2.1.3 Code of Conduct

The principals were generally supportive of the introduction of a code of conduct for learners (see sections 6.4.2.4; 1.2 and 4.9). Some of their specific reservations and qualifiers about the utility of the concept from a school management perspective were:

- * The code of conduct had to be adhered to by all learners.
- * The punitive measures in the code of conduct must be implementable.

From the foregoing it is recommended that:

- *The code of conduct has firstly to be designed by all stakeholders and must spell out clearly in unambiguous language of the repercussions to defaulters when rules are broken.*

- *From a management perspective it is important to note that the code of conduct does not violate any constitutional principles (see section 6.4.2.3).*
- *The marketing and popularising of the code of conduct is absolutely vital. The school community, that is parents, teachers, non-educators and learners must become aware of the code of conduct.*
- *The code of conduct be periodically reviewed in the light of new and changing circumstances. Periodic review will ensure the “buy-in” from the relevant stakeholders and that is crucial if the code of conduct is to be successfully implemented.*

7.2.1.4 Learner Representative Council (LRC)

The principals welcome the establishment of learner representative councils at their schools but they expressed the following concerns:

- * Learners do not know how to make effective use of the newly acquired powers.
- * Learners are not playing out their roles in a meaningful way.
- * Political tensions in the LRC (see sections 6.4.2.5 and 4.5).

Therefore it is recommended that:

- *The Department of Education and Training organise purposefully designed and well structured training workshops for LRC members. Besides focussing on empowerment issues, such workshops will have to spend considerable time on strategies that will depoliticise elections for the LRC.*

7.2.1.5 Language Policy

Generally speaking principals are keen to have English as the medium of instruction. While they recognise constitutional principles in terms of the country's official languages, the principals mention the following as practical problems:

- * Schools have not as yet developed language policies (see sections 6.4.2.6 and 4.7).
- * The rightsizing exercise has resulted in restrictions to the choice of languages being offered.
- * In some cases there are no qualified teachers to teach in the vernacular languages.
- * The small numbers that choose to be taught in a particular language are not cost-effective.

From the foregoing it is recommended that:

- *All old language policy documents be evaluated for their validity in terms of the new education vision.*
- *Schools develop language policies as a matter of priority.*
- *The State train teachers to teach in the vernacular languages.*
- *The State begins to develop indigenous languages to the status enjoyed by English and Afrikaans.*

7.2.1.6 School Funding and School Fees

The views expressed with respect to fund raising by principals of former Model C schools stand in sharp contrast to principals of former HOD and former DET schools. The former Model C schools are quite prepared to raise their own funds and in fact enjoy a healthy relationship with their school community. The principals of former DET and former HOD schools believe that the government needs to adopt a position of reverse discrimination. They believe it will not be possible to raise funds within their own communities because of:

- * Apathy on the part of the governing body.
- * The disadvantaged community is already overtaxed.
- * The school community is too poor.
- * A belief that the state must take responsibility for funding (see sections 6.4.2.7; 4.11 and 1.1).

It is therefore recommended that:

- *The school and other stakeholders develop policy on fundraising.*
- *Governing body members be trained in fundraising strategies.*
- *The State deliberately make more resources available to disadvantaged schools.*
- *The parent community is informed by the department of education about the requirements of the South African School Act.*
- *The State begins to introduce legislation to deal with fee dodgers.*

7.2.1.7 Open Enrolment

Principals are generally in favour of the requirement in the Act. Specific points of view here were:

- * Some form of testing is essential for students coming from disadvantaged schools to the advantaged schools.
- * Extra classes organised for disadvantaged learners were not well attended due to bussing arrangements.
- * Because of poor quality education in the township schools, parents prefer enrolling their children at former HOD and Model C schools.
- * Learners spend considerable time travelling to and from school and that impacts on their learning.
- * Teachers lack strategies to address the learning needs of disadvantaged learners (see sections 6.4.2.8; 4.6 and 1.2).

From the foregoing it is recommended that:

- *The development of admission policies jointly by all stakeholders.*
- *Serious attention be given to in-service and pre-service training for teachers.*
- *Review of policy concerning bussing.*
- *The extension of the school day and/or week to cater for disadvantaged learners.*

- *The State ought to divert more resources to disadvantaged schools to bring them up to the required standards.*
- *The State should develop clear legislation policies and strategies to deal with unprofessional educators.*

7.2.1.8 Freedom of Conscience

Principals are cognisant of the fact that freedom of belief is allowed in the Constitution of the country. Consequently:

- * Schools and/or pupils are not compelled to attend any religious ceremonies organised by the school.
- * Special arrangements are made for those pupils that object on religious grounds.
- * In some instances “freedom of conscience” impacts negatively on school management (see sections 6.4.2.9 and 4.8).

Therefore it is recommended that:

- *The school develops policy on how this concept will be accommodated in the management of the school.*
- *The school needs to devise interim measures in the absence of policy over the “freedom of conscience” clause in the Act.*

7.2.2 THE CULTURE OF LEARNING AND TEACHING

The culture of learning and teaching in former DET schools has suffered because of the following:

- * Poor teacher quality.
- * Teacher strikes.
- * Vandalism.
- * Poorly resourced schools.
- * Unmotivated and undisciplined learners.
- * The practice of nepotism by the GED.
- * The obstructive role of the GED (see sections 6.4.3; 1.2; and 3.9).

It is therefore recommended:

- *That all major stakeholders play a major role in the restoration of a culture of teaching and learning, especially in former disadvantaged schools.*
- *The department of education must develop new policies, new legislation and new structures to address issues of insubordination, misconduct and student and parent violation of policies that threaten the culture of learning and teaching.*

- *Extensive management training for principals must be organised to deal with new challenges posed by parents, teachers and learners.*
- *The department of education should publicise best practice models through making use of journals, periodicals and news media like the radio, television and newspapers.*
- *The department of education should also consider concluding performance agreements with schools.*

7.2.3 OUTCOMES-BASED EDUCATION (OBE)

Generally speaking principals believe the following factors will work against the successful implementation of OBE namely:

- * Teachers are not trained in OBE.
- * A lack of a culture of learning and teaching, especially at former DET schools.
- * Poorly resourced schools.
- * Large class numbers.
- * Departmental officials who are poorly informed.
- * Poor communication between the department of education and schools (see sections 6.4.4; 3.12.1 and 3.9).
- * Time-tabling problems.

It is therefore recommended that:

- *The department of education communicates effectively and timeously with schools.*
- *Principals, teachers and subject advisors are given intensive training in the handling of OBE.*
- *Training for principals to think differently about time-tabling.*
- *The department of education begins to adequately resource schools.*
- *The creation of new policies to promote the culture of learning and teaching.*

7.2.4 EDUCATIONAL ASSESSMENTS AND STANDARDS

Principals are generally keen on continuous assessment as a technique to assess learners. However, their concerns centre on:

- * The inability of teachers to make effective use of continuous assessments.
- * The difficulty experienced in standardisation.
- * The lack of assistance from subject advisors (see sections 6.4.6; 4.12.2; 3.4.1 and 3.8).

It is therefore recommended that:

- *Policy documents on assessment be sent timeously to schools.*
- *Teachers and subject advisors undergo intensive training in the use of the CASS Model.*

- *Parents and learners are made to realise the implications of the new assessing procedures.*
- *Parents be trained in the use of the CASS Model such that they can be of assistance to their children at home (see section 4.12.2).*

7.2.5 APPRAISAL OF EDUCATORS

An analysis of the principals' responses reveals:

- * Schools do not have a policy on teacher appraisal.
- * Hardly any supervision/appraisal takes place at schools.
- * Teachers especially in the disadvantaged schools have resisted any attempt by the school to conduct supervision.
- * Most principals are awaiting directives from the GED on teacher appraisal.
- * All principals believe that a system of appraisal is very necessary (see sections 6.4.5; 3.4.8 and 3.13).

From the foregoing it is recommended that:

- *The department of education urgently finalise policy around appraisals and supervision.*
- *All relevant stakeholders must have input into such policies.*
- *Such policies must be effectively communicated to schools.*

- *Training for teacher and management staff in the implementation of the new appraisal documents must receive urgent attention.*
- *Merit, promotion and increment notches be linked to appraisals.*

7.2.6 SOUTH AFRICAN COUNCIL FOR EDUCATORS (SACE)

Principals believe that:

- * SACE will restore credibility to the profession.
- * Teachers will be held accountable.
- * The recommendations of SACE insofar as misconduct is concerned must be implemented (see section 6.4.7).

It is therefore recommended that:

- *The department of education ensures that all educators have knowledge of SACE.*
- *Parents are informed of SACE.*
- *All teachers must be made aware of the implications to themselves in cases of misconduct.*
- *Principals must receive training in understanding their role within the context of SACE.*

7.2.7 TEACHER-PUPIL RATIO

The rightsizing exercise has impacted negatively on management. Principals believe that rightsizing has led to:

- * Increased teacher-pupil ratio which is not conducive to effective learning.
- * Teachers are not trained in handling large classes (see sections 6.4.8.1 and 6.4.4).

It is therefore recommended that:

- *The department of education rethink its policy on rightsizing.*
- *Teachers undergo training in the management of large classes.*

7.2.8 EXTRA CURRICULAR AND CO-CURRICULAR ACTIVITIES

Principals have noted that:

- * Disadvantaged learners cannot participate in extra curricular and co-curricular activities because of bussing arrangement (see section 6.4.8.2 and items 14 and 15 of Principal D's questionnaire - Appendix 3).

It is recommended that:

- *Principals begin negotiations with the authorities with respect to bussing times.*
- *Principals may want to negotiate with teachers and learners to make Saturdays available for such activities.*

7.2.9 RACIAL TENSIONS

A principal mentioned that racial tensions were surfacing at his school. (see section 6.4.8.3). This is to be expected as previously separated communities with their own culture and ethos cannot be expected to live and work in harmony in a new and unfamiliar environment. As integration of schools increases:

- * Racial tensions will be heightened.
- * The scope for conflict will be increased (see section 4.6).

It is therefore recommended that:

- *The school develops a policy on the promotion of sound race relations.*
- *The principal has to ensure that policy is adhered to by all concerned.*
- *The department of education acts decisively on issues concerning race.*

7.3 CONCLUSION

A new government has come into being which is intent through its reconstruction and development programme to address the imbalances of the past and to build a better life for all. Reconstruction and Development targets the social, economic and political issues in South Africa. Educational reconstruction and transformation are priority areas for government. In this context the educational environment is changing at a rapid pace. Invariably this educational change impacts on school management. The school principal is at the centre of this change and this raises the question whether the principal is equipped to manage schools effectively and efficiently in a changing dynamic school environment.

This new situation represents an increase in the degree of uncertainty and ambiguity, and principals will have to develop coping strategies to meet those challenges confidently. Many are beset by pressures which seem to leave them mentally exhausted and managerially incapable of looking beyond the day-to-day crises of the present. The result often is stagnation and at times a worsening of the educational context of schools. But for success in terms of a new, democratic education vision, change is critically essential.

Many of the present principals have served under the old order working for and serving a different culture. Schools under the previous government were driven by different sets of values. These principals, many of whom are set in their ways, will now have to adjust their management styles to suit the new democratic order.

That won't be easy. The challenge for the principal in this period of turbulence and transition is to manage in a way that enhances the achievement of school goals. It is therefore encouraging to note that the national Department of Educational and Training has realised the need for training and retraining for principals. The report of the task team on education management and development is a first step towards addressing managerial and leadership needs of serving principals [Department of Education 1996b].

Morgan [1988:4] says "increasing turbulence and change will require organisations and their managers to adopt a more proactive and entrepreneurial relationship with the environment, to anticipate and manage emergent problems and to create new initiatives and new directions for development." This is most certainly very true for South African school principals. Educational change is the cause of this turbulent school environment and principals need to respond imaginatively to this change. The researcher would like to believe that management development courses for school managers will equip them to better manage educational change.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX 1

Letters of Authority to conduct research in District N3 and N4

APPENDIX 2

LETTERS TO PRINCIPALS

APPENDIX 3

Complete Questionnaires - Principals A, B, C, D, E and F



**GAUTENG DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION
GAUTENG DEPARTEMENT VAN ONDERWYS**

DISTRICT/ DISTRIK N4

Enquiries/Navrae: Mr Makobe
Ref/Verwys No:
Tel No: (012) 303-4453
Fax/Faks: (012) 303-2200/2535

Private Bag X945
Privaatsak X945
PRETORIA
0001

2 June 1997

**Mr K P Govender
Department of Welfare
P/Bag X 901
PRETORIA
0001**

Fax: (012) 312-7684

Dear Mr Govender

PERMISSION TO CONDUCT RESEARCH

The directorate of District N4 grants you permission to conduct your research in schools within the district with the understanding that such an activity would not in any way hinder the normal running of schools.

The response to your request will be left to the discretion of the school to be visited.

Wishing you success.

A handwritten signature in black ink, appearing to read 'T S Makobe', written over a horizontal line.

**T S MAKOBE
CHIEF EDUCATION SPECIALIST**



GAUTENG DEPARTEMENT VAN ONDERWYS
DISTRICT N3 / DISTRIK N3

Cnr Walker & Gerard Moerdyk St:
SUNNYSIDE

H/v Walker & Gerard Moerdyk Str.
SUNNYSIDE

Private Bag X27825
SUNNYSIDE
0132

Privaatsak X27825
SUNNYSIDE
0132

Enquiries:

Navras:

Ref.:

Verw.:

Tel.: (012) 341-6362/9

Fax no.: (012) 341-6844 or

Faksnr.: (012) 341-6362

1997-05-20

Mr K P Govender
Private Bag X901
PRETORIA
0001

Dear Mr Govender

PERMISSION TO GARRY OUT EDUCATIONAL RESEARCH

We hereby grant our permission for you to conduct interviews with our schools' management.

If our DEC's can be of any assistance to you, please feel free to contact Mr Andre van der Hoven.

We wish you well with this important task you have undertaken and are looking forward in anticipation to seeing the fruits of your labours.

Yours sincerely

DR A A PIENAAR
DIRECTOR: DISTRICT N3

Address correspondence to the Director: District N3 at above postal address and quote reference number
Rig korrespondensie aan die Direkteur: Distrik N3 by bogenoemde posadres en meld verwysingsnommer

N6.WP/mk

APPENDIX 2

LETTERS TO PRINCIPALS

Mr K P Govender
P O Box 60582
Pierre van Ryneveld
CENTURION
0045

Tel: (012) 312-7673/4
Fax: (012) 312-7684
Cell: 082 808 7519

1 August 1997

The Principal

.....
.....
.....
.....

Dear Sir

RE: INTERVIEW - THE INFLUENCE OF A CHANGING SCHOOL ENVIRONMENT ON SCHOOL MANAGEMENT

1. I want to thank you most sincerely for acceding to my request to be interviewed.
2. The changing school environment for the purposes of my research constitutes the following:
 - 2.1 The South African Schools Act.
 - 2.2 The Curriculum ie Outcomes-Based Education, Educational Assessments and Standards.
 - 2.3 Appraisal of Educators and Salary Progression Notches.
 - 2.4 South African Council of Educators (SACE).
3. The in-depth interview will seek to elicit your perceptions of, your feelings and your attitude towards the changes brought about through the introduction of the above (2.1 - 2.4) into the South African schooling system. My research seeks to gauge how principals perceive this change and what the impact thereof is on school management.

4. I have also attached a simple questionnaire to be filled by you. The purpose of the questionnaire is to establish the management context that prevails in your school. Kindly fill in the questionnaire and post to the above address.
5. I am looking forward to meeting with you.

Yours faithfully

MR K P GOVENDER

APPENDIX 3

Complete Questionnaires - Principals A, B, C, D, E and F

SCHOOL A

PRINCIPAL QUESTIONNAIRE

The purpose of this short questionnaire is to establish the overall environmental profile of the school. The questionnaire seeks information on:

- * the demography of the school;
- * academic results;
- * extra-curricula programmes; and
- * the global context of the school.

Kindly complete the questionnaire as accurately as possible. I will be collecting the questionnaire when I call at your school.

**ALL INFORMATION WILL BE TREATED AS CONFIDENTIAL
NO NAMES OF SCHOOLS OR PERSONNEL WILL BE RELEASED.**

A. DEMOGRAPHIC DATA

1. Number of students on roll:

Male	659
Female	473
Total	1132

2. Number of students that are

White	984
Black	142
Coloured	6
Indian	-

3. Number of level 1 educators

Male	4
Female	29
Total	33

4. Number of level 1 educators that are:

Black	-
White	33
Coloured	-
Indian	-

5. Number on management staff:

Male	4
Female	3
Total	7

6. Number on management staff that are:

Black	-
White	7
Coloured	-
Indian	-

7. Qualifications of staff:

	NUMBER
Teachers Diploma	5
Graduate Degrees	24
Honours Degrees	10
Masters Degrees	-
Doctorate Degrees	1

B ACADEMIC INFORMATION

8. What has been the matriculation pass rate for:

1996	97%
1995	98%
1994	100%
1993	97%

9. What percentage of candidates obtained exemption passes for:

1996	31, %
1995	34,1%
1994	31,2%
1993	33,2%

10. What factors impacted either positively or negatively on the matriculation results?

Negative: Uncertainty of validity of papers due to leaks. Accounting was postponed.

C. EXTRA-CURRICULAR PROGRAMMES

11. What are the most popular extra-curricular programmes in your school?

Athletics

Rugby

Cricket

Netball

Hockey

Softball

Cross-country running

12. Approximately what percentage of students participate in each of the programmes listed above?

1. Athletics	30%
2. Rugby	27%
3. Cricket	25%
4. Netball	24%
5. Hockey	13%
6. Softball	15%
7. Cross-country running	6%

13. Were there any students selected to represent the zone, region, or province?

Please tick the appropriate box.

YES	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>
NO	<input type="checkbox"/>

If yes, how many? Province: 12 National: 1

14. What factors if any impacted on the overall success of the programmes?

Qualified teachers as coaches.

Motivation and hard work.

D. GLOBAL CONTEXT

15. What is the socio-economic condition of your school's catchment area?

Average but lower income group is growing.

16. Has the school been relatively stable in the last two years?

Please tick the appropriate box.

YES	<input type="checkbox"/>
NO	<input type="checkbox"/>

If no please elaborate.

17. Are there any factors in the social environment that impact positively on the overall management activities of the school?

Please tick appropriate box.

YES	<input type="checkbox"/>
NO	<input type="checkbox"/>

If yes, please describe these factors?

18. Are there any factors in the social environment that adversely affect the overall management activities of the school?

Please tick appropriate box.

YES	<input type="checkbox"/>
NO	<input type="checkbox"/>

If yes, please describe these factors.

19. Kindly rank the factors identified in term 18 above in terms of impact on your school?
(If applicable)

THANK YOU FOR YOUR CO-OPERATION

SCHOOL B

PRINCIPAL QUESTIONNAIRE

The purpose of this short questionnaire is to establish the overall environmental profile of the school. The questionnaire seeks information on:

- * the demography of the school;
- * academic results;
- * extra-curricula programmes; and
- * the global context of the school.

Kindly complete the questionnaire as accurately as possible. I will be collecting the questionnaire when I call at your school.

**ALL INFORMATION WILL BE TREATED AS CONFIDENTIAL
NO NAMES OF SCHOOLS OR PERSONNEL WILL BE RELEASED.**

A. DEMOGRAPHIC DATA

1. Number of students on roll:

Male	426
Female	594
Total	1020

2. Number of students that are

White	494
Black	489
Coloured	4
Indian	30
Other	7

3. Number of level 1 educators

Male	9
Female	23
Total	32

4. Number of level 1 educators that are:

Black	2
White	30
Coloured	-
Indian	-

5. Number on management staff:

Male	1
Female	4
Total	5

6. Number on management staff that are:

Black	-
White	5
Coloured	-
Indian	-

7. Qualifications of staff:

	NUMBER
Teachers Diploma	6
Graduate Degrees	20
Honours Degrees	7
Masters Degrees	2
Doctorate Degrees	2

B ACADEMIC INFORMATION

8. What has been the matriculation pass rate for:

1996	99%
1995	94,2%
1994	95,9%
1993	95,8%

9. What percentage of candidates obtained exemption passes for:

1996	not available
1995	not available
1994	37,7%
1993	40%

10. What factors impacted either positively or negatively on the matriculation results?

C. EXTRA-CURRICULAR PROGRAMMES

11. What are the most popular extra-curricular programmes in your school?

- Sport _____
- Soccer _____
- Netball _____
- Hockey _____
- Table tennis _____
- Basketball _____
- Cricket _____
- Tennis _____
- Badminton _____

12. Approximately what percentage of students participate in each of the programmes listed above?

- 60% _____
- _____
- _____
- _____
- _____
- _____

13. Were there any students selected to represent the zone, region, or province?

Please tick the appropriate box.

YES	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>
NO	<input type="checkbox"/>

If yes, how many? ± 10 _____

14. What factors if any impacted on the overall success of the programmes?

- Improvement in 1997 due to staff being remunerated. _____
- _____
- _____
- _____

D. GLOBAL CONTEXT

15. What is the socio-economic condition of your school's catchment area?

Very poor to middle-class.

16. Has the school been relatively stable in the last two years?

Please tick the appropriate box.

YES	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>
NO	<input type="checkbox"/>

If no please elaborate.

N/A.

17. Are there any factors in the social environment that impact positively on the overall management activities of the school?

Please tick appropriate box.

YES	<input type="checkbox"/>
NO	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>

If yes, please describe these factors?

18. Are there any factors in the social environment that adversely affect the overall management activities of the school?

Please tick appropriate box.

YES	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>
NO	<input type="checkbox"/>

If yes, please describe these factors.

Only 40 pupils stay within walking distance. Pupils are bussed in. Parents find it difficult to attend meetings. Many parents can't speak English.

19. Kindly rank the factors identified in term 18 above in terms of impact on your school? (If applicable)

THANK YOU FOR YOUR CO-OPERATION

SCHOOL C

PRINCIPAL QUESTIONNAIRE

The purpose of this short questionnaire is to establish the overall environmental profile of the school. The questionnaire seeks information on:

- * the demography of the school;
- * academic results;
- * extra-curricula programmes; and
- * the global context of the school.

Kindly complete the questionnaire as accurately as possible. I will be collecting the questionnaire when I call at your school.

ALL INFORMATION WILL BE TREATED AS CONFIDENTIAL
NO NAMES OF SCHOOLS OR PERSONNEL WILL BE RELEASED.

A. DEMOGRAPHIC DATA

1. Number of students on roll:

Male	282
Female	316
Total	598

2. Number of students that are

White	-
Black	412
Coloured	13
Indian	173

3. Number of level 1 educators

Male	6
Female	12
Total	18

4. Number of level 1 educators that are:

Black	5
White	-
Coloured	-
Indian	13

5. Number on management staff:

Male	4
Female	2
Total	6

6. Number on management staff that are:

Black	-
White	-
Coloured	-
Indian	6

7. Qualifications of staff:

	NUMBER
Teachers Diploma	13
Graduate Degrees	6
Honours Degrees	3
Masters Degrees	2
Doctorate Degrees	-

B ACADEMIC INFORMATION

8. What has been the matriculation pass rate for:

1996	-
1995	-
1994	-
1993	-

9. What percentage of candidates obtained exemption passes for:

1996	-
1995	-
1994	-
1993	-

10. What factors impacted either positively or negatively on the matriculation results?

C. EXTRA-CURRICULAR PROGRAMMES

11. What are the most popular extra-curricular programmes in your school?

Soccer
Netball
Volley ball

12. Approximately what percentage of students participate in each of the programmes listed above?

Soccer 50%
Netball 30%
Volley ball 30%

13. Were there any students selected to represent the zone, region, or province?

Please tick the appropriate box.

YES	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>
NO	<input type="checkbox"/>

If yes, how many? Six - regional cricket.

14. What factors if any impacted on the overall success of the programmes?

1. Teacher dedication
2. Pupil participation.

D. GLOBAL CONTEXT

15. What is the socio-economic condition of your school's catchment area?

Poor to middle-class.

16. Has the school been relatively stable in the last two years?

Please tick the appropriate box.

YES	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>
NO	<input type="checkbox"/>

If no please elaborate.

17. Are there any factors in the social environment that impact positively on the overall management activities of the school?

Please tick appropriate box.

YES	<input type="checkbox"/>
NO	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>

If yes, please describe these factors?

18. Are there any factors in the social environment that adversely affect the overall management activities of the school?

Please tick appropriate box.

YES	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>
NO	<input type="checkbox"/>

If yes, please describe these factors.

19. Kindly rank the factors identified in term 18 above in terms of impact on your school?
(If applicable)

THANK YOU FOR YOUR CO-OPERATION

SCHOOL D

PRINCIPAL QUESTIONNAIRE

The purpose of this short questionnaire is to establish the overall environmental profile of the school. The questionnaire seeks information on:

- * the demography of the school;
- * academic results;
- * extra-curricula programmes; and
- * the global context of the school.

Kindly complete the questionnaire as accurately as possible. I will be collecting the questionnaire when I call at your school.

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A. DEMOGRAPHIC DATA

1. Number of students on roll:

Male	451
Female	544
Total	995

2. Number of students that are

White	-
Black	424
Coloured	15
Indian	556

3. Number of level 1 educators

Male	12
Female	27
Total	39

4. Number of level 1 educators that are:

Black	4
White	4
Coloured	-
Indian	31

5. Number on management staff:

Male	4
Female	1
Total	5

6. Number on management staff that are:

Black	-
White	-
Coloured	-
Indian	5

7. Qualifications of staff:

	NUMBER
Teachers Diploma	26
Graduate Degrees	13
Honours Degrees	3
Masters Degrees	-
Doctorate Degrees	-

B ACADEMIC INFORMATION

8. What has been the matriculation pass rate for:

1996	40%
1995	91%
1994	100%
1993	98%

9. What percentage of candidates obtained exemption passes for:

1996	22
1995	49
1994	70
1993	80

10. What factors impacted either positively or negatively on the matriculation results?

Promotion posts attained by Level 1 Matric Teachers to other schools, left the pupils
without Matric subject Teachers for some time. Late completion of syllabus.

The new format of exam. papers.

There were no positive factors.

Some pupils doubted the credibility of their exam. results.

C. EXTRA-CURRICULAR PROGRAMMES

11. What are the most popular extra-curricular programmes in your school?

- 1. Invitation to teachers to deal with certain sections to enable pupils to have a better grasp.
- 2. Video films on set works after school.
- 3. Physical Science - Star Schools - Programmes.
- 4. Debates - English and Afrikaans.
- 5. Visit to Lepalala - Biology Excursions. Field Studies.

12. Approximately what percentage of students participate in each of the programmes listed above?

To all cases ± 10%.

13. Were there any students selected to represent the zone, region, or province?

Please tick the appropriate box.

YES	<input type="checkbox"/>
NO	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>

If yes, how many? _____

14. What factors if any impacted on the overall success of the programmes?

- Money - the majority of the pupils lack financial assistance.
- Transport - pupils ±52% come from areas outside the school catchment areas.
- They have to take their transport back on time.
- Participation.

D. GLOBAL CONTEXT

15. What is the socio-economic condition of your school's catchment area?

From the catchment area ±20% of the pupils attend the school.
Their socio-economic condition ranges from middle-class to below average.
The majority of pupils travel by bus.

16. Has the school been relatively stable in the last two years?

Please tick the appropriate box.

YES	<input type="checkbox"/>
NO	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>

If no please elaborate.

Pupils who can afford the fees of private schools and the more developed ex-model C schools prefer to attend those schools.
In 1996 ±72 pupils from Grade 9 going to Grade 10 in 1997 received admittance at other schools of their choice.
Throughout the year we experience pupils moving from one school to another.

17. Are there any factors in the social environment that impact positively on the overall management activities of the school?

Please tick appropriate box.

YES	<input type="checkbox"/>
NO	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>

If yes, please describe these factors?

18. Are there any factors in the social environment that adversely affect the overall management activities of the school?

Please tick appropriate box.

YES	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>
NO	<input type="checkbox"/>

If yes, please describe these factors.

1. Drugs - a problem that has lowered the morale of the school.
2. Violent behaviour of pupils - fighting.
3. Vandalism and damage to school property by pupils living around the school.
4. Theft.
5. Teacher Abuse.

19. Kindly rank the factors identified in term 18 above in terms of impact on your school?
(If applicable)

- Drugs - Learning at the lowest ebb.
- Teacher Abuse - Pupils know teachers can't do anything.
Even parents are insulting and are always defending the pupils.
- Theft - Constant supervision that the innocent don't lose their monies and property.

THANK YOU FOR YOUR CO-OPERATION

SCHOOL E

PRINCIPAL QUESTIONNAIRE

The purpose of this short questionnaire is to establish the overall environmental profile of the school. The questionnaire seeks information on:

- * the demography of the school;
- * academic results;
- * extra-curricula programmes; and
- * the global context of the school.

Kindly complete the questionnaire as accurately as possible. I will be collecting the questionnaire when I call at your school.

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A. DEMOGRAPHIC DATA

1. Number of students on roll:

Male	536
Female	577
Total	1113

2. Number of students that are

White	-
Black	1113
Coloured	-
Indian	-

3. Number of level 1 educators

Male	17
Female	18
Total	36

4. Number of level 1 educators that are:

Black	35
White	-
Coloured	-
Indian	-

5. Number on management staff:

Male	7
Female	1
Total	8

6. Number on management staff that are:

Black	8
White	-
Coloured	-
Indian	-

7. Qualifications of staff:

	NUMBER
Teachers Diploma	16
Graduate Degrees	9
Honours Degrees	9
Masters Degrees	-
Doctorate Degrees	-

B ACADEMIC INFORMATION

8. What has been the matriculation pass rate for:

1996	80,2%
1995	58%
1994	49%
1993	65%

9. What percentage of candidates obtained exemption passes for:

1996	
1995	
1994	
1993	

10. What factors impacted either positively or negatively on the matriculation results?

Chalkdown 1994 pass rate

C. EXTRA-CURRICULAR PROGRAMMES

11. What are the most popular extra-curricular programmes in your school?

FootballNetballTennisVolley ballKarateDramaChoir

12. Approximately what percentage of students participate in each of the programmes listed above?

1. Football 4%2. Netball 4%3. Tennis 3%4. Volley ball 2%5. Karate 6%6. Drama 10%7. Choir 15%

13. Were there any students selected to represent the zone, region, or province?

Please tick the appropriate box.

YES	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>
NO	<input type="checkbox"/>

If yes, how many? Athletics - 9; Speech - 1 and Tennis 4

14. What factors if any impacted on the overall success of the programmes?

Continuous training of pupils.

D. GLOBAL CONTEXT

15. What is the socio-economic condition of your school's catchment area?

It is heterogeneous. Made up of lower and middle-class people.

16. Has the school been relatively stable in the last two years?

Please tick the appropriate box.

YES	<input type="checkbox"/>
NO	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>

If no please elaborate.

1. Vandalism, the removal of the fence causes disorder.
 2. The sporadic strikes during school hours.
- _____

17. Are there any factors in the social environment that impact positively on the overall management activities of the school?

Please tick appropriate box.

YES	<input type="checkbox"/>
NO	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>

If yes, please describe these factors?

18. Are there any factors in the social environment that adversely affect the overall management activities of the school?

Please tick appropriate box.

YES	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>
NO	<input type="checkbox"/>

If yes, please describe these factors.

1. Sporadic strikes by teacher organisation.

19. Kindly rank the factors identified in term 18 above in terms of impact on your school?
(If applicable)

N/A

THANK YOU FOR YOUR CO-OPERATION

SCHOOL F

PRINCIPAL QUESTIONNAIRE

The purpose of this short questionnaire is to establish the overall environmental profile of the school. The questionnaire seeks information on:

- * the demography of the school;
- * academic results;
- * extra-curricula programmes; and
- * the global context of the school.

Kindly complete the questionnaire as accurately as possible. I will be collecting the questionnaire when I call at your school.

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A. DEMOGRAPHIC DATA

1. Number of students on roll:

Male	507
Female	509
Total	1016

2. Number of students that are

White	NIL
Black	1016
Coloured	NIL
Indian	NIL

3. Number of level 1 educators

Male	12
Female	16
Total	28

4. Number of level 1 educators that are:

Black	29
White	-
Coloured	-
Indian	-

5. Number on management staff:

Male	4
Female	2
Total	6

6. Number on management staff that are:

Black	6
White	-
Coloured	-
Indian	-

7. Qualifications of staff:

	NUMBER
Teachers Diploma	34
Graduate Degrees	12
Honours Degrees	4
Masters Degrees	-
Doctorate Degrees	-

B ACADEMIC INFORMATION

8. What has been the matriculation pass rate for:

1996	63%
1995	62%
1994	58%
1993	52%

9. What percentage of candidates obtained exemption passes for:

1996	10%
1995	8%
1994	12%
1993	6%

10. What factors impacted either positively or negatively on the matriculation results?

1. The general attitude among teachers and students towards learning and teaching is not good enough.
2. The support expected from parents is at zero level.
3. The support expected from GED is not good enough.
4. Lack of discipline among both teachers and students.
5. Lack of dedication from teachers.

C. EXTRA-CURRICULAR PROGRAMMES

11. What are the most popular extra-curricular programmes in your school?

Soccer and Netball.

12. Approximately what percentage of students participate in each of the programmes listed above?

1%.
Sport participation is only at competitive level - No competition no sport.

13. Were there any students selected to represent the zone, region, or province?

Please tick the appropriate box.

YES	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>
NO	<input type="checkbox"/>

If yes, how many? About 3.

14. What factors if any impacted on the overall success of the programmes?

There are no teachers who are motivated enough to go that extra mile of encouraging, supervising and training enthusiastic learners in sport or any extra curricula activities.

D. GLOBAL CONTEXT

15. What is the socio-economic condition of your school's catchment area?

The school services the poorest section of Atteridgeville.

16. Has the school been relatively stable in the last two years?

Please tick the appropriate box.

YES	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>
NO	<input type="checkbox"/>

If no please elaborate.

17. Are there any factors in the social environment that impact positively on the overall management activities of the school?

Please tick appropriate box.

YES	<input type="checkbox"/>
NO	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>

If yes, please describe these factors?

18. Are there any factors in the social environment that adversely affect the overall management activities of the school?

Please tick appropriate box.

YES	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>
NO	<input type="checkbox"/>

If yes, please describe these factors.

1. Poverty.
2. Lack of family cohesion and guidance.
3. Drugs (dagga).
4. The absence of meaningful participation by the parent community.
5. Lack of a cohesive coherent guiding value system.
6. Lack of direction from the GDE.

19. Kindly rank the factors identified in term 18 above in terms of impact on your school? (If applicable)

1. Poverty.
2. Absence of participation.
3. Lack of family cohesion.

THANK YOU FOR YOUR CO-OPERATION