TEACHERS' PERCEPTIONS OF THE ESSENTIAL FEATURES OF WHOLE SCHOOL DEVELOPMENT/ ORGANISATION: TOWARDS A MODEL FOR INTERVENTION

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DECLARATION

I, hereby, declare that the whole of this thesis, except where specifically indicated to the contrary in the text, is my original work and that it has not been submitted for any degree at any other university.

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Q. A. MYEZA **DATE**

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SUMMARY OF THE STUDY

This study examines teachers' perceptions of the elements of whole school development and the extent to which certain essential features of such development are associated with school effectiveness. The study aims at determining the extent to which school effectiveness is associated with the following four elements (or sets of elements) in terms of respondent dimensions: (1) access to technical and human resources; (2)adoption of a clear culture, vision and identity; (3) involvement in efficient strategic planning, structural arrangements and procedures; and (collectively) (4) gender, age, teaching qualifications and teaching experience.

To this end an instrument was constructed based on the Government bluebook for inspection of schools. The bluebook-based instrument was found to be descriptive and, therefore, intended to collect data of a qualitative nature. On the grounds of this serious omission the instrument had to be adapted so as to yield quantitative data covering all the essential features of school organisation. Care was taken to ensure that the instrument has content validity that covers all the essential features of school organisation.

The findings revealed that there is a very strong association between the essential features of whole school development and school effectiveness. The analysis of responses in respect of these essential features has enabled us to arrange them in a rank order. The factor that covers adoption of a clear culture, vision and identity was rated in the first position. This was followed

by a factor dealing with access to technical and human resources. The last position was occupied by the factor dealing with involvement in efficient strategic planning, structural arrangements and procedures. The study revealed that while age, gender and teaching experience, as aspects of teacher characteristics, did not influence teachers' opinions on the essential features of school organisation, the variable of teaching qualification was found to be influential in this regard.

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CHAPTER ONE

1.0 INTRODUCTION

1.1 MOTIVATION FOR THE STUDY

The advent of democracy in 1994 brought about many changes in South Africa. Although these changes have had far-reaching affects on a wide spectrum of aspects in South African society, the present study is limited to those changes that affect the education system. In other words, the study concerns itself with the ripple affects that political changes have had on the system of education, and which have so often been synonymous with problems experienced in the system. One of the major problems is the lack of teaching and learning in Black or Township schools which manifests itself in a high incidence of failure. There is a feeling among educationalists that this problem is inherited from the education system of the apartheid era (Christie, 1998:223; Sibaya, 1998:6). Bengu (1999:13) furthermore emphasizes that a culture of teaching and learning is a precondition for good performance in the education system.

The complexity of the problems associated with poor performance is diffused and affects many individuals at school level, including principals who find themselves in the firing line. For example, school principals have traditionally been expected to carry sole responsibility for unsatisfactory performance in their schools. Under these circumstances it has not been unusual for the parents to join in gossip that criticises the principal. He/she is often cast in the role of sacrificial lamb that must atone for the unfortunate performance of the school. Discontent about the principal's management of the school is usually likely to occur after the grade

twelve examination results have been released, especially when it appears that the school's failure rate is very high. In extreme cases it is not unusual for parents to demonstrate a flurry of anger by calling on the education authorities to immediately replace the so-called unproductive principal.

To further illustrate this kind of scenario, Vosloorus Comprehensive School in the East Rand (Sunday Times, 11 July 1999) has been named the worst school as far as failure rate is concerned. The uproar was sparked off by poor grade twelve examination results (an eighteen percent pass rate) at the end of 1998 and the blame was once again laid at the doorstep of the principal. The parents' frustration seems to be justified when one considers the misleading notion that principals are always accountable for the entire operation of their respective schools and since they are entitled to make decisions unilaterally (Biastiani, 1998:12; Piek, 1992:16; Van der Westhuizen, 1988:104; Wagner, 1989:23).

On the whole, an impression seems to be conveyed that there are many problems similar to the aforementioned one which happen to evade media coverage. Problems of this nature have been viewed with serious concern in this study since they are the symptoms of the ills of the education system in broad terms. However, the researcher is also aware that, in spite of all the usual problems, there are certain secondary schools that continually manage to compete with the best. Such differential achievement has posed an enormous challenge, even to the past apartheid education system.

It would seem as if differential achievement, whenever it occurs, is likely to invite close scrutiny. For example, Husbands and Lang (1999:260) investigated differential achievement according to gender, especially in cases where male out-

performance by females was on the increase. It was particularly interesting to find that the aforementioned researchers determined that girls' attitude towards schooling was generally more positive than that of boys. The researchers applied their findings as a basis in an attempt to effect a change in the boys' attitudes and to find a strategy to address this abnormality in terms of achievement. The need to restructure the whole system of education is further emphasized by De Jong (1996:114), who correctly maintains that the renewal of South Africa's dishevelled education system is central to the country's renaissance.

It is against this background that the concept of whole school development has been initiated as an attempt to deal with the legacy of apartheid education. There is a reason to believe that the concept of whole school development is derived from the process of transformation, which is encapsulated in the concept of democracy. Hence Skweyiya (1997:23) rightly maintains that democracy seeks to establish partnerships within the wider community in which business and industry, non-governmental organisations and academic institutions can play a role. The African National Congress (De Jong, 1996:114) states the firm belief that educational change must take place at a whole school development level as well as at other external levels.

In the light of the abovementioned, the question arises as to what is meant by whole school development. De Jong (1996:115) conceives of whole school development "as a planned and sustained effort at school self-study and improvement, focusing explicitly on change in both formal and informal norms, structures and experiential learning." De Jong (1996:115) furthermore stresses that the process involves **the school participants themselves in the active assessment, diagnosis and transformation of their own organisation.**

From the aforementioned definition of whole school development, the phrase that relates to planning and sustained effort clearly suggests that the concept of vision and goals of a school as an organisation should, in terms of health promotion and inclusion, be shared by all stakeholders. And again it can be deduced from that part of the definition which relates to self-study as well as to informal and formal norms, that all participants, including parents, share ownership of the organisation. As co-owners of the school, they should also share commitment to good performance, which is not the sole responsibility of the principal. Educators are encouraged to work as a team and to develop and acquire skills that will help them to influence learners to become committed to hard work for the benefit of the organisation. During the apartheid era, however, this was not obtained and educators found themselves without any option but to use corporal punishment as a strategy for forcing learners to work hard.

De Jong's study (1996: 115) provides **five main clusters of interdependent elements** that characterise whole school development. They are as follows:

(a) Identity (vision, culture);

This relates to the identification of key values which are meant to encourage commitment from all relevant government departments. The idea is that these values should translate into principles within the norms, vision and mission statement of the school. The school's vision and mission statement should therefore also inform the formulation of the school's policy.

(b) Strategies (goals, planning, evaluation);

This becomes the next step after the formulation of the school's vision and mission. Strategy relates to goal-setting, planning and the evaluation process. Particular aspects of the institution and the curriculum that relate to the practical challenges of promoting well-being and inclusion should be considered for possible assimilation in the curriculum.

(c) Structures/ Procedures (information flow, formal relationships);

In order for the school, as an organisation, to position itself so as to achieve its goals and to implement its plans of action, it is necessary that the existing structures and procedures be reviewed and, if necessary, be restructured for the purpose of attaining well-being and inclusion. Such structures and procedures should be included in a holistic and coordinated way.

(d) Technical Support (resource, and financial management and administration);

This is about ensuring that resources are well-provided in an organisation. Resources in this case include the allocation of budgets for support services required to pursue the particular well-being of the school within the goals that have been set and according to the plans that have been developed.

(e) Personnel (human resource development, informal relationships, conditions of service).

This entails the ability to use people within an organisation in a manner that ensures the realisation of its goals that are, among others, aimed at achieving a state of health promotion and inclusion. All this revolves

around the idea of training and the development of educators and other members of the school community. Inherent in this is the promotion of interpersonal relations among members of an organisation, with a view to fostering a spirit of collegiality.

It has been noted in the present study that certain elements of whole school development as appearing in the list of all elements (Lazarus, Davidoff & Daniels, 2000:4), are missing. Such elements are; context as well as leadership, management and governance. The reason for this is that, the two elements are intangible. In addition, the principal is the sole controller of these elements and other teachers are not directly involved. This is irrelevant to the present study in the sense that it is concerned with the perceptions of principals and not teachers.

The context could not be included because it deals largely with the contexts which are external to the school. Teachers' understanding of this element shows variation.

The main idea behind all these elements is that they should be integrated in order for organisational development to be successfully implemented.

Grounden and Dayaram (1990:310) associate team spirit with morale and state that once the group morale has been achieved, the group's performance will consequently improve since these two concepts, according to various studies (Evans, 1992; Gounden & Dayaram, 1990; Doherty, 1993) are positively correlated. Evans (1992: 164) correctly argues that group morale is situational. He presents the case study of a certain Amanda to explain this conception of group

morale. Amanda was a teacher who did not take her profession as a job, but rather as a career or calling. Apart from her hard working habits, Amanda was even prepared to sacrifice her spare time for teaching. Her results, as expected, were very good. Evans (1992:165) then traces Amanda career after she had been granted secondment to another school where, in spite of her hard working habits, her results ended up being disappointingly poor. In her new school she was frustrated because her colleagues displayed a strong feeling of dislike of the teaching profession. To them, the teaching profession was not a career, but rather, a job. It is this experience which motivated her to apply for a secondment to another school. Seldin, Rice and Austin (1990:12) explain staff morale as *an organisational momentum, that is, an institution on the upswing, in which case a new member of staff has no option, but to join the bandwagon.*

This case study fits perfectly well with the element "identity" (vision, culture) listed as item (a) above, which is one of the characteristics of whole school development. It has to do with identity and culture, and therefore helps to explain why Amanda was not corrupted by the poor environment provided by the second school, but was motivated instead to seek employment at a third school that might share her high ideals.

A central question that arises in a discussion of the teaching and learning process concerns reasons for achievement and non-achievement at schools. Why do certain grade twelve learners, for example, achieve good examination results while others fail to do so? West and Ainscow (1991:28) assert that if it is known what good schools and effective teaching look like, that will surely provide a recipe for bringing about the improvement in poorly performing schools.

It is noted that several studies (Gray, Hopkins, Reynolds, Wilcox, Farrell & Jesson, 1999; Jencks, Smith, Aukland, Bane, Cohen, Gintis, Heyns & Michaelson, 1972; Sammons, Thomas & Mortimore, 1997) have been proposing the introduction of school effectiveness and school organisation as school self-evaluation mechanisms in education for some time now. Such mechanisms, however, have only been adopted in South Africa during the inception of democracy (Teddie & Reynolds, 2000) and none of the studies reviewed here deal with the extent to which teachers' perceptions of elements of school organisation as associated with school effectiveness.

1.2 STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

Judging from the aforementioned article (Sunday Times, 11 July 1999) about poor performance results in Grade Twelve at Vosloorus Comprehensive School in 1998, we are tempted to believe that the problem of poor results in South African secondary schools is at an advanced stage of development and is possibly on the increase. The reality here is that rich parents, instead of facing the problem head-on, tend to transcend it by taking their children from township and rural schools to the so-called white schools. This exodus may be seen as the only strategy that these parents find accessible to them.

However, it is a well known fact that of these township/rural schools, some are managing to achieve fairly good results in grade twelve examinations in spite of whatever conditions. The researcher has noted with serious concern this unending, recurrent problem that besets the system of education: A paradox in this case is that most of these township/rural schools came into being simply because of the very parents' concerted efforts and as a product of their toil.

On the whole, the move by parents who can afford it to forsake the township/rural schools has been viewed in this study as a vote of no confidence and therefore as a desire for closure of the poorly achieving schools in the townships and rural areas. This has far-reaching implications for the education system in general as it certainly undermines the whole purpose for which these schools were created. **In the light of the stated problem, it stands to reason that factors that contribute to the difference in terms of achievement in grade twelve examinations in these schools should be scrutinised.**

It is of paramount importance to indicate that the researcher is acutely aware that all schools are basically the same in the sense that every school in endowed with learners, educators and a principal. The similarity between schools is likely to be a result of the fact that they are all guided by the government policy in which the ground rules of what schools should look like are stipulated. Godlad (1978: 48) points out that the purpose of schooling is usually reflected in the curriculum, which is characterised by uniform goals. Godlad (1978: 48) further argues that whenever the curriculum is tinkered with, the purpose seems to be an effort to assure standardisation among schools, which according to him, is always enforced by among other things, a tightening up of standards by employing external examinations and also a **juggling some elements of teacher education**. The researcher, on the contrary, is under the impression that each and every school has its own peculiar policy which is most likely shaped by the life views of members of the school team. It is for this reason that wherever the issue of school policy arises in the process of investigation, its impact on school achievement will deserve scrutiny.

It would again appear that the aspect of achievement rests with each individual school because it is true that **in the same district, there are schools that achieve good results as well as those that achieve poor results.** Bell (1998:454) correctly emphasizes that a school is a unique entity which must seek to gain competitive advantage over its neighbours. He furthermore argues that if schools are examined, their similarities are far greater than their differences. Therefore, the question that the present study aims at addressing is: *What are the factors that continually contribute to school effectiveness and differential examination results among schools at grade twelve level?*

Specific research questions which the present study attempts to unravel are:

(1) To what extent do teachers perceive access to technical and human resources as associated with school effectiveness?

(2) To what extent do teachers perceive the adoption of clear culture, vision and identity as associated with school effectiveness?

(3) To what extent do teachers perceive the involvement in efficient strategic planning, structural arrangements and procedural matters as associated with school effectiveness?

(4) Are there any variables influencing teachers' perceptions of the factors associated with school effectiveness?

1.3 DEFINITION OF TERMS

It is considered pertinent at this stage to briefly define concepts in order to avoid confusion and ambiguity. The concepts in question are defined as follows:

1.3.1 **Whole School Development (WSD),** otherwise known as school organisation development, could be conceived of as a holistic process which seeks to improve primarily the quality of teaching and learning in a school situation by encouraging all the stakeholders to work in partnership (De Jong, 1996: 115). This process seems to recognise the fact that a school is a complex institution with interlinked and interdependent parts whereby the entire development of the school cannot happen without it having implications for all other parts.

School effectiveness, as the concept suggests, should be understood to be associated with effective teaching and learning at school. For a school to be effective, all resources, both technical and human, must be utilised to the best ability as they are supposed to. This means that the School Management Team (SMT) must plan strategically; teachers must teach effectively; the School Governing Body (SGB) must play their important role, and parents must support the school. At the centre of any effective school, there must be a proper sharing of the content of vision and mission of the school as the guiding spirit that provides a sense of direction.

1.3.2 Jordaan and Jordaan (1984:289-290) situate the **concept of perception** at two distinct levels of information processing, namely at the higher and lower levels. The example given is that when a person detects light or sound

and has a sensation of something he/she has seen or heard, he/she is operating at a low level of information processing. But when he/she sees a motor car or hears a song or understands what is being said, this means that he/she is operating at a higher level of information processing. Jordaan and Jordaan (1984: 290) therefore point out that the concept of perception refers to a significant, integrated, multimodal experience.

Brune (1973:14) defines the concept of perception as a process of categorization with a strong implication of going beyond the properties of the object or event perceived to a prediction of other properties of the object not yet tested, while and the inference is often an unconscious one. Vrey (1990:19) points out that perception is the product of integration of the stimulus situation and previous experience. Clearly, the definitions of the concept of perception have something in common, that is, they all emphasize the ability to predict the outcome based on previous experiences. For example, when an old person predicts that on a particular day there will be thundershowers in the afternoon, he/she is making a prediction which is based on his/her previous experiences. In other words, this has a lot to do with his/her perception of what the weather is going to be like in the afternoon.

1.3.3 The concept of differential **school achievement**, according to Jubber (1998), is a measure of the relationship between a child's performance in the classroom and his/her potential performance when compared with children of the same age and intellectual endowment. From this definition it can be deduced that a child can obtain different results in different schools. In other words, a learner is a victim of a school he/she is attending in terms of

his/her performance. Therefore, a school achievement is inherently based on the number of learners who have obtained a pass or fail mark in a particular period of time. For uniformity sake, this measure is usually expressed in a percentage form with a view to expressing the whole school attainment.

1.3.4 **Five elements of school organisation development include:** identity, strategies, structures/procedures, technical support and human resource development. The order of their presentation does not represent ordinal strength. The researcher felt it necessary to briefly define each of them as follows:

Identity has to do with a strong sense of belonging to a particular group. Members of the group often have a lot in common, for example, culture and vision. In a school situation, this could mean that all members understand that the school operates so that at the end of the year it achieves good results or that every learner who went through it (the school) should be a responsible citizen. This means that every member must be committed.

Strategies should be associated with a culture of setting goals within a planning and evaluation process. This is done with the school's vision and mission in mind. An example of this is a programme that is intended to achieve desired results, for example, a programme to improve the administration of tests at school.

Structures/procedures have to do with a mechanism in place at a school to ensure that information is disseminated to all members. This may suggest a

review of structures and procedures for the purpose of reinforcing and promoting health and inclusion at school. Structures and procedures should be positioned with a view to achieving goals. For instance, if a principal or deputy principal does not involve all these structures in decision making, chances are that subordinates will tend to resent their decision.

Technical support should be understood within the framework of resources that are vital to the teaching process at school. This refers to the teaching aids that teachers use in the act of teaching. In other words, this specifically deals with the allocation of budgets for support services that are required to pursue well-being and inclusion with the view to favour the achievement of goals and the implementation of plans.

Human resource development should be understood as a mechanism that is put into place in order to ensure that educators teach what they know very well. This has to do with appraisal systems as well as workshops that are meant for capacity building. In general, this deals with the capacity to utilise people in order to achieve the goals of an organisation. The issue of capacity building on the part of educators and other members of the school community is of particular significance. There is a strong sense of promoting interpersonal relations among stakeholders, which is characteristic of school effectiveness.

1.3.5 The word "teacher," as used in this study, shall not only refer to anyone who facilitates learning in the classroom, but also anyone who holds relevant teaching qualifications as recognised by the South African Qualification

Authority (SAQA). Therefore, the concept of "teacher," as used here also includes heads of department (HODs), deputy-principals and principals.

1.4 AIMS OF THE STUDY

The aim of the study is to explore teachers' perceptions of the elements which operate in school organisation development. In terms of school effectiveness, these elements can be stated as the following specific objectives of the study:

1.4.1 To examine the extent to which teachers' perceptions of access to technical and human resources are associated with school effectiveness.

By resources, we mean people as well as the physical resources that are the key instruments in achieving school effectiveness. This means that the allocation of budgets, good interpersonal relations among the members of the school community and well-capacitated educators form the thrust of school effectiveness.

1.4.2 To determine the extent to which teachers' perceptions of adoption of a clear culture, vision and identity are associated with school effectiveness.

1.4.3 To determine the extent to which teachers' perceptions of involvement in efficient strategic planning, structural arrangements and procedures are associated with school effectiveness.

1.4.4 To establish an association, if any, between teachers' characteristics (gender, age, qualifications and experience) and perceptions of factors associated with school effectiveness.

1.5 HYPOTHESES

Hypothesis 1:

Access to technical and human resources is associated with school effectiveness.

By resources, we mean people and physical resources that are the key instruments in school effectiveness. This means that the allocation of budgets, good interpersonal relations among the members of school community and well capacitated educators are the thrust of school effectiveness.

Hypothesis 2:

Adoption of a clear culture, vision and identity is associated with school effectiveness.

Hypothesis 3:

Involvement in efficient strategic planning, structural arrangements and procedures is associated with school effectiveness.

Hypothesis 4:

The following dimensions of respondents:

- Sex
- Age
- Teaching Qualifications
- Teaching Experience

are associated with school effectiveness.

By means of this hypothesis, we intend to analyse the responses in terms of sex, age, teaching qualification and teaching experience in order to find out whether each of these has any significance in the promotion of well-being and inclusion in schools.

1.6 METHOD OF INVESTIGATION

1.6.1 Literature Review

The study reviews empirical research reports, articles and literature concerning whole school development as well as school organisation development.

1.6.2 Field Study

The research is mainly centred on a field study.

1.6.3 Study Sample

The sample consists of educators who are in the employment of the Department of Education in KwaZulu-Natal at the time of investigation. These respondents have been drawn from some secondary schools that teach up to grade twelve in the region. A CLUSTER SAMPLING design is used. Due to the heterogeneous nature of different regions, being different entities, and whereas each single region is homogeneous by nature, a cluster sampling design is called for (Kerlinger, 1986:120; Sibaya, 1993:67).

1.6.4 Research Instrument

The research instrument used was a questionnaire that was constructed and validated by the researcher. Care will be taken to ensure that the instrument has content validity in order to cover the five elements of school organisation development. For this reason, the envisaged instrument will be adapted from the Whole School Evaluation scale that is constructed by the Department of Education. The nature of Whole School Evaluation scale is merely descriptive. It is meant to collect data of a qualitative nature.

The researcher viewed the omission of a quantitative aspect in the instrument as a serious mistake as the results achieved by such an instrument does not lend itself to statistical analyses and interpretation. It is for this reason that the researcher intends changing the scale into a scale of measurement that yields quantitative data covering all five areas of whole school development. These areas, as mentioned in paragraphs 1, 3 and 4, are: identity, strategies, structures/procedures, technical support and human resource development.

The instrument will be subjected to validation in order to ensure that it possesses psychometric properties.

1.6.5 Method of Scoring

The scoring procedure will depend on the nature of the research instruments. This will be discussed in Chapter Four.

1.6.6 Method of Analysis

At this point the method of analysis is left open in order to permit the application of a wide range of analytical tools. The means and standards deviations will be calculated with respect to the data collected with regard to teachers' responses in each factor. The participants' perceptions will be analyzed using a one-sample t-test. Statistical tests for nominal and interval data will be used to analyze data. Kerlinger (1986: 197) correctly maintains that the Chi-square test is normally used to make comparisons between two forms of frequencies. With this form of analysis of data, it is hoped that the question regarding why some secondary schools continue to compare with the best while others obtain poor results year after year in grade twelve examinations, will be answered.

1.7 PLAN OF THE STUDY

1.7.1 Chapter One

This chapter deals with the motivation for the study, statement of the problem, aims of the study, hypotheses, definition of operational concepts, method of investigation and a plan for organisation of research.

1.7.2 Chapter Two

It is envisaged at this stage that this chapter will focus on the systems approach in an attempt to explain the concept of whole school development and its implications for the operation of schools.

1.7.3 Chapter Three

In this chapter, a theoretical background to the study will be provided. Studies published in journals will be reviewed. By doing this it is hoped that a better understanding of an ideal school with regard to school achievement, will be gained.

1.7.4 Chapter Four

This chapter concerns itself with the research design and methodology. This will include among other things how data is collected, including sampling procedure and analysis of data. Chapter four will also attempt to give a report on how field work will be carried out.

1.7.5 Chapter Five

This chapter will deal with presentation, analysis and interpretation of data. The hypotheses formulated in chapter one will be tested in this chapter.

1.7.6 Chapter Six

Chapter six will deal with the discussion of findings and their implications.

1.7.7 Chapter Seven

Chapter seven will consist of a summary, a discussion on generalisation of the study's findings, the limitations thereof, as well as recommendations and conclusions.

CHAPTER TWO

2.0 THEORIES AND MODELS OF WHOLE SCHOOL DEVELOPMENT

2.1 INTRODUCTION

There is reason to believe that there are motivating circumstances which led to the preference of the systems theory to other traditionally known theories. For instance, it is interesting to note that the concept of a revolving theory led to the advent of the theory known as environment transaction (Ivey, Ivey & Simek-Downing, 1988:345). This theory, which reminds one of a revolving door, derives from a case study of a certain patient in a hospital who had previously received treatment for a particular illness and who later made several reappearances in hospital for the same illness.

One would expect that the patient would remain well after being treated and discharged, but in reality it is found that as soon as he returns to his environment, that is his home or community, he suddenly becomes ill again and returns to hospital. This problem motivated the hospital staff to start thinking about treating the whole environment rather than the individual patient (Ivey *et al.,* 1988:345). Consistent with this view, Flemons (Ivey *et al.,* 1988) believes that looking at a family apart from its social context is like studying the dynamics of surviving by examining a fish in a frying pan. Bernier and Siegel (1994) point out that educationalists must also bear this in mind when trying to solve problems of an educational nature because the two disciplines, that is, education and psychology, are interdisciplinary and virtually inseparable.

Lusterman (1987:511) correctly argues that psychologists who forget their heritage in learning theory, psycho diagnostics, and other ingrained traditions specific to psychology are analogous to psychiatrists who, having accepted the psychoanalytic position, abandon the entire medical tradition of the role of biology in understanding humankind, or the social worker who abandons the base of social theory implicit in that discipline.

De Jong (1996:114) argues that changes in the education system in this country pose critical challenges for the educational psychologist. These challenges, among other things, affect the paradigm shift from a positivistic to a systemic worldview, the relationship between power and organisation development, and the sustainability of organisation development. Educational psychology is the only discipline that possesses the model of intervention. This is part of the idiosyncratic nature of educational psychology which challenges the deficit model and the fix it role of the educational psychologist (De Jong, 1996:114).

Clearly, the intriguing part in the education system is the differential examination results among schools. As the way forward, educational psychology has come up with the systemic approach as a tool to fix the present situation in education systems. Sibaya (1999:15) correctly argues that the entry point of educational psychology into this process where schools continue to achieve differential examination results is through the process of school organizational/whole school development. In line with this argument, De Jong and Van der Hoorn (De Jong, 1996:114 – 115) emphasize the systemic nature of the transformative potential of educational psychology in facilitating democracy in South Africa.

2.2 CONCEPT OF SYSTEMS THEORY

In recent years, there has been a reassessment of terms like homeostasis, structural openness, stability and change and integration of social systems theory with the practice of addressing problems that affect organizations (Cottone, 1989: 229). The social systems theory was found to be more relevant for the reason that it recognizes that in any organization there are networks of relationships rather than the so-called things. Proponents of the systemic therapy (Lastoria, 1990:4; Cottone, 1989:229) view the family, which is an institution or organisation, as the actual patient, and effective treatment is focused on the consideration of interventions that will be successful in restoring the constructive balance of the family system. Keeney (1979:118) explains that the concept of the systems approach is the opposite of the traditional linear approach which is usually depicted as atomistic, reductionistic and anti contextual.

The main question is: What is this systems theory? In an attempt to answer this question, a comparison between this theory and the traditional one will be made. To begin with, the systems approach employs a circular (cybernetic) epistemology whereas the traditional one employs the lineal (cause and effect) epistemology (Tomm, 1984:118). The lineal epistemology is strongly criticised for its tendency of making erroneous conclusions.

Tomm (1984:118) gives a perfect example to illustrate this major flaw. He explains that if event A precedes event B, then according to the lineal epistemology it means that event A caused event B, which may not always hold true. Tomm (1984: 118) emphasizes that the lineal epistemology is not necessarily incorrect, but the fact is that it describes only a segment or a small arc in a larger

circuit. On the other hand, the systems approach involves a circular process. The circular process, in a nutshell, is a deliberate attempt which must be made to synthesize behavioural connections into larger, holistic patterns.

The main idea about the systems approach is that fractionated sequences are recombined into a full circular totality or whole (Tomm, 1984:119). The illustration of this theory is captured in Tomm's classical example (1984:119) which is about a problematic situation which is explained from the circular epistemological point of view. This is what he says:

> The therapist might discover that when a wife becomes sad, the child misbehaves, when the child misbehaves, the husband is critical; the wife becomes sad, etc.

This, in summary, means that the wife shows sadness as part of a recursive pattern of interaction between the husband, wife and child. This is a vicious circle. Clearly the moral judgment becomes directed towards the pattern (system) rather than towards any one person. The pattern is just calling for compassion for the persons involved rather than condemnation simply because when the participants are caught in a recursive pattern, it becomes more like a misfortune (Tomm, 1984:119).

Flemons (1989:5) seems to concur with this kind of scenario when he advisedly points out that there should be a visible attempt of moving away from the habit of focusing on only one end of relationships as this is where violence resides. Flemons (1989:5) calls this the dichotomous logic of separation and control which is otherwise known as divide and rule. This strategy cannot be accommodated in a democratic atmosphere.

Similarly, in a school situation, a circular epistemology might discover that when educators become unhappy at school, learners do not pass at the end of the year; when learners do not pass, the principal is critical; when the principal is critical, educators become unhappy, etc.

Several scientists have offered various definitions with regard to the concept of the system, but they all mean the same. For instance, Bateson (1971: 243) defines a system as any unit containing feedback structure and therefore components to process information. On the other hand, Denton (1990:115) defines the concept of system as a set of objects together with relationships between the objects and between their attributes. Hence, the concept of systems theory (Denton, 1990:115) refers to a group of assumptions about how to best describe the formal properties of organized systems and represents an orientation towards clinical data. They are "wholeness" which refers to the behaviour of individuals within the organization and each one's behaviour is related to and dependent upon the behaviour of all others (Denton, 1990:115).

Another concept is nonsummativity which refers to the assumption that a system is considered to be more than the sum of its parts. Feedback is another important concept which is implicit in the systems theory. It refers to a method of controlling a system by reinserting into it the results of its past performance (Denton, 1990:115).

Wilden (Keeney, 1979:118) explains that the systems approach puts more emphasis on ecology, relationship and whole systems. Searight and Openlander (1984:54) argue that traditional therapeutic training, which focuses on

understanding individual emotional and cognitive states, makes it difficult for the therapist to see the interpersonal context. They advisedly state that a useful mode of punctuation for the therapist is to "listen for the system" when working with an individual. Bateson (1971:244) casts more light on this point when he is quoted as saying:

> "If you want to understand some phenomena or appearance, you must consider that phenomena within the context of all completed circuits that are relevant to it."

Different viewpoints about the systems theory have been presented in the preceding paragraphs. It can be generally understood to mean that a problem is seen as part of the relationship system rather than being located within one individual.

The systems theory, with reference to the family diagnosis and therapy, for example (Keeney, 1979:124), tends to be characterised by evolution. This evolution, according to Keeney, can be conceived of as an expanding view which in turn means that the therapy expands on its own from partial families to whole families, intergenerational families and social networks. Studies on family therapy (Combrick-Graham, 1987:505; Ingamells, 1993:92; Keeney, 1979:125) show that in order for the therapist or diagnostician to make a precise and informed diagnosis of the problem, it is always advisable that he/she should simply join the system, that is he/she has to stay at the school for a reasonable period of time, such as a week or more in order for him/her to be thoroughly acquainted with all the rituals. Ingamells (1993:92) expresses concern that the gap between the observer and the observed will be so wide that the diagnosis will be completely distorted and inaccurate. It should also be emphasized that the basic premise of the systems approach is that every system is crammed with data for the solution of the problem

(Jackson & Satir, 1973:267). Cottone (1989:230) rightly maintains that the systems approach is based on the super ordinate position that relationships are treatable.

It all therefore rests with the therapist to expertly use the data available for successful intervention. This is only possible if the therapist has adequately acquainted himself/herself with the relationship system he/she treats. Chapter three shall detail this discussion.

2.3 LEVELS OF A SYSTEM

In essence, it may be difficult to demarcate the boundaries of the system. When used in an educational context, a school has all the qualities of being a system. In the same way, a cluster of schools in a district or in a province or in a country and so on, can be regarded as a system. It is therefore very important for a therapist to be able to delineate this scope of the system he/she is dealing with. Thus, Combrinck-Graham (1987: 505) imagines the concept of the systems to consist of certain levels such as content, individual, family, the therapy, the patient, staff and the diagnosing system.

Combrinck-Graham has visualized all these levels as boxes nested within one another as follows:

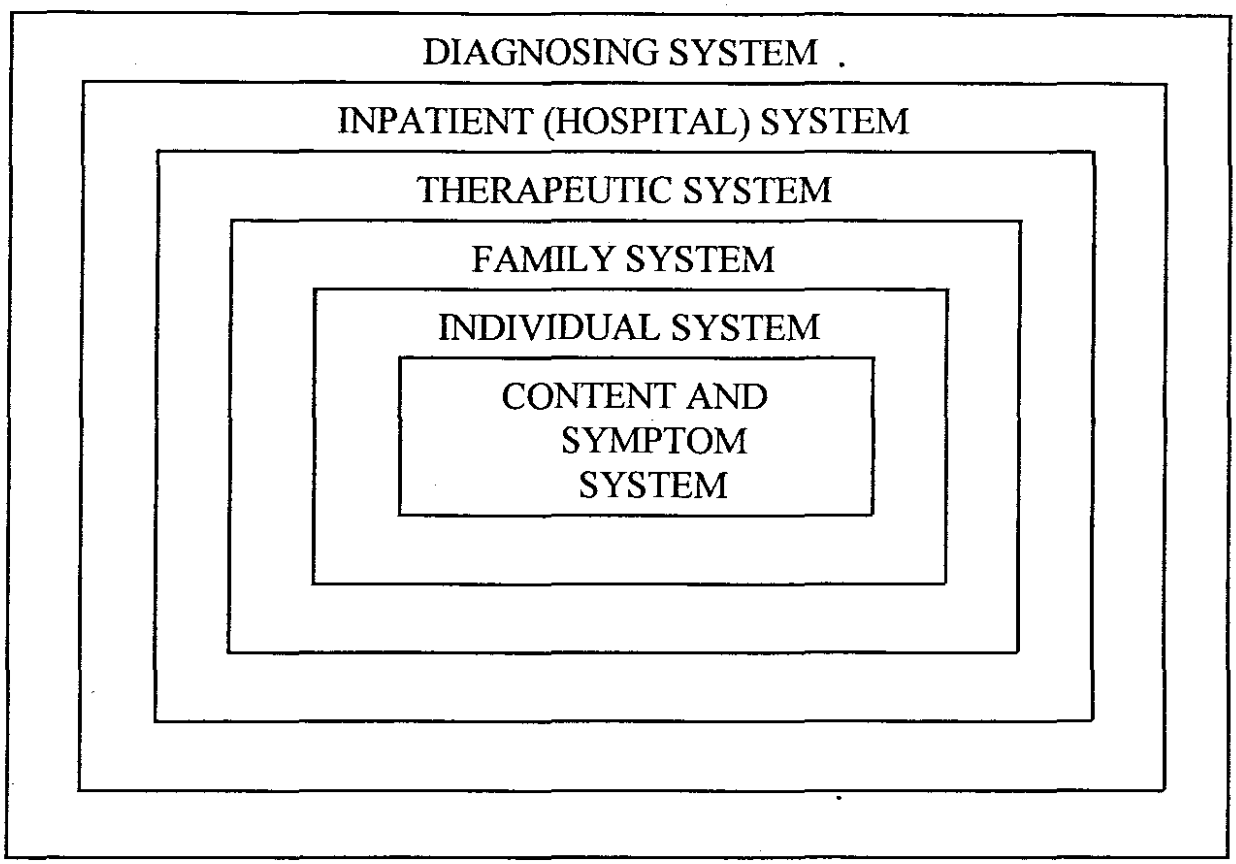

Figure 1. Adapted from Combrinck-Graham (1987:507)

However, it must be pointed out that the researcher prefers to term these as levels instead of steps simply because it would seem as if the act of diagnosis, though not always, is done in strict sequential order.

Combrinck-Graham (1987:507) is of the opinion that each level of the system is given context by the system around it, and that each level again depends on the other level for its distinction. A brief description of each level is as follows:

2.3.1 Content and Symptom System

At this level the therapist gathers information by just talking to the person who is to receive therapy. For example, in a school situation where the school might have been labelled as a poorly performing school, the educational psychologist or consultant may at this stage talk to a principal in order to find out whether it is true that the school's performance has not been up to scratch recently, as he/she might have been so advised. Tomm (1984:122) advises that the psychologist or consultant should remain completely neutral and should also avoid being drawn into a coalition with the caller against any third party during this first stage of intervention. Mullins, Olson and Chaney (1992:204) also emphasize that it is always possible that when an individual has referred a patient to a psychologist he/she would like to influence the consultant in respect of how he/she thinks the problem can be solved.

2.3.2 Individual System

At this stage, the therapist may focus on a mere observation. By so doing he may try to analyse the way the person who is to receive therapy talks, behaves, shows his/her feelings, his/her intellect, his/her personal history and his/her relationship with the people that he/she finds himself/herself with in the therapy room. In the case of a school, the consultant may simply observe everything at school without saying a word. This may include situations such as to how late-coming is controlled; whether educators honour their periods in terms of being on time; the frequency of administering tests, and so on. Here the consultant would be joining the

system, doing what scientists (Combrinck-Graham, 1987:505; Ingamells, 1993; Keeney, 1979:125) call being inextricably part of the system. Of course he/she should observe whether all the elements of whole school development are well catered for at the school he/she has joined.

2.3.3 Family System

The therapist is now part of the system. He should have become familiar with the goings-on in the family. This level is characterised by issues such as sibling and marital relationships. This has to do with how brothers, sisters and parents live in a family set-up. Alexander (1985:87) warns that the element of territoriality which exists within the family should always be recognized during the family session. This can be symbolized by the informal assignment of specific chairs to specific family members, perhaps also reflecting the status of different family members. Alexander (1885:87) feels that if this is not taken into cognisance, the change could be resisted.

In a school situation, this should be thought of as having to do with the way everybody relates to one another. This is about information flow or better known as formal communication which is a cornerstone of transparency. In other words, the focus is on how the principal relates to everybody at school, while emphasis is placed on whether he/she is able to work harmoniously and amicably with others. In certain instances, the consultant may also note whether the principal makes unilateral decisions or not. Even at this stage he/she compares everything at school with the five elements of whole school organization, namely, identity/culture, strategies, structure procedures, technical support and human resources.

2.3.4 The Therapeutic System

This level is much the same as the family system. The difference here is that the therapist is seen as giving guidance. Everybody begins to notice his/her presence. At this stage, he/she begins to advise when he/she sees anything wrong.

In a school situation, for example, he/she may recommend that the principal should involve everybody in the running of the school, if this does not happen. He may go to the extent of suggesting that certain structures, such as a Representative Council of Learners (RCL), be formed at the school. The rationale here is that the consultant has noted that there are some elements of **whole school development** that are not catered for.

2.3.5 The In-patient (Hospital) System

This level is usually characterised by a lack of sympathy on the part of the therapist. At this stage, it may surface that the therapist believes that the problem at hand in a certain institution occurs because of certain individuals. In other words, he/she may ascribe the attributes of a disheveled situation to the immature actions of such individuals. In a school situation the consultant may pick on some individuals as being responsible for the school's poor performance. The element of frustration on his part, due to the goings-on at school, is more apparent at this stage. Much of his/her frustration may have emanated from the fact that the school is not being run

according to what he/she knows in terms of the elements of whole school development.

2.3.6 **The Diagnosing System**

Since the participants, tasks and observations of the system have been described, the next thing that needs to be done is to obtain other important information about the system at this stage. This means that the therapist should try to assess the feelings and relationships of its members. In other words, at this level, the main aim is to see if the whole process of diagnosis has been a success or not. The therapy offered should prove to be a success. This is usually observed by a marked improvement in terms of the quality of the results, otherwise it might mean that the therapy was not accurate.

This kind of scenario can be illustrated by the controversy that surrounds the issue of Human Immunodeficiency Virus (HIV)/Acquired Immunodeficiency Syndrome (AIDS). This example is used simply because the researcher wants to draw a comparison between the two. In the case of therapy offered by the diagnostician, if he/she recommends that the unfortunate performance in a school is caused by a certain ritual, say, ritual A, this means that by addressing ritual A, subsequently the performance of the school will be better. If the performance does not get any better this would mean that it is not ritual A that causes poor performance. As a result this suggests that he/she should go on looking for the variable that causes poor performance of the school.

Coming back to the issue of HIV/AIDS, it is common knowledge that scientists have postulated and still maintain that HIV is caused by a virus which results in the development of AIDS. From a simplistic viewpoint, HIV is a cause and AIDS is the effect (HIV – an independent variable, and AIDS – a dependent variable) which means that it is almost impossible to cure AIDS without curing HIV. Conversely, if HIV can be cured, then AIDS will not develop.

In the light of this argument, it should be clear that it is highly likely that the diagnosis that HIV is the virus that causes AIDS is not accurate. Maybe there is a another virus, which has not yet been discovered, that causes AIDS, but because the established or existing theory postulates that HIV causes AIDS means that chances are very slim that the accepted theory can be refuted. Similarly, the therapist may diagnose that late-coming in a particular school is a cause of the school's poor performance in Grade twelve examinations, for example. Again, if the suggested intervention for addressing the problem of late-coming does not change the school's poor quality of Grade twelve examination results, it may be revealing that the diagnosis was inaccurate and as such it warrants a revisit.

The systems therapist should at all times strive to comprehend the system by knowing all the stages through as many levels of meaning and experience as can be apprehended (Combrinck-Graham, 1987: 506). Keeney (1979: 118) points out that the diagnosis in the systems approach takes a form of a process of weaving several levels of abstraction which is in actual fact a way of knowing problematic situations through the paradigm that represents cybernetics and systems theory. That is, if we say that A causes

B, we imply that there is/are no other extraneous variable(s) operating jointly with A to determine B.

3.2 ELEMENTS OF WHOLE SCHOOL DEVELOPMENT

Educationists (Lazarus, Davidoff & Daniels, 2000:4) are of the opinion that any school, as an organisation, is characterised by fundamental elements. These elements include culture, identity, strategy, structure, procedure, technical support, human resources, context as well as leadership, management and governance. Leadership, management and governance are all classified as one element. This study will not focus on elements such as context as well as leadership, management and governance because these elements are intangible. The last group of elements, namely leadership, management and governance, deals with the capacity of the leader to give directives and his ability to negotiate within a consultative framework, to name but a few. Furthermore, the principal is the sole controller of these elements and other teachers are not directly involved – whereas the present study is concerned with teachers' perceptions. Context is also not included because it deals largely with contexts that are external to the school. Teachers' understanding of this element shows variation.

All the other elements dealt within the present study are tangible and are understood by all teachers. This study concerns practical elements. For instance, to build a clinic is a more realistic and pragmatic goal than to reduce human unhappiness.

It has also been noted in the study of school organization which was conducted by De Jong (1996) that these elements were not included. Although these elements are presented as separate entities for purposes of discussion, it must be pointed out that they are so intertwined that it is impossible to discuss one element without referring to another (Lazarus *et al.*, 2000:4). Each element is discussed in more detail below:

2.4.1 Culture

The concept of culture (Lazarus *et al.,* 2000:4) refers to the way that things are done or practised at a school. One of the most celebrated definitions of culture is that it is a complex whole which includes knowledge, beliefs, art, morals, law, custom and any other capabilities and habits acquired by man as a member of society (Taylor, 1958:42; Shezi, 1994:6). Clearly, culture comprises the values and norms of the school. One may argue that it is through cultural patterns that each group becomes unique to the extent that it can be differentiated from others.

In simple and specific terms, the concept of culture can easily manifest itself by the manner in which daily practices are executed in a school. This ranges from the patterns of behaviour around which time-management (punctuality) and discipline are administered both in the classrooms and school in general, learner involvement in the running of the school, parental involvement in affairs of the school, the way in which members of the school community relate to one another, and the value attached to the actual act of teaching and learning by all members of the school community.

Bates (1981:38) points out that culture is not concerned with facts, but with meaning; that is, it is concerned with interpretative and prescriptive rules which provide the basis for understanding and action. Furthermore, it is interesting to note that Hoy and Miskel (1982:15) in their analysis of culture describe culture as having rituals which are either bureaucratic or therapeutic. By bureaucratic they mean that it is based upon rigid principles. For example, a learner may not challenge the authority of the educator no matter what.

Again, by therapeutic they refer to the fact that it is based on rituals of personal relations (mutual respect). In other words, it is based upon democratic principles of respect for persons, social justice and equity. Where this form of culture is prevalent, learners and educators may solve their differences through negotiations and bargaining with a view to reaching some sort of compromise of settlement or even consensus. Therefore, any attempt meant to improve the performance of a school is likely to be successful and sustainable if it addresses itself to the concept of culture. The emphasis here is that the effort should be directed at shaping the daily practices and activities of the school.

2.4.1.1 Research study on culture

A case study on the influence of culture on school development was carried out by Staessens and Vandenberghe (1994) in Belgian primary schools. The aim of the study was to investigate individuals or members of the school who are responsible for cultivation of

culture. Semi-structured interviews were conducted in order to obtain concrete and specific information about the school culture from principals and teachers.

Two different types of questions were distinguished, namely informative and exploratory questions. The former concerned factual, objective situations and information about events such as: how often is there a staff meeting in your school? Or, can you give an overview of the various activities which have taken place since the beginning of the school year up until now?

On the other hand, the exploratory questions concerned experiences and perceptions of the interviewees, such as; can you tell me what your principal finds important to him/her? Or how would you describe your school to parents?

Nine schools participated in this study. In each school, the principal and at least half of the teachers were interviewed. People were interviewed over a period of two days in each school. Each person was interviewed for about one and half-hours and was tape-recorded. The findings showed that the principal together with his/her members of staff were both the builder and the bearer of the culture of the school.

The study by Staessens and Vandenberghe (1994) has assisted the researcher of the present study in several ways. The first is that it is possible to obtain information with regard to the findings of the study by involving the principal and only a certain percentage of the

teaching staff members, say fifty percent. Secondly, with regard to the methodology, we have become aware that it is possible to obtain information by means of interviews.

However, the researcher intends involving a principal and all the members of teaching staff at the school that has been targeted for research purposes. The reason for this is to limit the possibility of concluding the findings based on information supplied by participants who may be ignorant and naïve on certain issues. Although interviews are necessary during the research, the researcher of the present study felt that this method on its own may not necessarily represent the ideas of the participants, since the conclusion is written by the interviewer. Therefore, structured questionnaires were used instead in the present study, whereas interviews were used to supplement the questionnaires.

2.4.2 Identity

The concept of identity, loosely defined, could refer to the characteristics of something. More specifically, identity (Antaki, Condor & Levine, 1996:473) refers to anything that attaches to someone by virtue of their membership of a category constituted by social consensus or imposition. Further, Karasawa (1991:293) considers identity as that part of an individual's self concept which derives from his/her knowledge of his/her membership of a group or groups with the value and emotional significance attached to the membership.

It is noted that Karasawa (1991:293) stresses the fact that positive identity can fulfill people's motivation to enhance or maintain positive self-evaluations. His study has unequivocally revealed that group identification is the crucial antecedent of the self-/in-group enhancement. This means that if the level of in-group identification is low, people do not always need to be engaged in inter-group comparisons to achieve self-enhancement. Inter-group comparison is something undesirable since it may lead to unhealthy competition among individuals. It would seem that Bates' (1981:39) understanding of identity does not differ from Karasawa's (1991) when he argues that individual and social identity is constructed from the cultural background of any group.

In the light of the above argument, it remains true that all schools as organisations are identified by their purpose of promoting the act of teaching and learning. In other words, the act itself is characteristic of all schools. Further, each and every school develops its own idiosyncratic culture, bearing in mind that culture is a foundation upon which identity is constructed, which becomes characteristic of itself (school). Lazarus *et al.* (2000:5) rightly summarise the concept of identity in just one sentence or question, that is, WHO ARE WE and WHERE ARE WE GOING? The first part of the question, "who are we" clearly indicates the identity and character whereas the last part of the question, "where are we going," refers to the purpose and more importantly, the direction in which the school, literally, wants to move.

It is obvious that the last part is more important compared to the first one as it embraces the school's vision. Baving-Carr and West-Burnham (1994: 27)

conceive of vision as a description of what the school might be; as the collective aspiration, or a definition of the ideal situation. By implication, it (vision) is a shared understanding, shared decision-making, shared evaluation. Staessens and Vandenberghe (1994:194) make a perfect analogy when they state that a school with a low vision is like a ship sailing without a compass. This indicates the importance of vision in a school set-up.

2.4.3 Strategy

Schools usually have very limited resources available. On the other hand, participants to be served often have multiple and at worst, conflicting interests. Such a situation, according to Bacharach and Lawler (1980) and Blasé (1992), is political in nature. It requires the administrator to have special skills in exercising power to subtly influence the allocation of resources and the conflicting and competing interests of school participants.

On the contrary, it must be pointed out that the extent to which administrators rely on power vested in them rather than on influence associated with leadership, certainly erodes their capacity to gain the co-operation and support of teachers and others. Hoy and Miskel (1982) would regard the former as being based on bureaucratic rituals, with the latter based on therapeutic rituals. In the new dispensation, teachers are empowered to become more integrally involved in leading and managing the affairs of the school, and this consequently puts pressure on the traditional role of the administrator as head to shift from the position of an administrator to become a colleague.

Strategy therefore could quite simply be associated with a tool that is there to be utilised expertly by those skilful administrators with a view to making the entire process of teaching and learning a success. It is of course acknowledged that for the process to be successful, goals should be set, thereafter planning of how to achieve these goals should be done and finally the process of evaluation, that is, verifying whether the goals have been realised, should take place.

The strategy itself as an element of whole school development comprises two components (Lazarus *et al.*, 2000:5). The first component refers to the approach meant to develop the context, which in this particular case is the school as it is the environment for teaching and learning. The second component should be understood to be the approach, which focuses on the development of all aspects of the curriculum. As mentioned earlier on, both of these components are about setting goals, planning and evaluation. The concept or act of evaluation is emphasised in both components. This means that the first one deals with the evaluation of organisational context (school), whereas the other one addresses itself to the evaluation of the curriculum.

It is easy to demonstrate that this element (strategy) is directly linked to other elements of school organisation development. For instance, the process of setting goals and the actual steps that are planned to achieve the goals involve the utilisation of both technical and human resources. At this stage, it is perhaps possible to consider reviewing the development of the school's identity and culture. Certainly, structures and procedures need to be reshaped in order to support the goals that are set. This in turn

means that the technical and human resources have to be developed for the purpose of achieving goals. For all this to become a reality, effective leadership, management and governance needs to be in place.

2.4.4 Structures and Procedures

This element is about the manner in which different structures which exist in the form of organisational units interrelate within a school. Such organisational units could include structures such as the school management team (SMT), School Governing Body (SGB), Representative Council of Learners (RCL), etc. Structures and procedures ensure that these formations interrelate in a coherent way for the successful operating of the school.

It is easy to tell if a school has such structures in place and is operating within the democratic parameters. It also shows if all the stakeholders have a say in the day-to-day running of the school. Greenfield (1995:73) views this as a colleague-centred approach of running schools where the administrators' roles as heads have noticeably shifted to that of being colleagues. It is for this reason that they have to rely heavily on persuasive powers to influence everybody at school.

It may be pointed out that the coupling of these concepts, structures and procedures, does not necessarily mean that they each amount to the same thing as in reality they complement each other. To illustrate this; the first one, that is, structures, should be construed as relating more to the way in which members of the school community are organised into units such as SMT, SGB, and RCL. Structures further put emphasis on the manner in

which these units relate to one another as well as to their responsibilities and accountability. On the other hand, the concept of procedures per se, relates to the rules, regulations and methods whereby these structures relate to one another.

Furthermore, structures and procedures are based on four aspects, namely structural arrangements, information flow (formal communication), decision-making and accountability. Each of these aspects will be briefly discussed in no particular order below.

Structural arrangement attempts to justify the creation of structures in any organisation, such as the school. There are only two options in this regard, namely a vertical or horizontal set-up, depending on the style of management adopted in a particular organisation. The vertical set-up refers specifically to situations where order of seniority is strongly emphasised.

This is normally referred to as bureaucratic arrangement (Hoy & Miskel, 1982:15; Lazarus *et al.,* 2000:7). The other one, namely the horizontal set-up, is considered to be more democratic in nature. Clearly, it is this form of structural arrangement that one would expect to find in South African schools since the 1994 reforms. Greenfield (1995:70) argues that given the increasing national attention to the effectiveness of schools and a growing recognition that traditional school governance and organisational arrangements often impede improvement initiatives, school administrators will find themselves relying increasingly on leadership to influence teachers and others in efforts to make schools more effective.

The second element is the information flow (formal communication). This is about how different structures of the organisation relate to one another. Information flow is very important in an organisation that is striving to establish a democratic ethos because this ensures that all members of the school community access the appropriate information. This is about transparency. For instance, a SGB which represents all members of the school community such as educators, learners and parents is a structure where important matters such as fund raising with the purpose of buying school materials such as computers, could be discussed. The practice of transparency is likely to boost the morale and also reduce significantly suspicion and uncertainty.

The third element is decision-making. This deals mainly with the issues of control and management of the school. It is characteristic of democratic organisations. The actual process of decision-making in a democratic atmosphere is done in such a way that all the role-players are involved directly or through some form of representation. This is likely to bring about a sense of shared ownership of decision on the part of all concerned.

The last element is accountability, which relates to the idea of responsibility and reporting systems. For example, in terms of the new legislation (South African Schools Act, 1996) educators are now accountable to the parents. It should be remembered that in the past, that is, before the 1994 elections, educators were accountable to their principals and ultimately to the education department officials. Accountability also reflects the democratic ethos which was inherited from the 1994 elections. One cannot argue that

the principles of democracy cannot allow accountability that operates in one direction only, such as top-down or bottom-up system of management.

2.4.5 Technical Support

Efficiency is a crucial criterion that is associated with this dimension. According to Greenfield (1995:71) there is a long history of such an emphasis in school administration and school administrators are highly vulnerable to any failure of the school to use its resources efficiently and effectively. In simple terms, technical issues, according to Herrington (1994:310), refer to the facilities or equipment that are usually shared in an organisation. Such resources are used to accomplish the goals and objectives of the school. In any case, technical support deals with issues such as resource access and control, teaching and learning, finances as well as administration. Each of these is briefly discussed below.

By resource access and control, we refer to resources such as finances, teaching materials and equipment, learning support materials and equipment. These resources should be available to those who need them, and there must be a commonly agreed method of accessing them in a school situation in terms of who should keep and control them. Individuals whose responsibility it is to take care of these resources, do so with the main aim of ensuring that they are properly controlled.

The next aspect relates to teaching and learning support. The material associated with this aspect includes texts, manuals, audio-visual equipment, teaching aids, etc. which are required to facilitate the process of teaching in schools. Alongside this is material which is normally required by learners

to facilitate the learning process. This includes materials such as texts, computers, stationery, etc. In essence, the teaching and learning support materials are very important. Not only do they constitute the vital purpose of schooling, but they also provide the environment conducive to effective teaching and learning.

The third aspect relates to finances. Principals are often confronted with the responsibility to administer finances and yet not being capacitated to control them. This indeed poses a major challenge as in terms of the new legislation (South African Schools Act, 1996) schools have been given autonomy to manage their own financial matters. As the financial control has been devolved, more capacity is required on the part of principals in order to ensure that the budget allocations are made in such a way that effective teaching and learning is supported in schools.

The last aspect concerns administration, of which the act of causing the school to function is the main focus. Effective school functioning means that appropriate measures have been taken to ensure that the school is able to provide teaching and learning effectively. This is usually demonstrated by the percentage of learners that each school manages to pass at the end of each academic year. Given this, it is easy to deduce that those schools with fewer percentages of passes are lamentably failing to fulfill their core purpose of their existence.

2.4.6 Human Resources

Human resources in a school organisation include members of staff, the parents, learners, various community leaders and groupings, education

administrators, and various education support service personnel who provide itinerant services to schools. Although these resources are not quantifiable, Gabela (1991:74) correctly argues that human resources constitute a major energy input into the system. The attitudes, sentiments, skills and aptitudes of the abovementioned people, according to Gabela (1991:74), continue to set the parameters for the system's ability to attain goals.

It is important to consider that human beings have to be managed in order to ensure that the goals of the institution are attained. They need to be properly guided by a leader who has the required abilities that can be applied to the benefit of the organisation. Greenfield (1995:75) believes that leadership is a special form of influence associated with inducing others to voluntarily change their preferences, actions, attitudes, etc.

Perhaps this could be better understood if it is presented in the form of an equation, namely that the school administrator is less a head and more of a facilitator of educators. This requires school administrators to rely largely on leadership than upon routine administration (Greenfield, 1995:76). He /she needs to perfect his/her skills of persuasion as he/she is often confronted with a duty to influence, co-ordinate and monitor other people's efforts and to develop and implement programmes and policies to accomplish the school's goals (Blumberg & Greenfield, 1986; Martin & Willower, 1981; Morris, Crowson, Porter-Gehrie & Hurwitz, 1984).

The act of utilisation of human resources appropriately begins with the process of recruiting manpower that is relevant to the needs and goals of

the curriculum of a particular school. This is an important aspect as it relates to the deployment of educators according to the curricular needs. For instance, recruiting an educator for commercial subjects to teach technical subjects may not be a good idea as this may frustrate him/her because he/she may not know the dynamics of the subject(s).

Human resource development and training is just another aspect as important as human resource utilisation. This is popularly known as staff development or professional development. It merely involves reviving and possibly the re-skilling of educators in various aspects of the curriculum in order to render them capacitated. This is usually done on an on-going basis in the form of in-service programmes for those educators who are already in the employ of the department of education. Again, at the heart of staff development lies a powerful tool which is known as staff appraisal. This is meant to sharpen educators' abilities to provide the best services possible.

2.5 SOME ASPECTS THAT ARE RELATED TO CONDITIONS OF SCHOOL DEVELOPMENT

2.5.1 Motivation as a Tool in School Development

Motivation is regarded as a powerful instrument of causing every member of an organisation to work. Durham (1995: 53) is of the opinion that it is always advisable that managers of institutions should try to reduce the negative and disheartening effects of teamwork de-motivators. This can be achieved by getting managers to list motivators

as guidelines for themselves. Some useful hints for motivation are as detailed below:

It is important for the manager to be accessible to team members. In other words, he/she should adopt a colleague-centred approach of management (Greenfield, 1995: 70). Durham (1995: 53) recommends that he/she should treat colleagues as equals in the team and treat them as individuals in a professional capacity. It is furthermore suggested that he/she should work towards improving communication in a team where opinions, contributions/suggestions are valued. In order to foster reciprocal respect, Durham (1995: 53) suggests that the manager must show respect to others. Members should be encouraged to take the initiative and to work together. Praise should be given when due, otherwise constructive criticism should be used to motivate team members. In an organisation there must be time set aside for both planning and discussion.

The second method to enable managers to recognise and remove the de-motivators is to provide an opportunity for their teams to do a S.W.O.T. analysis. The mnemonic stands for Strengths, Weaknesses, Opportunities and Threats. This means that members of an organisation are more likely to achieve the opportunities if the manager focuses on reducing their weaknesses. Aspects such as indifferent team performance, poor management as well as difficulties and incompetence of individual members are classified as weaknesses. Threats should be understood as factors outside the team which are likely to have adverse effects on its performance, or even on its survival.

2.5.2 The Rationality of the School Development Model

In many instances, centralised control of the education system has, to a certain extent, proven to be less than successful. This can be partly attributed to the fact that educators at school level were probably not sharing the vision with other educationalists in the higher echelons of the education system. As a result of this, some educators have been presenting hard exteriors to the education authorities. This kind of a problem has manifested itself in different ways in school situations, including incidents of drunkenness, absenteeism, late-coming and indolence, to name but a few.

In view of problems causing continual discomfort to the education system in general, the decentralisation of control is likely to offer an alternative approach altogether. One of the forms of decentralisation of the education system is what is referred to as comprehensive school development (Bryk & Rollow, 1996:172). Bryk and Rollow (1996:172) argue that the school development is based on the premise that meaningful school improvement requires a union of the reflective, research-based efforts characteristic of university work with the activist orientation found among school staff. By this it is sought to promote continual improvement at both individual schools and throughout the system.

2.5.2.1 A focus on literacy as a lever for change

The concept of school development will thus focus on the role played by literacy as the major academic component for change. This puts more emphasis on the idea of reading to learn rather than learning to read, meaning that learners are empowered with the skill of reading with understanding, in which case the effective use of library books is encouraged.

Conversely, the role of educators is no longer that of teaching learners but rather that of helping learners to learn. Bryk and Rollow (1996: 173) rightly maintain that a focus on literacy is highly strategic because it can engage, around a critical aim, all the adults in a school community, including the principal, parents, teachers, and auxiliary staff. A successfully sustained engagement with literacy can develop a sense of agency in the school community, particularly as adults are empowered when they see that their efforts are enhancing the experiences of children and improving the circumstances of the school pay dividends (Bryk & Rollow, 1996:173).

2.5.3 A School Development Framework

Comprehensive school development consists of four distinct components. The function and rationale for each is described below.

2.5.3.1 Expanding institutional leadership

It is part of a major objective of school development to extend the leadership capacities of schools. In a centralised, bureaucratic system, the principal is the sole leader of the school. This has to do with the principal following orders from above and passing them along to those that he/she supervises. The principal is not able to reflect about meaningful goals for his/her school and to motivate the staff toward achieving those goals.

The findings of the National Centre on School Organisation and Restructuring at the University of Wisconsin indicate that successfully restructured schools had strong, visionary leadership to initiate and guide the process of change (Bryk & Rollow, 1996:174). Furthermore, the principals of these schools have been key factors to fostering a culture of inclusive and educative workplaces where professional educators respect each other's distinctive expertise, where new skills develop as a result of engagement with meaningful tasks, and where trust builds as people learn to work together. Over time, decision-making in these schools became more participative and leadership is increasingly collectivised (Bryk & Rollow, 1996:174).

It has been clearly established that school improvement depends on the commitment of teachers and parents organised strategically in leadership teams. These teams need to be meaningfully involved as the school charts its future course, and then develops implements,

evaluates, and revises improvement efforts to achieve priority goals (Bryk & Rollow, 1996:175).

2.5.3.2 Developing human and social resources

In the school development model, a teacher is considered to be the agent of change. The teacher should be adequately equipped with the skills to enhance the skills of individuals to teach reading and writing and to promote rich literacy environments as a critical aim. The teachers' work needs to be reformed and restructured in order to eventually bring about the professional community which will be able to sustain school improvement.

Parents and teachers do not always share the same aims about the socialisation process of children. An example of this can be shown in a permissive society where parents openly encourage children's involvement in love affairs even while they are still at school. On the other hand, the school is likely not to condone this practice as it might impede learners' achievement in their school work. Therefore, school development concentrates on bringing parents and professionals into a sustained conversation about socialisation aims for children.

Through these conversations, as well as role modelling, demonstration and other forms of teaching, it is hoped that school communities will be able to articulate those personal and social values that they would like to see characterised in their school

community. In this way the school could be changed from being an impersonal environment into a child-centred one, in which the full development of each child is the primary aim.

2.5.3.3 Strengthening the political institutions of the school

This has to do with the participation of parents and professionals in the school affairs. A principal has a critical role to play in this instance. Strengthening the political institutions of a school calls for the principal to abandon the traditional practices of top-down bureaucratic and autocratic school leadership. It is these practices that have deprived parents and teachers of the opportunity to be involved in the decision-making process with regard to students' learning. Developing their political skills means that the school community should be coached on the aspects that go hand in hand with participation, such as conflict resolution (in case conflict arises) and consensus building (in case divergent viewpoints occur). People become more committed as they learn that their actions can make a difference in the lives of children (Bryk & Rollow, 1996:178).

2.5.3.4 Building analysis capacities for continual school improvement

In the past, the issue of collecting and analysing information, setting goals, making plans, implementing changes and formatively evaluating the efficacy of the efforts was normally the responsibility of the central school bureaucracy. This practice rendered members of the school community incapable of analysing the conditions under

which they work. As a result they were always kept guessing in case education authorities visited their schools because they did not know what they (the authorities) were going to complain about.

Under centralised control of education system, members of the school community are exposed to a strategic orientation. The strategic orientation can also be depicted diagrammatically.

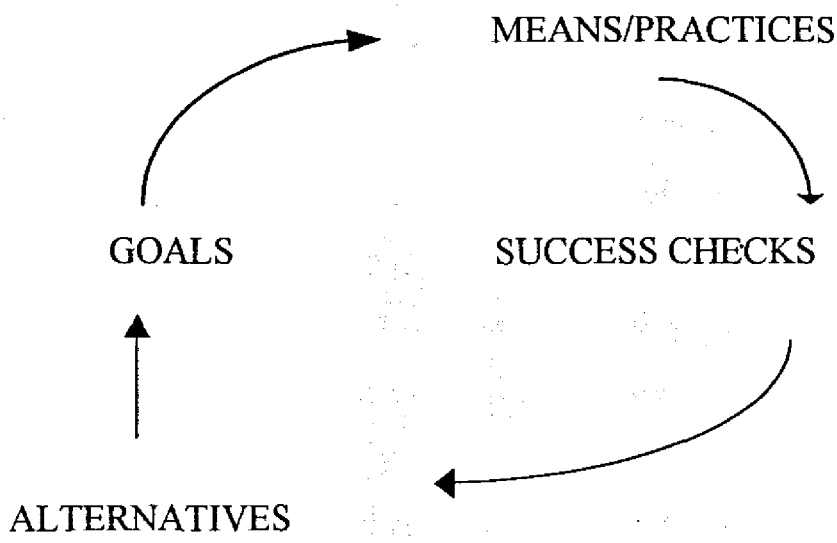

Figure 2: Representation of Strategic Orientation

Clearly, goals are central in the strategic orientation. It is important that practitioners should deliberate on the goals of their schools. As soon as they have set the goals they should focus on the best practices to advance these goals. From there they need to have the ability to establish whether the programme is successful or not. If it is not successful, they should be able to go back to the drawing board to see why it is not successful and also to think about how the practices can be adapted. Generally, this kind of systematic and comprehensive thinking on the part of professional teachers

in their local school necessitates certain skills and know-how on the part of the teachers.

THE ESSENCE OF A DYNAMIC FORM OF TEACHING AND LEARNING

It has dawned on a number of people who are interested in education that the traditional methods of teaching and learning need to be replaced. There are noticeable signs that the educational policy of this country, South Africa, is slowly moving in that direction. Posch (1996:349) regards the traditional forms of teaching and learning as static because it is characterised by a pre-structured kind of knowledge which was presented in the form of syllabi and textbooks.

Contracts imply that the dynamic form of teaching and learning should be based on the principle that learners should develop understanding and apply it (understanding) simultaneously. This means that knowledge is produced through activities. Such situations challenge learners to actively participate in the construction of reality. It is in this way that the correlation between school learning and activities in order to cope with real life problems is established. Thus a fifteen year old learner put it: "To prepare for life means to realise something now" (Posch, 1996). In fact, this is the kind of gospel that is being preached by proponents of whole school development.

The principles of whole school development cultivate a culture of team spirit in schools. This includes the idea of a dynamic network of communication rather than the hierarchical one. It is therefore necessary that the methods of teaching and learning should reflect this change. It is true that people would like traditional

barriers between school and environment, between learning and living; between theory and practice to be reduced.

2.6 CONCLUSION

Several theories and models of school organisation have been discussed in this chapter. The relevance of such theories and models, especially during this august era of transformation in the education system in this country, has been highlighted. It is in this instance where the role of educational psychology has been viewed in a serious light. It is clear that this double barrelled name signifies that the two disciplines, namely, education and psychology that is married for keeps. The other part, which is psychology, appears to be in possession of the magical powers of mapping the way forward in the system of education.

This chapter has clearly demonstrated the relevance of the process of whole school development to the effectiveness of the school, which is usually measured in terms of the learner's performance in examination results. The analogy of a ship sailing without a compass could be the best way to describe the important role that educational psychology has to offer for the educational system. Certain models that have been discussed seem to suggest that there may be certain individuals who offer remedies in order to deal comfortably with such situations.

The traditional approach, namely that of explaining the problem in terms of the cause and effect, is not only regarded as out of date, but also as a narrow-minded form of approach that often leads to picking on individuals as solely

responsible for the problematic situation in an organisation. The spirit of co-ownership of the organisation on the part of all stakeholders has been non-existent in the traditional approach.

CHAPTER THREE

3.0 REVIEW OF WORK DONE IN SCHOOL EFFECTIVENESS

3.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter concerns itself with the review of work done in the field of school effectiveness. While several studies have been reviewed, it is noted that there is now a very large amount of international literature available on school effectiveness and school improvement (Hopkins, West & Ainscow, 1996; Perrone, 1989; Reid, Hopkins & Holly, 1987; Silver, 1994). The researcher has also noted that this body of literature seems to present a number of factors in the form of lists that are offered as panaceas for the current educational problems. Interestingly, it would appear that some of these factors have not been researched. The review of literature in this chapter, however, has paid close attention to those studies that have been researched carefully.

In the aforementioned studies, much attention has been given to school effectiveness and school improvement. To the researcher's knowledge, however, there doesn't appear to be any studies that focus on the extent to which teachers' perceptions of essential features of whole school development are associated with school effectiveness. In view of this lacunae, studies which focus on whole school development (WSD), otherwise known as learning organisation, will be discussed with a view to arriving at an understanding of the essence of differential academic achievements in Grade twelve examinations.

3.2 A STUDY ON EDUCATORS' PERCEPTIONS OF THE SCHOOL AS A LEARNING ORGANISATION

A study on the perceptions of educators with regard to the school as learning organisation was conducted by Moloi, Grobler and Gravett (2002) in the Vanderbijlpark-North District of the Gauteng province of South Africa. The aim of the study, as set out above, implies that there are key features that have already been theoretically identified by educators as the underlying principles of learning organisation or whole school development. As these features are perceived to be concerned with the culture of the school and with educator commitment, this study will attempt to verify whether they are indeed thus cherished by educators. The author of the present study believes that the school's culture and the commitment of its educators are *sine qua non* for the school to be regarded as a learning organisation.

Perhaps it may be necessary at this stage though to point out that the word "perception" suggests the need for inquiry in order to arrive at an empirical conclusion with regard to the reality. The reality being advanced here is that there are circumstances outside the school that have a bearing on the day-to-day activities and happenings at schools. These circumstances are in the nature of the social, political and economic activities in the country (South Africa). Moloi *et al.* (2002) argue that educators should be able to view schools as complex systems that react to the demands made by a changing world. One of the major tasks of the school is to adjust its strategies in order to meet the challenges of the democratic ethos already prevalent in the country with regard to the teaching and learning processes.

The sample was selected by means of a stratified random sampling where an official address list from the district was used. All educators who participated were drawn from twenty primary and thirty secondary schools.

The pilot run involving thirty educators enabled the researchers to realise that the items could be reduced into two factors: the first one being a collaborative culture consisting of 74 items and the second one, educator commitment, consisting of 13 items. The Cronbach-alpha reliability coefficients of the said factors are 0,971 and 0,752 respectively.

During the process of data analysis, a student's t-test was used to measure the significant difference at the 0, 01 and 0, 05 levels. The findings of the research were as follows:

Thirty-nine of 74 items (52, 7%) associated with the factor collaborative culture had a mean score greater than five. The mean score of the respondents on all the 74 items was 4.94, which indicated agreement with the items involved. This shows that respondents have a positive perception of a collaborative culture as a factor in a learning organisation.

With regard to educator commitment, one item had a score of higher than 5 and this represented only 7.7% of the items involved. The overall mean score of the items was 3.24. This indicates that respondents tended towards partially disagreeing with the items concerned with the factor personal beliefs about educator commitment. This shows a somewhat negative perception about this factor.

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As far as the results of the study by Moloi *et al.* (2002) is concerned, this means that the essential features provided the theoretical background of what ought to be obtaining in any school that reflects the qualities of a learning organisation. The positive response regarding the collaborative culture as part of a learning organisation indicates that this belief was well cherished by virtually all educators where this practice has been implemented. On the other hand, the negative response about educator commitment seems to tell us that the idea had not filtered through successfully to the educators.

The essential features of school organisation are based on a theoretical framework, and this is perhaps also true with regard to the elements of school organisation that underpin the present study. The study by Moloi *et al.* (2002) was conducted in order to determine the perceptions of educators regarding school organisation. The researcher of the present study intends determining the perception of educators about differential academic achievements. This includes the question whether educators cherish the essential elements of school organisation, since schools that are considered effective seem to display a positive response with regard to the essential features of school organisation. The converse seems to hold true for ineffective schools.

3.3 A STUDY ON AN ORGANISATIONAL LEARNING PERSPECTIVE ON SCHOOL RESPONSES TO CENTRAL POLICY INITIATIVES

This study on organisational learning perspectives, as referred to in the heading above, was conducted by Leithwood, Jantzi and Steinbach (1995). Their study dealt with issues that could be considered to either foster or inhibit the process of restructuring in schools. In fact, organisational learning or learning organisation is the concept used to suggest an ideal school that has the ability to accommodate the process of transformation in the manner prescribed in terms of the policy. The study by Leithwood *et al.* (1995) is relevant to the present study due to the fact that it is about the learning organisation which in principle embraces democratic values. Such values are important features of school effectiveness. Elliot (1996:214) prefers to use the concept of whole school development to mean learning organisation. In fuller terms, a learning organisation is defined as:

> ...a group of people pursuing common purposes (individual purposes as well) with a collective commitment to regularly weighing the value of those purposes, modifying them when that makes sense, and continuously developing more effective and efficient ways of accomplishing those purposes" (Leithwood *et al.*, 1995:231).

The main aim of Leithwood, Jantzi and Steinbach's (1995) study was to examine the extent to which schools are responsive to the policy initiatives of change. The study was conducted in British Columbia of Canada.

The study sample was composed of seventy-two educators and six principals. These educators were merely nominated by principals by virtue of being willing to be interviewed. Only twelve educators per school were nominated. In these six schools that participated in the study were one primary, one elementary, one junior secondary, two secondary and one senior secondary school. Data were gathered through the semi-structured interviews.

The interview instrument consisted of twenty-eight questions. The questions elicited information that relates to the efforts that educators make in order to involve others in accomplishing certain goals. The questions furthermore sought information on issues such as whether it is necessary for educators to be capacitated in one way or another and particularly with regard to the skills of accomplishing goals, rather than it being taken for granted that they have the capacity to do so. The questions were also aimed at establishing the form that capacity building, if needed at all, should take. The instrument had both educator and principal versions. During the analysis of data, six school principals and seventy-two educators were tape recorded. The tapes were then transcribed.

In conclusion, the study determined that schools' responses to organisational learning as part of the central policy initiatives are highly varied. The study furthermore established that a great majority of schools find it easier and better to learn about policy initiatives related to organisational learning (whole school development) when they share information among themselves through networking practices. Interestingly, a study by Shaeffer (1992:295) on collaborating for educational change arrived at the same conclusion.

The sharing of a sense of overall purpose for the school relates to the school's mission and vision. However, this study could not clearly find any evidence to suggest that vision-building activities and the mission of the school could facilitate a fostering of the school's responsiveness towards central policy initiatives. It was, however, clearly established in this study that the school's responsiveness to the process of restructuring is stimulated by networking practices and especially through information-sharing among schools that could stimulate each other.

Finally, the study by Leithwood *et al.* (1995) has unequivocally pursued the conditions that render a school a learning organisation. With regard to their analyses of results, it is therefore concluded that culture is the dominant factor in collective learning. School's vision and mission statement and resources may be less important in fostering organisational learning than is commonly believed to be the case. Frankly, these variations, in terms of other schools being able to learn central policy initiatives under different conditions, are intriguing. The question is: Do these variations automatically explain the kind of variations that schools have in terms of learner achievement? Since the study by Leithwood *et al.* (1995) could not address this question, the present study aims to explore this matter.

3.4 A STUDY ON THE PERCEPTIONS OF STAKEHOLDERS ON CAUSES OF POOR PERFORMANCE IN GRADE 12

This study mentioned above was conducted by Legotlo, Maaga, Sebengo, Van der Westhuizen, Mosoge, Nieuwoundt and Steyn (2002). Its aim was to identify and then examine factors that cause poor performance in Grade twelve examinations. The study was triggered by findings in extant literature on the effects of school resources on learner performance. Legotlo *et al.* (2002) strongly believe that the

effects of school resources are confounded by unobserved variables. Consistent with this criticism, is the argument by Harber and Muthukrishna (2000:422) who voice their unhappiness with certain quasi-government agencies which they believe arbitrarily suggest a package of key characteristics of good schools which are then placed on the global cash-and-carry market as educational panaceas, even if they have not been researched.

Legotlo *et al.,* (2002) decided to adopt a "getting it from the horse's mouth" kind of approach. This means that they had to follow the route of stakeholders to identify factors which impede successful completion of the high school courses. Stakeholders (Legotlo *et al.,* 2002:113) were perceived as being in the best position to identify these factors. The researchers reason that due to the fact that Grade twelve examination results are used as a barometer to gauge the effectiveness and efficiency of the school system in South Africa, good performance in Grade twelve examinations must be based on good pass rates.

A questionnaire was developed to gather data on causes of poor performance in Grade twelve. The questionnaire was first piloted at nine secondary schools in the North-West province of South Africa. Four schools per district in all twelve districts were selected through a process of stratified random sampling. In each of the selected schools, sixteen members (a principal, four educators, eight learners, two parents and a chairperson of the School Governing Body) were involved. Each stratum was composed of schools that were classified in terms of performance, such as good schools. In each district, one good school (G), one average school (A) and two poor schools (P) were selected. The following pass rates were considered for the classification of schools: 80% and above represented a good school, while the interval that represented average schools was between 40% and

60%. A total of 798 participants, including members of educator unions, were part of the study sample.

The most striking feature of this study is the unfamiliar way in which the results and findings were analysed and concluded. Quite strangely, the approach was to let stakeholders freely identify factors that they themselves considered responsible for poor performance in Grade twelve examinations. The factors enumerated by the stakeholders were then examined and percentages were used to rank them (factors) in terms of acuteness. Factors listed in this particular order were lack of resources, lack of student discipline, lack of student commitment, lack of educator discipline, commitment and morale, and problems in implementing government policies.

For purposes of clarity with regard to the findings of the study, it may be necessary to briefly discuss the factors contributing to a high incidence of failure in Grade twelve examinations.

Firstly, lack of resources was rated by all respondents as the major cause of poor performance in Grade twelve. This involved issues such as inadequate textbooks and inappropriately qualified educators. Such educators are generally ineffective in their teaching of subjects/learning areas.

The second issue that was identified was lack of student discipline. The study revealed that the abolition of corporal punishment rendered educators without any measures that they could use to exercise some form of control over students. Thus, the atmosphere of no work became the order of the day. This aspect is closely related to the lack of student commitment. The emphasis here is that a culture of

no work is considered to be promoted mainly by realities outside the classroom, because it seems to be argued that even educated people are without jobs. This situation seems to de-motivate learners.

A further factor relates to the lack of educator discipline, commitment and morale. This factor is somehow related to the problems associated with the implementation of government policies. Certain policies, such as the one related to sick leave or maternity leave for educators do not make provision for such educators to be substituted. As a result, classes in certain subjects are often without educators for three or more months. Principals furthermore lack clarity about legal authority and power that used to go with their responsibilities and accountability. Somehow, principals believe their authority and power were eroded by the greater powers of educator unions, and the unfettered rights and freedoms of the learners. This, it is argued, has rendered many principals unable to give directives at schools.

The next policy that is either unclear or not popular is the one that relates to right-sizing. Some educators see this as a down-sizing policy because in many schools its implementation has resulted in the reduction of numbers of staff members. This right-sizing or post provisional norm (PPN) is regarded by educators as contributory towards poor morale. Indeed, Linda's (1992: 161) study revealed that factors such as low pay, low status and changes effected by educational reform in policies do often lead to demoralisation. Linda (1992: 166) further explains that morale is anticipatory and forward-looking. Thus a person's morale may not be high if he/she is not sure about his/her future in the job. At the beginning of each year in South Africa there are many educators who start working at a particular school without being sure whether or not they will remain there for the rest of the year. Such conditions are likely to be demoralising.

The present researcher considers the study by Legotlo *et al.* (2002) to be peculiar and asymmetrical in nature because the factors were identified by respondents and the analysis was done on the strength of how many respondents mentioned those factors, that is, on the strength of frequency. This is unusual. However, the present study will attempt to explore aspects that were left untouched by Legotlo *et al.* (2002), for example variations in learner achievements as perceived by educators. In this case the elements of whole school development will be used to present what ought to be an ideal school.

3.5 A STUDY ON SCHOOL EFFECTIVENESS

This study was conducted within schools located in the Johannesburg area of the Gauteng province in South Africa. The findings of the research project are analysed in relation to discourses on school effectiveness. This project was given the acronym "SESA" which stands for "school effectiveness in South Africa."

3.5.1 School Effectiveness in South Africa (SESA)

Four black schools, which operate in different contexts, formed part of the project since they were considered to be effective schools. These schools were selected for their reputation as good schools in the communities within which they are located. The second criterion that was used was that of examination results, that is, the school results had to be in excess of 50 per cent. This decision came about because most of the schools during that particular year (1991) had obtained pass rates that generally ranged from

15%-30% and therefore schools that achieved a 50% pass rate were viewed as being above the average.

The main aim of the project was to try to explain how and why some black schools were able to excel under very difficult and deprived conditions. Of the four schools that were selected, three were secondary schools and one was a primary school. The schools were labelled as school A, B, C and D.

SCHOOL A

School A is a private school located in the Johannesburg city centre. It caters for up to 300 students and has been formally institutionalised. It has 14 classrooms and the facilities are satisfactorily available. This school has a matric pass rate of 60% and a teacher/pupil ratio of 1: 25. Needless to say the pass rate is well above the average. The school is run on democratic principles since the prime decision-making body of the school consists of the parents, teachers, and the student association (PTSA). All the teachers are qualified, some with post-graduate education degrees. Discipline is enforced by the PTSA. If any member of the school shows no discipline, the body asks him/her to leave the school at once.

SCHOOL B

The school is situated in SOWETO and has an enrolment of more than 1000 learners, while the teaching body is comprised of 40 educators. The school adheres to practices of school authority by increasing the democratic

participation of all the actors of the school through structures such as the PTSA and the Student Representative Council (SRC). The latter is formed by a Co-ordinator for each grade (standard). The major problem that besets school B is drug and alcohol abuse. This drives the school to resort to physical methods of discipline, which ranges from using a cane to even suspending the culprits.

The school practises meritorious forms of regular assessment of learner performance. Monthly tests are administered. The marks of these tests contribute towards the learners' year marks. These tests also serve the purpose of streaming learners. The school has a matric pass rate of 50%. Most of the school days are wasted on militant forms of action such as boycotts, protest marches, demonstrations etc, which learners adopt as a response to the tight forms of school discipline. Punctuality is usually checked by closing the gates. More often than not even educators are locked out if they fail to keep time. It has also been clearly established that some of the educators are not motivated to work and as such they pose a discipline problem for the school authority. The vast majority of learners and educators are affiliated to political organisations.

SCHOOL C

The school caters for 1000 learners and has a teaching staff of 33 educators. It is located on the East Rand of Johannesburg within an informal settlement. The community it serves is both multi-ethnic and multilingual. Six different languages are spoken in the school and the medium of instruction becomes English when learners reach grade 3.

There are 12 principles of school management, a practice which was decided on as a result of the school's unique needs and their responses to them. These include: collective responsibility; meritocracy; empowerment of the masses; participatory democracy; openness; affirmative action in administrative structures, especially with regard to race and gender; ridding the administration of unnecessary red tape; sub-committees that have clearly formulated duties; a scientific approach; empathy; and a desire to be sensitive to the views of the democratic structures of the oppressed.

Carrim and Shalem (1999:65) point out that management of the school along these principles is certainly a site of struggle. The site of the struggle refers to the diversity of interests of differently constituted school actors who have the potential to disagree on certain issues most of the time.

Given that the school is a primary school, it has fewer problems in dealing with the student body. There is no pressure to ensure student participation at this level of schooling because the learners are simply too young. The problem of drug and alcohol abuse is non-existent in this school.

SCHOOL D

The school is located in a lower economic area in SOWETO. It is in a really appalling condition due to poverty, lack of facilities, political violence and vandalism. Classes are usually suspended when it is raining because there are no doors and no windows in the classrooms. The schooling is frequently disturbed due to the chaotic behaviour of people in the vicinity. For

example, it is not uncommon to find a car spinning its wheels and causing a lot of dust and a lot of confusion in the school. In spite of all these problems, it is surprising that the teaching staff and students are willing to work hard.

The school has a student population of 1000 and a teaching staff of 33. Its matric pass rate was recorded at 40% in 1992, which showed a significant decline from 50% in 1991. Given the conditions under which the school operates, it is highly admirable that it is able to maintain adequate levels of teaching and learning and has a good matric pass rate every year. The problem of discipline is non-existent. Students often attend extra tuition classes in Johannesburg city centre and at other venues in SOWETO.

It has been generally observed that the four schools that have been selected on the strength of satisfying the set criteria of a good school, have not done exceptionally well in terms of matric results. Even though some of them manage to achieve surprisingly good results in matric despite the conditions under which they operate, they cannot be completely regarded as role models especially to those that achieve below the average. Again, it must be noted that the study does not compare the conditions under which the effective and ineffective schools operate in general. It is therefore clear that the selection of these schools was based on the quantitative rather than qualitative analysis of examination results. For instance, these schools obtained pass percentages of 40, 50 and 60. This would have put a completely different complexion on the discourse if the schools selected had achieved percentages ranging from 80 to 100. **Therefore the present study will attempt to focus its attention specifically on the conditions that are**

associated with each of these schools, that is, as effective and ineffective schools. More importantly, the selection will be based on qualitative analysis of examination results.

3.6 STUDIES ON CURRICULUM AND SCHOOL DEVELOPMENT

A study of phasing in a new curriculum for the Junior Certificate was conducted in Ireland during 1989 (Posch, 1996: 354). The study by Posch (1996) is relevant to the present study due to the fact that it deals with patterns displayed by educators whenever the process of change is introduced. This was done at St Patrick College in Maynooth, a teacher training institution that wanted to assess the impact which the new curriculum was going to have on the education system in general. This initiative comprised of teachers drawn from 15 schools. The main characteristics of the institution's curriculum were its emphasis on student initiatives and the opportunities that it offered for students to engage actively with the material being learned.

The Education Department then used the new curriculum as a context for developing new strategic models of in-service teacher development. It must also be pointed out here that whenever a curriculum is to be developed, teachers are also bound to be developed because curriculum development is in a sense staff development (Posch, 1996:354). This initiative was based on four principles according to Archer (Posch, 1996:354) – as follows:

(i) Professional development is promoted by giving teachers, principals and deputy principals the opportunities to reflect critically on their own practices; by encouraging the sharing of ideas and experience with

colleagues in their own and other schools and by, in a variety of ways, involving participants in decision-making about the things that affect their work;

(ii) The basic unit of change is the whole school and therefore, in-service training that is designed to support change is most likely effective when it targets the team of people that make up the staff of the school;

(iii) Teacher and staff development programmes are most meaningful and effective when they are undertaken to support efforts to respond to some challenge which is currently being faced;

(iv) Much of the support which schools involved in change need can be found locally through co-operation with other schools and with other educational agencies such as the Education Faculties of universities.

In workshops for teachers and principals, participants were offered opportunities to describe and demonstrate aspects of their own practices and to engage with other participants in reflection and discussion of these practices (vide principle a.). It was even emphasised that teachers, principals and deputy principals should commit themselves to the initiative before their schools were included. Schools were organised in local clusters and contacts with others were stimulated.

The study's findings were based on the four principles of staff development as listed in the preceding paragraphs. They were as follows (Posch, 1996:355):

(i) Teachers reported that the opportunity to share ideas and experiences

and to discuss common problems has boosted their confidence.

(ii) The vast majority of teachers had taken ideas covered in the workshops and tried them out in their classrooms. There is evidence of a modest shift in emphasis away from more traditional teaching methods towards some of the methods promoted by the new curriculum designers, including project work and small group work.

(iii) The majority of teachers reported some increase in collaboration among subject teachers.

(iv) The non-threatening design of workshops enabled teachers to learn, enthusiastically and collaboratively, new ideas from the new curriculum.

(v) It was also discovered that a working relationship developed between the two schools.

(vi) Timetables were regarded as the major obstacles to change.

3.7 A STUDY ON SCHOOL FACILITIES AND PUPILS' ACADEMIC ACHIEVEMENTS

The study mentioned above was conducted by Mwamwenda and Mwamwenda (1987) in primary schools in Botswana. The aim of the study was to examine empirically the relationship between academic achievement and variables such as the availability of classrooms, furniture and books in Botswana primary schools. Mwamwenda and Mwamwenda (1987) wanted to challenge questions posed by

some studies that they reviewed which doubted the importance of school facilities in education. The study by Mwamwenda and Mwamwenda (1987) is related to the present study in the sense that it investigates the extent to which physical resources are associated with academic achievement. The present study also investigates the extent to which elements of whole school development are associated with school effectiveness.

The study sample comprised fifty-one (51) schools that were chosen from four-hundred (400) primary schools in Botswana. This was done through a stratified random sampling. From these schools, 51 head teachers participated in the research. Of the 51 head teachers, there were 30 men and 21 women. The teaching experience of head teachers ranged from one year to 39 years, with a mean of 18.2 years. Their experience as head teachers ranged from one year to 21 years, with a mean of 6 years. In addition to head teachers, there were 2 559 pupils writing their final primary school examination. Of the total, 1 517 were girls and 1 042 boys. Their ages ranged from 12 to 14 years with a mean of 13.0 years.

Questionnaires were administered individually to head teachers. The questionnaire solicited information regarding the availability of school facilities such as classrooms, books, desks, chairs, staff room, etc. Head teachers were also asked to give information on their sex, years of teaching experience, and leadership. For pupils, standard 7 primary school-leaving examinations were used as the research instrument. The marks for all pupils who sat for the standard 7 examinations at the end of 1984 were collected from the Examinations Section and recorded for analysis.

Concerning the availability of classrooms, the analyses showed that pupils who belonged to schools with enough classrooms performed significantly better than pupils who did not have enough classrooms. This shows a positive relationship between academic achievement and availability of classrooms. The teachers' perceptions of the availability of classrooms vindicated their claims that they were often unable to conduct their classes outside because of adverse weather conditions. This justifies the pupils' poor performance in examinations and proves that it can be attributed to a lack of classrooms.

With regard to the availability of desks and seats, the analyses indicated that pupils who have access to sufficient desks and seats produced a statistically significant performance in their examinations. Thus, the availability of desks and seats is positively related to academic achievement, which vindicated the teachers' perceptions in this regard.

Statistical analyses of the availability of books showed that the performance of pupils who belonged to schools with an adequate supply of books was significantly superior to that of pupils belonging to schools without enough books. This indicates that there is indeed a positive relationship between the availability of books and academic achievement. This was further supported by teachers' perceptions of achievement as related to the availability of books.

The study by Mwamwenda and Mwamwenda (1987) focused on the relationship between the availability of school facilities and academic achievement, while not measuring the extent to which school facilities are associated with academic achievements. In the present study, this is considered as one of the elements of school organisation. Elements of whole school development are multifaceted.

Therefore, in the present study, the extent to which the elements of whole school development contribute to achievement will also be examined.

3.8 A STUDY ON TEACHER CHARACTERISTICS AND PUPILS' ACADEMIC ACHIEVEMENTS IN BOTSWANA PRIMARY EDUCATION

This study was conducted by Mwamwenda and Mwamwenda (1989) in the primary schools in Botswana. The purpose of the study was to investigate teachers' characteristics, namely sex and teaching experience and their impact on Botswana pupils' performance during the final year of primary education.

The study sample was made up out of 51 primary schools that were selected through stratified random sampling. The study sample comprised eighty-seven (87) standard seven teachers responsible for preparing examinations during the final year of primary education. Of the 87 teachers there were fifty-two (52) women and thirty-five (35) men. Their teaching experience ranged from two years to 34 years with a mean of eleven years. There were 2 559 standard seven pupils who participated in the study. Of this number, there were 1 517 girls and 1 042 boys. Their ages ranged from 12 to 14 years with a mean age of 13.9 years.

A questionnaire was individually administered to teachers. They were asked to state their gender and years of teaching experience. Pupils' scores were based on their performance in their final national examination results.

Statistical analyses results showed that pupils taught by teachers with more teaching experience performed significantly better than pupils taught by less

experienced teachers. Thus, the variable of teaching experience has been shown to have an effect on pupils' academic performance. This was also supported by teachers' perceptions in this regard. Teachers of Botswana are convinced that a teachers' experience has a role to play in the improvement of quality of education.

The next step was a statistical analysis of the relationship between teacher's sex and pupils' academic achievement. Analyses showed that pupils taught by female teachers performed significantly better than pupils taught by male teachers.

It is found, however, that the scope of the study by Mwamwenda and Mwamwenda (1989) is too limited. It only focused on the relationship between the variables of sex and teaching experience and pupils' academic performance. In the present study, such variables were one of the aims that were investigated as it affected school effectiveness. The study by Mwamwenda and Mwamwenda (1989) did not include other variables such as teaching qualification and teachers' ages. These elements were included in the present study.

3.9 CONCLUSION

For a long time it has been known that whenever an instrument is used in research, the instrument has to be constructed and then piloted in order to ensure its validity and reliability. One of the studies that were conducted proved not to be following the usual trend in the research exercise. Factors that caused a high incidence of failure in Grade twelve examinations were identified by the respondents. These factors were then ranked as to the degree of acuteness in order to conclude the findings. Not only was this strange, but it also offered an alternative approach to the field of research. In addition to that, the concept of investigating people's

perceptions, which has been noted in the studies reviewed, has relevance to the present study as it purports to investigate the perceptions of educators. The approaches adopted in this regard have been carefully noted.

It has further become evident in the literature review that it is possible to construct the questions in the questionnaire in such a way that they are based on essential features of school organisation development – in cases where these features were prescribed by government policy. Six-point rating scales ranging from strongly disagree through to strongly agree could be used to measure them.

Lastly, perhaps one needs to think about what has been deduced from one of the studies concerning the way in which policies are understood and implemented. The case of unclear or unpopular government policies relating to teacher/learner ratio bears testimony to this effect. Elliott (1996:199) believes that politicians and government officials are misled by some of researchers' findings on school effectiveness. Elliott (1996:199) clearly argues that these findings are being used to politically justify a refusal to respond to teachers' anxieties about the increasing sizes of the classes that they have to teach. Eventually, politicians and government officials somehow came to an agreement that poor performance in schools is caused by lack of capacity to teach on the part of educators.

CHAPTER FOUR

4.0 SAMPLING DESIGN

4.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter presents fieldwork procedures followed in the standardisation of the research instrument. The administration of the research instrument was done by the researcher personally. There are 49 items that were validated during the pilot study (see Appendix A).

4.2 SAMPLING DESIGN

The study sample is drawn from the KwaZulu-Natal Department of Education and Culture, which has eight regions namely North Durban, South Durban, Pietermaritzburg, Port Shepstone, Ulundi, Empangeni, Vryheid and Ladysmith. These regions are perceived to be different entities, in other words, they differ from each other and are therefore heterogeneous, whereas each region is viewed as a homogeneous entity. The nature of the target population has therefore necessitated the choice of cluster sampling design (Sibaya, 1993:67). Cluster sampling has also been deemed to be advisable because the population is too large for simple random sampling and because there is no sampling frame available for the population, cluster (Schweigert, 1994:108).

It has also been noted that various studies (Coleman & Collinge, 1991; Daly, 1991; Edmonds, 1979; Mortimore, 1991; Nuttal, Goldstein, Prosser & Rasbash, 1989; Sibaya & Malan, 1992) on school effectiveness and

achievement have used a cluster a sampling design to select subject schools that formed part of their respective study samples. The pilot run was conducted in two schools in the Nkandla district which is in the Ulundi region and these schools will therefore not participate in the final study. At least two regions, namely Empangeni and Ulundi, will form part of the sample. Schools within the regions will be selected randomly.

4.3 THE RESEARCH INSTRUMENT

The research instrument to be used in this study is a questionnaire. The review of work done in school effectiveness has revealed that the questionnaire is one of the most frequently used methods of collecting data (Moloi, Grobler & Gravett, 2002; Legotlo, Maaga, Sebego, Van der Westhuizen, Mosage, Nieuwoundt, 2002; Ngcobo, 1998; Hlatshwayo, 1996; Ndlovu, 1993).

The questionnaire consists of two sections, namely Section A and Section B. Section A relates to questions of a personal nature which will enable the researcher to determine the characteristics of the group of teachers in relation to the responses they will provide. Section B consists of statements that relate to the object of investigation. Respondents are offered a choice of alternative answers in the form of a rating scale. The aim is to assess the perceptions of the teachers with regard to each statement, ranging from being more positive (a lot) to being negative (none). The researcher administered these questionnaires in person.

4.3.1 The relationship between the aims of the study and the research instrument

Due to factor analysis to be discussed later in this chapter, the original five aims of the study have been clustered around certain factors and have therefore been reduced to three. The aims will be stated below, together with the items to measure each of the aims.

The first aim is to determine the extent to which access to technical and human resources is being associated with school effectiveness.

This aim was measured by means of items 1.1 through 1.22 of the questionnaire. These items are based on technical and human resources that schools employ for effectiveness in terms of their academic performance.

The second aim is to determine the extent to which adoption of a clear culture, vision and identity is being considered as the essential features of school effectiveness.

This aim was measured by means of items 2.1 through 2.15 of the questionnaire. These items were based on aspects of culture, vision and the identity of the school.

The third aim is to determine the extent to which involvement in efficient strategic planning; structural arrangements and procedures is being considered as the essential features of school effectiveness.

This aim was measured by means of items 3.1 through 3.10 of the questionnaire. These items relate to the aspects of strategic planning, structural arrangements and procedures of the school. This aim was measured by cross tabulation of scores and teachers' characteristics.

4.3.2 Method of Scoring

Each respondent was required to place a tick (✓) in the appropriate space or box corresponding to his/her opinion with regard to each statement. Their opinions were rated from a lot, to some extent, a little, none or do not know. These categories were scored by assigning numerical values of 5, 2, 1, or 0 respectively.

TABLE 4.1 THE SCORING PROCEDURE FOR THE QUESTIONNAIRE

RATING CATEGORY	NUBERICAL WEIGHT OR VALUE
A Lot	5
To Some Extent	2
A Little	1
None	0
Do Not Know	0

"A lot" means approximately 2½ times more organisational effectiveness than "to some extent". "To some extent" means one unit more than "a little." "None" and "do not know" means zero effectiveness.

The rating categories are ordinal and therefore the selection of numerical weight is arbitrary. Such selection is defensible only on the

grounds of professional judgement. Such judgements are always open to question (Eckhardt, & Ermann, 1977). The total score for each respondent was obtained by summing up the values of the individual items. In this fashion, a high total score indicated a positive perception, whereas a low total score indicated a negative perception with regard to each aim.

4.3.3 Administration Procedures of the Research Instrument

The cluster sampling design was used. The selection of individuals within a cluster for inclusion in the sample was voluntary. Consequently, the questionnaire was administered to those teachers who volunteered to participate in the research project. No questionnaire was mailed to the respondents. In other words, questionnaires were administered by the researcher. The researcher then explained the purpose of the exercise. The researcher read the instructions carefully as they are written on the front page of the measuring instrument. Each respondent was given one questionnaire. On completion, the researcher then collected the questionnaires.

4.4 DATA ANALYSIS

Data were analysed aim by aim. Scores obtained in terms of respondents' choices with regard to the opinions in the questionnaire constituted ordinal data. In each test, scores of respondents were added together in order to calculate the mean scores. A high total score, computed by addition, represented a positive perception and a low total score was an indication of a negative perception.

The research hypotheses were tested by the use of a one-sample t-test. This concerns hypothesis number one through to hypothesis number three. The one-sample t-test was prepared to the z-test because the information regarding the population deviation, σ which is required for the z-test could not be located (Hopkins & Glass, 1978:225).

Regarding questions requiring information of a demographic nature, multivariate statistical tests will be used to test them. The aim is to compare respondents' characteristics with the information they supplied with regard to these questions.

4.5 RESULTS OF THE PILOT STUDY

Two schools from Nkandla district participated in the pilot study. They are Velangaye and Mthiyaqhwa High Schools. The scoring of the research instrument was done manually. All questionnaires were correctly completed by eighteen educators.

4.5.1 Factor Analysis for 49 Items

A factor analysis was done to identify items which belong to a particular factor and to label these factors.

TABLE 4.1 VERIMAX ROTATED FACTOR PATTERN: FACTOR LOADINGS OF THE 49 ITEMS

ITEM	FACTOR			ESTIMATED COMMUNALITY
	1	2	3	
1	0.20	**0.39**	0.18	0.22
2	0.09	0.36	**0.67**	0.57
3	0.13	0.18	**0.43**	0.24
4	0.10	0.18	0.22	0.09
5	0.27	**0.53**	0.34	0.46
6	0.07	0.24	0.22	0.11
7	0.23	**0.66**	0.17	0.52
8	0.19	**0.60**	0.29	0.48
9	0.44	**0.59**	0.12	0.56
10	0.14	**0.64**	0.01	0.42
11	0.04	**0.77**	0.28	0.68
12	0.28	**0.78**	0.08	0.70
13	0.07	**0.79**	0.07	0.63
14	0.21	**0.57**	0.18	0.41
15	0.30	**0.82**	0.03	0.76
16	0.12	**0.87**	0.11	0.78
17	0.16	**0.81**	0.06	0.68
18	0.02	**0.88**	0.05	0.78
19	0.08	**0.61**	0.22	0.43
20	0.34	0.12	**0.61**	0.52
21	0.05	0.04	**0.88**	0.79
22	0.42	0.26	**0.45**	0.44
23	0.22	0.04	**0.78**	0.65
24	0.12	0.02	**0.88**	0.81
25	0.15	0.03	**0.58**	0.74
26	0.04	0.14	**0.77**	0.62
27	0.29	0.02	**0.88**	0.86
28	**0.80**	0.05	0.18	0.67
29	**0.47**	0.01	0.30	0.32
30	**0.81**	0.18	0.16	0.71
31	**0.78**	0.04	0.15	0.64
32	**0.94**	0.07	0.11	0.91
33	**0.68**	0.02	0.06	0.46
34	**0.82**	0.03	0.23	0.73
35	**0.95**	0.05	0.06	0.90
36	**0.71**	0.17	0.11	0.54
37	**0.87**	0.06	0.06	0.76
38	**0.93**	0.18	0.04	0.89
39	**0.94**	0.01	0.05	0.91
40	**0.93**	0.11	0.06	0.88
41	**0.96**	0.09	0.06	0.93
42	**0.73**	0.27	0.12	0.62
43	**0.68**	0.37	0.09	0.60
44	**0.83**	0.11	0.07	0.70
45	**0.65**	0.01	0.21	0.47
46	**0.62**	0.17	0.04	0.42
47	**0.73**	0.21	0.32	0.68
48	**0.66**	0.19	0.18	0.50
49	**0.54**	0.28	0.02	0.37

Bold type indicates item highest loading on a factor

Table 4.1 for factor loadings depicts correlation coefficients between factors and items. These coefficients represent factor loadings of the items on the factors, that is, the degree to which an item is associated with a certain factor. In the table, the first column contains item numbers. The second, third and fourth columns respectively contain loadings between factors 1, 2 and 3 and each item in turn. Each entry in the last column represents an estimated communality of an item.

Table 4.1 shows that items 28, 29, 30, 31, 32, 33, 34, 35, 36, 37, 38, 39, 40, 41, 42, 43, 44, 45, 46, 47, 48 and 49 have, relatively, the highest loadings on the first factor and relatively lower loadings on the third and fourth factors. Factor 1 which they measure could be labelled access to technical and human resources. Item numbers 1, 5, 7, 8, 9, 10, 11, 12, 13, 14, 15, 16, 17, 18 and 19 have, relatively, the highest loadings on the second factor and relatively lower loadings on the first and third factors. Factor 2 which they measure could be labelled adoption of a clear culture, vision and identity. Item numbers 2, 3, 20, 21, 22, 23, 24, 25, 26 and 27 have, relatively, the highest loadings on the third factor and relatively lower loadings on the first and second factors. Factor 3 could be labelled involvement in efficient strategic planning, structural arrangements and procedures.

Factor analysis has made it possible for 49 items to group themselves into three factors. This illustrates that factor analysis has demonstrated that there are sets of items which are homogenous and thus cluster closely around one factor.

In deciding on a cut-off point for the selection of items to be included in the final scale, Breakwell, Hammond and Fife-Schaw (1995:375) recommend a factor loading of 0.35. Therefore, a factor loading of 0.35 indicating a 12% overlap in variance between the variable and the factor was used as a cut-off point in this study. Using this cut-off point, item numbers 4 and 6 were discarded. Their highest factor loadings are 0.22 and 0.24 respectively. This means that out of 49 items piloted; only 2 were discarded from the final scale. Therefore, the total number of items in the questionnaire for the final study is 47 (See Appendix B).

4.5.2 Description of the three items

These factors are access to technical and human resources; adoption of a clear culture, vision and identity as well as involvement in efficient strategic planning, structural arrangements and procedures. Their description is as follows:

FACTOR 1: ACCESS TO TECHNICAL AND HUMAN RESOURCES (Items 28 through to 49)

Technical and human resources entail facilities in the form of physical resources and manpower utilisation. Clearly, technical resources include things that facilitate the act of teaching and learning. On the other hand, human resources include people or members of staff such as teachers. These two aspects are grouped together because they seem to compliment each other. For instance, it is important to capacitate teachers on the profitable use of facilities at school. Facilities on their own are useless, unless they are expertly used by educators. By the same token, teachers who are appropriately trained to use these facilities can be frustrated if they find themselves in a school where facilities are non-existent.

The internal-consistency reliability estimate for this subscale, using Cronbach's coefficient alpha, is 0.97. This reliability coefficient is excellent comparing with a reliability coefficient of at least 0.70 as recommended by Breakwell *et al.* (1995:206) for any scale to be considered good.

FACTOR 2: ADOPTION OF A CLEAR CULTURE, VISION AND IDENTITY (Item 5 - 1, 5, 7, 8 9, 10, 11, 12, 13, 14, 15, 16, 17, 18, and 19).

Culture, vision and identity include anything to do with working atmosphere. This working atmosphere is usually characterised by idiosyncratic practices that symbolise and are considered as a norm

for all individuals in that environment. The Cronbach alpha coefficient for this subscale is 0.93, which is also far above 0.70.

FACTOR 3: INVOLVEMENT IN EFFICIENT STRATEGIC PLANNING, STRUCTURAL ARRANGEMENTS AND PROCEDURES (Items 2, 3, 20, 21, 22, 23, 24, 25, 26 and 27).

Strategic planning, structural arrangements and procedures deal with matters of school management. This includes tendencies by certain school management teams of making educators either part of the school or being regarded as nothing but objects or tools. This is normally reflected in the manner in which the school management team relates with educators. For example, if educators are not involved in the decision making process, they may not own the decision made by the school management team. The Cronbach coefficient alpha for this subscale is 0.91, which again is also far above 0.70.

4.6 CONCLUSION

This chapter has been about the design and the methodology of the research. The nature of the study has necessitated that questionnaires on educators' perceptions of differential examination results in Grade twelve be developed. This instrument consists of two sections (sections A and B) where the first section concentrates on the demographic aspects and the second one on the aims of the study. All this was done with the purpose of collecting data for the study. The next chapter will focus on the presentation of data.

CHAPTER FIVE

5. 0 PRESENTATION AND ANALYSIS OF DATA

5.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter is concerned with the presentation, analysis and interpretation of data/results. It is also in chapter five that the hypotheses formulated in chapter three will be tested. The discussion of the findings will be done in the next chapter.

5.2 FINAL STUDY SAMPLE

The subjects for the final study sample were drawn from the four regions of the province of KwaZulu-Natal. These regions are Zululand, Ethekwini, Pietermaritzburg and Uthukela.

Table 5.1: Categorization of Subjects in the Final Study Sample (N=404)

Gender	Males 195	Females 209		
Age	Under 20 years 4	21–30 years 165	31–40 years 189	41years and above 46
Teaching Qualification	Primary Teachers Diploma 108	Secondary Teachers Diploma 183	University Education Diploma 65	Other 48
Teaching Experience	0–3 years 110	4–6 years 85	7–9 years 110	10 years and above 99

The questionnaire was administered to 404 educators. The details regarding the procedures employed in the administration of questionnaire and fieldwork were discussed in the previous chapter. The aim of the present chapter is to present the results of the final study.

The method of scoring employed in the pilot study was also used in the final study. Inaccurately completed questionnaires were discarded.

5.3 REITERATION OF HYPOTHESES

The hypotheses to be tested are listed below.

Hypothesis 1:
Access to technical and human resources is associated with school effectiveness.

Technical support deals with the issues relating to the allocation of budgets for support services required in order for the school to assume a status of well-being and inclusion. Inherent to this is manpower which is in the form of people who must be accordingly developed to meet challenges associated with the achievement of the goals of the organisation. For purposes of health promotion and inclusion in schools, good interpersonal relations must be cultivated.

Hypothesis 2:

Adoption of a clear culture, vision and identity is associated with school effectiveness.

This relates to a situation where the key values are to be identified in order for all government departments to be committed. Once these values are entrenched, principles based on the understanding of these values are formulated. The formulation of the school's vision and mission, which subsequently leads the school's policy, is informed by the stakeholders' interpretation of the principles.

Hypothesis 3:

Involvement in efficient strategic planning, structural arrangements and procedures is associated with school effectiveness.

This is concerned with the setting of the school's goals, planning and evaluation process as informed by its vision and mission. This exercise should be done in tandem with the promotion of the school's well-being and inclusion.

Hypothesis 4:

Gender, age, qualifications and teaching experience (as dimensions of respondents) are associated with school effectiveness.

The respondents' responses in terms of sex, age, teaching qualification and teaching experience were analysed as we believed that there would be a possibility that their perceptions would respond to the items in accordance with the aforementioned dimensions.

5.3.1 **Hypothesis Number One**

"*Access to technical and human resources is associated with school effectiveness*"

In order to determine whether any association exists between access to technical, human resources and school effectiveness, the numerical weight for every item will be calculated and then the items will be ranked on the basis of their numerical weight or value. This means that all twenty- two items, that is, items 1.1 through 1.22 will have their numerical weight calculated. Annexures A1 through A22 depict these calculations.

TABLE 5.2 SET I: Composite scores of twenty-two Items to measure access to technical and human resources in terms of school effectiveness

Item Number	Technical and Human Resources Item	Composite Score	Rank Order
1.1	A usable chalkboard	323	19
1.2	Chalk	357	12
1.3	Desks (availability)	412	3
1.4	Learners' exercise books	433	1
1.5	Learners' textbooks	425	2
1.6	Electricity	339	16.5
1.7	Water	407	4
1.8	Library	366	10
1.9	Duplication Machine	360	11
1.10	Type-writer	320	20
1.11	Photocopier	376	8
1.12	Telephone	300	22
1.13	Teaching and learning support aids	404	5
1.14	Availability of budgets to buy school needs	388	7
1.15	A programme for staff development	339	16.5
1.16	Supervision as part of staff development	334	18
1.17	Staff development for newly-appointed teachers	344	15
1.18	Capacity building of School Management team	356	13
1.19	Competency on the part of teachers	371	9
1.20	Good working conditions for teachers	394	6
1.21	Presence of administrative staff	350	14
1.22	Staff responsible for acquiring, storing and making available of the resources such as donations	305	21

Table 5.2 is based on annexures A1 through A22 and serves to show the extent to which each item is associated with factor one (access to technical and human resources). The items have been ranked in order of composite score or numerical weight as described or shown in table 5.2. In other words, the item that has the greatest composite score is ranked in position number one. By the same token, the item that has the lowest composite score is ranked in the last position, which in this case is position number twenty-two.

The mean score of the items, in terms of weight determined, is three hundred and sixty-four (364). Items with a composite score of 364 and above should generally be regarded as being closely associated with factor one. The converse should be concluded about those items that have composite scores less than 364. The composite mean score of 364 also indicates the extent to which factor one is being associated with school effectiveness. In terms of ranked scores, rank order numbers 1 through 10 were above 364 and rank orders number 11 through 22 were below 364.

We reiterate our first hypothesis:

> *"Access to technical and human resources is associated with school effectiveness"*

Here we wanted to determine whether there was any association between access to technical and human resources and school effectiveness. A one - sample t-test was used to test this hypothesis.

In order to perform the one-sample t-test, the following assumptions must be met:

- There should be one random sample of interval or ratio scores.
- The raw score population should form a normal distribution for which the mean is the appropriate measure of central tendency.
- The standard deviation of the raw score population is estimated by the $s_{\bar{x}}$ computed from the sample (Heiman, 1996:309).

The t-test was preferred to the z-test because the information regarding the population standard deviation could not be located (Hopkins & Glass, 1978:25). As the data reasonably meet these three assumptions, the single sample t-test is indicated as the best option. Justification for this emanates from the fact that the t-test is a parametric test, which is robust in that it produces minimal error and is therefore eminently suitable to test the hypothesis by means of the formula as described by the Hopkins and Glass (1978:190):

$$t = \frac{\bar{x} - \mu}{S_{\bar{x}}}$$

In order to determine the value of t, one needs to picture a normal distribution curve. In this case, the curve is symmetrical about the mean (Heiman, 1996:158). According to the data that we have, the mean $\bar{x}$ for factor one is 364. As illustrated in annexures A, B and C, the numerical weight is the product of the weight and percentage of responses. This represents the maximum numerical weight or value. In this way it can be

seen that in a normal distribution curve, the percentage of responses would be 100 (the maximum or the total number of responses). Again, the weighting of responses could assume the maximum score which is five across-the-board. The equation becomes 100 x 5 = 500 which is the maximum weight or value. Since the expected mean (μ) is at the centre of the normal distribution curve, we would thus expect it to be 250. In this way any mean below this would indicate a negative perception among the teachers, whereas a mean of 250 and above would indicate a positive perception.

For purposes of one-sample t-test, we must set up the null hypothesis: (H_o: $\mu \leq 250$) and alternative hypothesis (H_a: $\mu > 250$).

With this background, one can proceed to calculate the confidence interval (C. I.) at 0.95 for n = 22. The equation for confidence interval is:

$$0.95 \text{ C. I.} = \bar{x} \pm t\, s_{\bar{x}}$$ (Hopkins & Glass, 1978: 194).

Where $\bar{x} = 364$ $\qquad$ $0.95 \text{ C.I.} = \bar{x} \pm t\, s_{\bar{x}}$

$t = (1.72)$ if df = 21 and

$s_{\bar{x}} = 37$

Thus $0.95 \text{ C. I.} = 364 \pm (1.72)(37)$

$= 364 \pm 63.64$

The 0.95 confidence interval extends from 300.36 to 427.64. This confidence interval is clearly nowhere near the expected mean of 250.

Calculating the value of t, $t = \frac{364 - 250}{37}$

$= 3.08$

The calculated t-value of 3.08 at df = 21 leads us to reject the null hypothesis and accept the alternative hypothesis. Thus the sample mean represents a population mean greater than 250.

Since t is 3.08 at df = 21, it would be significant even if we had used the 0.01 level. Therefore, instead of saying $p < 0.05$, we gain more information by reporting that $p < 0.01$.

Thus, we conclude that our sample mean of 364 is significantly different from the expected mean of 250. Our 0.95 confidence interval from 300.36 to 427.64 is considerably above the expected mean, **showing that the teachers' perception of school effectiveness is very strong in respect of factor one (access to technical and human resources).**

5.3.2 Hypothesis Number Two

> *"Adoption of a clear culture, vision and identity is associated with school effectiveness."*

In order to determine whether there is any association between adoption of a clear culture, vision and identity (collectively) and school effectiveness, the numerical weight for every item will be calculated and then the items will be ranked on the basis of their numerical weight or value. This means that all

fifteen items, that is, 2.1 through to 2.15 will have their numerical weight calculated as reflected in Annexures B1 through B15.

TABLE 5.3 SET II: Composite scores of fifteen items to measure adoption of a clear culture, vision and identity in terms of school effectiveness.

Item Number	Culture, Vision and Identity Item	Composite Score	Rank Order
2.1	Focusing on setting goals	408	2
2.2	Focusing on good role-modelling on the part of teachers	350	12
2.3	Showing commitment to learning on the part of learners	393	4
2.4	Things promoting teaching and learning	370	11
2.5	Punctuality at school	394	3
2.6	Regular attendance at school	415	1
2.7	The way we do things in this school	306	15
2.8	Sharing of beliefs about how the school should function	335	14
2.9	A strong sense of belonging to your school	374	10
2.10	A shared educational idea which provides the school with a guiding spirit and a sense of direction	344	13
2.11	Team work and a supportive culture	392	5
2.12	Involvement in decision-making	382	8
2.13	Effective working atmosphere	390	6
2.14	Obedience to school policies	386	7
2.15	The school purports to get good examination results	376	9

Table 5.3 is based on Annexures B1 through B15. It serves to show the extent to which each item is being associated with factor two (adoption of a clear culture, vision and identity). The items have been ranked in order of composite score or numerical value as illustrated in table 5.3. In other words, the item that has the greatest composite score or numerical value is ranked in the top position, that is, position number one. By the same token, the item

that has the lowest composite score or numerical value is ranked in the last position.

The mean score of these items, in terms of weight determined, is three hundred and seventy-four (374). Items with a composite score of 374 and above should be regarded as being strongly associated with factor two. The converse also holds true for those items that have composite scores of less than 374. The composite mean score of 374 further indicates the extent to which factor two is associated with school effectiveness.

In terms of ranked scores, rank order numbers 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8 and 9 were above 374. Only rank order number 10 was equal to 374, while rank order numbers 11, 12, 13, 14 were below 374.

To reiterate hypothesis number two:

> *"Adoption of a clear culture, vision and identity is associated with school effectiveness"*

In order to determine whether there is any association between adoption of a clear culture, vision and identity, and school effectiveness, a one-sample t-test was used.

To perform the one-sample t-test, the following assumptions must be made:

- There is one random sample of interval or ratio scores.

- The raw score population forms a normal distribution for which the mean is the appropriate measure of central tendency.
- The standard deviation of the raw score population is estimated by the $s_{\bar{x}}$ computed from the sample (Heiman, 1996:309).

The choice of t-test rather than z- test was due to the fact that the information necessary to determine the population standard deviation could not be located (Hopkins & Glass, 1978:225). If the data reasonably meet these three assumptions, the single sample t-test can be performed. Such justification emanates from the fact that the t-test is a parametric test. This means that the parametric test is robust in that it produces minimal error. Thus the hypothesis was tested using the formula as described by Hopkins and Glass (1978:190):

$$t = \frac{\bar{x} - \mu}{S_{\bar{x}}}$$

To determine the value of t, we need to again picture a normal distribution curve as argued in paragraph 5.3.1. The maximum numerical weight is 500 and the expected mean is 250.

For purposes of a one-sample t-test, we must set up the null hypothesis, as follows:

(H_o: $\mu \leq 250$) and alternative hypothesis (H_a: $\mu > 250$).

We then proceed to calculate the confidence interval at 0.95 for n = 15. The equation is 0.95 C. I. $= \bar{x} \pm t\, s_{\bar{x}}$ (Hopkins & Glass, 1978:194)

$$= 374 \pm (1.76)\,(28), \text{ if df} = 14$$
$$= 374 \pm 49.28$$

The 0.95 confidence interval extends from 324.72 to 423.28. This confidence interval is again not at all near the expected mean (μ) of 250.

Calculating the t – value, $t = \frac{374 - 250}{28}$

$$= 4.43$$

Since t is 4.43 at df = 14, it would be significant even if we had used the 0.01 level. Therefore, instead of saying $p < 0.05$, we gain more information by reporting that $p < 0.01$.

Thus, we conclude that our sample mean of 374 is significantly different from the expected mean of 250. Our 0.95 confidence interval from 324.72 to 423.28 is far above the expected mean. **This indicates that the teachers' perception of school effectiveness is very strong in respect of factor two (adoption of a clear culture, vision and identity).**

5.3.3 Hypothesis Number Three

> *"Involvement in efficient strategic planning, structural arrangements and procedures is associated with school effectiveness."*

In order to determine whether any association exists between involvement in efficient strategic planning, structural arrangements and procedures on the one hand and school effectiveness on the other, numerical weights will be calculated for every item. Again this numerical weight will be used to rank the items which will then indicate the extent to which it is associated with the factor (school effectiveness). This means that all ten items, 3.1 through 3.10 will have their numerical weight calculated. Therefore Annexures C1 through C10 are merely intended to depict such calculations.

TABLE 5.4 SET III: Composite scores of ten items to measure involvement in efficient strategic planning; structural arrangements and procedures in terms of school effectiveness.

Item Number	Strategic Planning, Structural Arrangements and Procedures Items	Composite Score	Rank Order
3.1	Planning action steps to achieve goals	374	1
3.2	Implementing action steps	341	7
3.3	A sense of shared ownership of decisions on the part of all concerned.	320	9
3.4	Communication between yourself and the principal.	364	3
3.5	Communication between yourself and fellow teachers	366	2
3.6	Communication between yourself and the school management team	358	4
3.7	Communication between yourself and parents	337	8
3.8	Communication between yourself and the school governing body	320	9
3.9	School managers working collaboratively with teachers.	342	5
3.10	School managers working consultatively with teachers.	342	5

Table 5.4 has been constructed based on Annexures C1 through C10. It serves to illustrate the extent to which each item is being associated with factor three (involvement in efficient strategic planning; structural arrangements and procedures). The items have been ranked in order of composite score or numerical value, as illustrated in table 5.4. In other words, item(s) that has/have the greatest composite score or numerical value is/are ranked in the top position, that is, position number one. By the same token, item(s) that has/have the smallest composite score or numerical value is/are ranked in the last position.

The mean score of these items, in terms of weight determined, is three hundred and forty-six (346). Items with composite scores of 346 and above should be regarded as very strong in terms of being associated with factor three. It is true to conclude the converse about those items that have composite scores of less than 346. Further, the composite score of 346 is an indication of the extent to which factor three is being associated with school effectiveness.

In terms of ranked scores, rank order numbers 1, 2, 3 and 4 were above 346 and rank order number 5.5, 7, 8, 9 and 10 were below 346.

We reiterate our hypothesis number three:

> *"Involvement in efficient strategic planning, structural arrangements and procedures is associated with school effectiveness"*

This hypothesis will be tested by the use of a one-sample t-test.

To perform the one-sample t-test, the following assumptions must be made:

- There is one random sample of interval or ratio scores.
- The raw score population forms a normal distribution for which the mean is the appropriate measure of the central tendency.
- The standard deviation of the raw score population is estimated by the $s_{\bar{x}}$ computed from the sample (Heiman, 1996:309).

The one-sample t-test was preferred to a z-test because when choosing the z-test one should be able to determine the population standard deviation, which in this case, could not be located (Hopkins & Glass, 1978:225). If the data reasonably meet these three assumptions, the single sample t-test can be performed. Such justification emanates from the fact that the t-test is a parametric test. This means that the parametric test is robust in that it produces minimal error. The hypothesis was tested using the formula as described by Hopkins and Glass (1978:190):

$$t = \frac{\bar{x} - \mu}{S_{\bar{x}}}$$

To determine the value of t, we need to picture a normal distribution curve as argued in paragraphs 5. 3. 1 and 5. 3. 2. Still the maximum numerical value or weight is 500 and the expected mean is 250.

For the purposes of a one-sample t-test, we must set up the null hypothesis (H_o: $\mu < 250$) and alternative hypothesis (H_a: $\mu > 250$)

We proceed to calculate the confidence interval at 0.95 for n = 10.
The equation is 0.95 C. I. = $\bar{x} \pm t\, S_{\bar{x}}$ (Hopkins & Glass, 1978: 194)

$$= 346 \pm (1.83)\,(18) \qquad 0.95\ C.\ I = \bar{x} \pm t\, S_{\bar{x}}$$

$$= 346 \pm 32.94$$

Thus, the 0.95 confidence interval extends from 313.06 to 378.94 and still is far above the expected mean.

Calculating the t – value, $t = \frac{346 - 250}{18}$

$$= 5.33$$

Since t is 5.33 at df = 9, it would also be significant even if we had used the 0.01 level. Therefore, instead of saying $p < 0.05$, we gain more information by reporting that $p < 0.01$.

Thus, we conclude that our sample mean of 346 is significantly different from the expected mean of 250. Our 0.95 confidence interval which extends

from 313.06 to 378.94 is far above the expected mean. **This indicates that the teachers' perception of school effectiveness is very strong in respect of factor three (involvement in efficient strategic planning, structural arrangements and procedures).**

5.3.4 Hypothesis number four

"Gender, age, teaching qualifications and teaching experience, as dimensions of respondents, are associated with school effectiveness".

In order to determine whether any association exists between each of the respondents' dimensions and school effectiveness, a (chi-square) one sample test will be used (Sibaya, 2003:114).

5.3.4.1 The association between the variable of gender and perception of school effectiveness

Table 5.5 Gender

	PERCEPTION	
	Positive	Negative
Males	184	11
Females	192	17

Calculation of :

$$\chi^2 = \sum [(A - E)^{2]}$$
$$\frac{}{E}$$

$$= \quad 0.978$$

$\longrightarrow$

Our obtained chi-square $\chi^2 = 0.978$. This value is less than the tabled values at both levels of significance. Since $p > 0.05$, we cannot reject the null hypothesis. We conclude that there is no association between gender and teachers' perceptions of school effectiveness.

The extent of association (if any) between gender and teachers' perceptions of school effectiveness can be tested by the use of formula:

$$C = \sqrt{\frac{\chi^2}{N + \chi^2}}$$

$$= 0.05$$

$\longrightarrow$

The obtained contingency coefficient is very low. This indicates that the gender of the respondents does not influence their perception of school effectiveness.

Table 5.6: The association between the variable of age and perception of school effectiveness.

PERCEPTION

	Positive	Negative
1	4	0
2	157	8
3	173	16
4	42	4

Calculation of :

$$\chi^2 = \sum \frac{[(A-E)^{2]}}{E}$$

$$= 2.22$$

$$\longrightarrow$$

Let α = .05 or .01 and df = 3.

Our obtained value $\chi^2 = 2.22$. This value is less than the tabled values at both levels of significance. Since $p > .05$, we cannot reject the null hypothesis. We conclude that there is no association between the variable of age and teachers' perceptions of school effectiveness.

The extent of association (if any) between the variable of age and teachers' perceptions of school effectiveness can be tested by the use of the formula:

$$C = \sqrt{\frac{\chi^2}{N + \chi^2}}$$

$$= \quad 0.07$$

$\longrightarrow$

The obtained contingency coefficient is very low. This means that the variable of age of respondents does not influence their perception of school effectiveness.

5.3.4.1 The association between the variable of teaching qualification and perception of school effectiveness.

Table 5.7 Teaching qualification

	PERCEPTION	
	Positive	Negative
1	99	9
2	176	7
3	52	13
4	45	3

Calculation of :

$$\chi^2 = \sum \frac{[(A-E)^2]}{E}$$

$$= 18.82$$

$\longrightarrow$

Let α = .05 or .01 and df = 3.

Our obtained chi-square = 18.82. This value exceeds the tabled values at both levels of significance. Since $p<0.05$, we reject the null hypothesis. We conclude that there is an association between teaching qualifications and teachers' perceptions of school effectiveness.

The extent of association (if any) between teaching qualification and teachers' perceptions of school effectiveness can be tested by the use of the formula:

$$C = \sqrt{\frac{\chi^2}{N+\chi^2}}$$

$$= 0.21$$

$\longrightarrow$

The obtained contingency coefficient is moderate. This indicates that the teaching qualification of the respondent does influence their perception of school effectiveness.

5.3.4.1 The association between the variable of teaching experience and perception of school effectiveness.

Table 5.8 Teaching qualification

PERCEPTION

	Positive	Negative
1	98	12
2	77	8
3	95	15
4	87	12

Calculation of :

$$\text{Chi-square} = \sum \frac{[(A - E)^{2}]}{E}$$

$$= 0.90$$

$$\longrightarrow$$

Let α = .05 or .01 and df = 3.

Our obtained chi-square = 18.82. This value is less than the tabled values at both levels of significance. Since $p<0.05$, we reject the null hypothesis. We conclude that there is no association between teaching experience and teachers' perceptions of school effectiveness.

The extent of association (if any) between the variable of teaching experience and teachers' perceptions of school effectiveness can be tested by the use of the formula:

$$C = \sqrt{\frac{\chi^2}{N + \chi^2}}$$

$$= \quad 0.05$$

$$\longrightarrow$$

The obtained contingency coefficient is very low. This indicates teaching experience does not influence teachers' perception of school effectiveness.

5.4 TESTING THE SIGNIFICANCE OF THE SAMPLE MEANS

The sample means of factors one, two and three as already discussed in the previous sections are 364, 374 and 346 respectively. Clearly, these figures as they represent sample means are not equal. However, the researcher wishes to investigate whether the differences are statistically significant. Statistical methods will be used to establish whether or not these differences are significant. To this end, analysis of variance (ANOVA) will be used to test the significance of the sample means.

Assumptions of using ANOVA

In a one-way, between subjects ANOVA, the experiment has only one independent variable, and all the conditions contain independent samples. The following assumptions must be made:

- Each condition contains a random sample of interval or ratio scores.
- The population represented by the scores in each condition forms a normal distribution, and the mean is the appropriate measure of the central tendency.
- The variance of all populations represented in the study are homogeneous (Heiman, 1996:382)

If the study meets the assumptions of ANOVA, Heiman (1996:383) maintains, we set alpha (usually at .05) and create our statistical hypotheses.

Our null hypothesis, H_0, implies that our sample means for all factors represent the same population mean, and therefore the sample means should be equal. The other direction of the null hypothesis becomes the alternative hypothesis.

All the mathematical procedures employed in the calculation of the critical value with a view to testing the hypothesis will be based purely on tables 5.2; 5.3 and 5.4. The computational formula for testing the hypothesis as provided by Heiman (1996: 397) is:

$$F_{obt} = \frac{MS_{bn}}{MS_{wn}}$$

Mathematical procedures to the mean square between (MS_{bn}) the sample means and the mean squares within (MS_{wn}) the sample means.

Table 5.9 ANOVA data in respect of factors.

Factor One	Factor Two	Factor Three
$\sum x = 8003.2$	$\sum x = 5615$	$\sum x = 3464$
$\sum x^2 = 2941413.8$	$\sum x^2 = 2113907$	$\sum x^2 = 1203070$
$n = 22$	$n = 15$	$n = 10$
$\bar{x}_1 = 364$	$\bar{x}_2 = 374$	$\bar{x}_3 = 346$

$$SS_{tot} = \sum x^2_{tot} - \frac{(\sum x_{tot})^2}{n}$$

$$= 494\ 11.1$$

$$SS_{bn} = \frac{(8003.2)^2}{22} + \frac{(5615)^2}{15} + \frac{(3464)^2}{10} - \frac{(17082.2)^2}{47}$$

$$= 4686.6$$

$$SS_{wn} = SS_{tot} - SS_{bn}$$

$$= 44724.2$$

Summary of table 5.10 of ANOVA

Source	**Sum of Squares**	**df**	**Mean Square**
Between	4686.6	2	2343.3 (MS_{bn})
Within	44724.2	44	1016.46 (MS_{wn})
Total	49411.1	46	

$$F_{obt} = \frac{MS_{bn}}{MS_{wn}} = \frac{2343.3}{1016.46}$$

$$= 2.31$$

In the F – tables, $F_{crit} = 3.21$ with $\alpha = 0.05$. Thus, our $F_{obt} = 2.31$ and our $F_{crit} = 3.21$. This shows that F_{obt} is not significant.

i.e. $F(2, 44) = 2.31, p > 0.05$

This shows that the null hypothesis is upheld. We then conclude that even though the sample means appear to be different, it implies that this difference is not significant at $\alpha = 0.5$. The difference that we observed only occurred by chance. Every factor is significant because we had already selected sets through factor loadings. Therefore, the three factors are equally important in determining school effectiveness.

Had there been a significant difference in the sample means, the researcher would have pursued this further to find out by how much each mean differs from the other. The Turkey method would be more appropriate in this regard.

5.5 CONCLUSION

This chapter dealt with the analysis and interpretation of data. The discussion of the findings will be dealt with exclusively in chapter six.

The results of analysis of data for chapter five have shown the following: although all three factors were found to be closely associated with school effectiveness, the extent to which they were each associated was not the same. In a particular order, factors are listed as follows: factor two (adoption of a clear culture, vision and identity), factor one (access to technical and

human resources) and factor three (involvement in efficient strategic planning, structural arrangements and procedures). Their mean scores, in terms of composite score, are three hundred and seventy-four (374), three hundred and sixty-four (364) and three hundred and forty-six (346) respectively.

However, the difference in the sample means as tested by using the analysis of variance (ANOVA), which has clearly shown that this difference is not significant at = 0.05. It only occurred by chance.

Chapter six will discuss the findings of the study.

CHAPTER SIX

6.0 DISCUSSION OF FINDINGS

6.1 INTRODUCTION

The fact that different schools do not always achieve the same results in terms of examinations has not only been considered as abnormal in this study but also as a problematic situation. It is usually on the basis of achievement, more especially in Grade twelve examinations, that some schools are, sometimes unfairly, classified as either effective or ineffective. It is perhaps for this reason that Bastiani (1988:15) asserts that effective schools tend to be popular because they are generally regarded as good.

By implication, it may be assumed that schools that are regarded as effective are the ones that fulfil the prime objective of their existence. Conversely, it seems to be common knowledge that schools that produce poor results in Grade twelve examinations fail to adhere to the basic standards that characterise an effective school or perhaps an ideal school. One wonders if the idea of an effective school would exist at all if all the schools, ineffective ones included, met all the basic requirements of their existence. In line with this, Harber (1999:4) maintains that if many schools did not lack the characteristics of effective schools, then there would be little point in the high levels of expenditure on school effectiveness research.

The fundamentals that characterise school effectiveness have been discussed in detail in chapter two as elements or essential features of school organisation. In

previous studies (Lazarus, Davidoff & Daniels, 2000: 4) it was assumed that these elements rather constituted a group of entwined entities and that their presentation as separate entities was merely in the interest of analytic discussion. In the present study, however, these elements have been clustered into three main groups by means of factor analysis in order to find answers to the following statements which are largely based on the essential features of school organisation:

(1) The extent to which access to technical and human resources is associated with school effectiveness.

The term "technical resources" refers to the allocation of budgets that make it possible for the school to access funds for support services. By human resources, we refer to people who are deployed strategically in order to ensure that the goals of health promotion and inclusion are achieved in schools.

(2) The extent to which the adoption of a clear culture, vision and identity is associated with school effectiveness.

The aforementioned factors essentially involve the identification of key values that are the foundation upon which the school's policy is formulated. All the stakeholders should participate actively in the formulation of the school's vision and mission statement as well as norms for purposes of commitment and co-ownership by all concerned.

(3) The extent to which involvement in efficient strategic planning, structural arrangements and procedures is associated with school effectiveness.

The exercise in which the school's vision and mission is formulated is followed by the goal-setting, planning and evaluation process. There is also the implication of re-arranging the existing structures within the school in order to ensure that the goals of health promotion and inclusion become a reality.

(4) The extent to which respondents' dimensions are associated with school effectiveness in terms of:

- sex
- age
- teaching qualification
- teaching experience

In accordance with this hypothesis, we intend to analyse the responses in terms of sex, age, teaching qualification and teaching experience. The objective is to check whether any of these variables had any impact on the way that respondents have responded to the items with regard to school effectiveness

To this end, the findings of this study will be discussed in relation to each aim.

6.2 FINDINGS IN RELATION TO THE FIRST AIM

Aim number one is to determine *the extent to which access to technical and human resources is associated with school effectiveness.*

According to the findings of the present study, access to technical and human resources are rated in the second position with a ninety-nine percent confidence limit. In terms of the present study, these variables are considered as clusters, while previous theory has indicated that these variables are intertwined such it is impossible to discuss one element without referring to the other (Lazarus *et al.*, 2000:4).

The findings of the present study support the previous findings in the study of the perceptions of stakeholders on causes of poor performance in Grade Twelve (Legotlo, Maaga, Sebngo, Van der Westhuizen, Mosege, Niewwoundt & Steyn, 2002). In the study by Legotlo *et al.* (2002) stakeholders were asked to rank the items in terms of weaknesses that they would consider to be contributing to a high incidence of failure in Grade Twelve examinations. The findings of their study indicated that a lack of resources was rated as the major cause of failure in Grade Twelve examinations. At this point, we can perhaps point out that even though the present study supports the previous study's findings (Legotlo *et al.*, 2002); the difference is in the rating position. Whilst the present study's findings rated resources in the second position, the previous study's findings (Legotlo *et al.*, 2002) rated them in the first position.

These findings show clearly that the importance of access to resources (both technical and human) cannot be over-emphasized. Without resources the goals and objectives of the school cannot be accomplished (Herrington, 1994:310). The term "technical resources" is used to describe essential facilities such as textbooks, without which no meaningful teaching and learning can take place.

The findings of the present study refute those of the previous study in that classrooms and furniture are not rated above the provision of textbooks (Urwich & Junaidu, 1991:27). However, the present study's findings support previous findings on school effectiveness in South Africa, and more particularly the identification of infrastructure, facilities and resources as being among the crucial factors affecting the culture of learning and teaching in the targeted schools. It was subsequently also determined that the provision of these material resources further improved effectiveness. In this sense, the present study's findings unequivocally support the findings of the study by Urwich and Junaidu (1991:27) in establishing a link between the availability of facilities and pupils' achievements in schools.

On the other hand, human resources relate to people with expertise, abilities and skills that are necessary to utilize the facilities. This is well presented in the theory of the effect of teaching expertise on responsive teaching, in that a teacher who is professionally developed will be able to change the pupil to suit the curriculum and at the same time adapt the curriculum to the needs of the pupil (Skidmore, 1999:22). This is emphasized in the findings of the study by Urwich and Junaidu (1991:27) that teachers are the determinants in pupils' achievements and that should standards fall in schools, teachers are solely to blame.

Consistent with this, Husbands and Lang (2000:48) argue that schemes of setting targets for attainment require teachers to have a clearer understanding of the whole curriculum at the point of delivery and of the individual pupils receiving the curriculum. This is true of the fact that an inappropriately or under-qualified teacher is likely to have difficulty in interpreting technical aspects of the teaching profession such as syllabi, textbooks and even the expert use of apparatus to conduct an experiment in a science class.

The present study reveals that teachers feel strongly that there are items and conditions without which no proper teaching and learning can take place. Some of these items are learners' textbooks and learners' exercise books. The present study's findings support previous findings that pupils who have an adequate supply of books, perform significantly better than pupils without an adequate supply of books (Crossley & Murby, 1994; Mwamwenda & Mwamwenda, 1987). Teachers use textbooks for the purpose of teaching and even interpreting the syllabus. They usually simplify the content for the consumption by learners. Learners make use of textbooks to study the content that the teachers have taught them, while exercise books are used to take notes and to practise the content taught in the form of class-work, homework (where applicable) and even tests.

Teachers believe that desks are an important part of school furniture that should be available at every school as they are used not only for seating purposes but as tables used in writing and in the use of resources such as exercise books and textbooks. Teachers feel that a school without such basic facilities cannot function at all.

The list of basic facilities seems to be endless. In addition to the items that have already been mentioned, are water and teaching and learning aids. Learners as well as teachers, especially in boarding schools, need water for cleaning, washing and waste disposal. These findings are supported by Urwich and Junaids' findings (1991) that toilets and water are important for both health and curriculum in rural as well as urban schools.

Teachers believe that teaching and learning aids are important tools in simplifying and concretising the content so that learners can understand it better in theoretical and practical terms. A practical example of this is a lesson on the use of a calculator. If there is no calculator available to be used in illustration, the lesson cannot be taught.

Good working conditions are part of the essential requirements for successful education. Teachers feel that it is very difficult for them to perform to the best of their abilities if they are not happy at work. Issues relating to their salaries seem to top the list of things associated with teachers' happiness at work, closely followed by mutual respect among teachers and learners. Cowling (1990:129) emphasises that it is the objective of reward management, in the form of pay, to both motivate and retain a productive workforce.

Among teachers' concerns about things that impede their good performance at school are the availability of budgets to buy school needs, lack of photocopiers, incompetence on the part of teachers and lack of libraries. The unavailability of budgets has serious implications for teaching and learning, since teaching and learning aids cannot be purchased. Teachers expressed their frustration in working at schools where photocopiers are not available. Photocopiers are used from time to time to photocopy important materials that do not appear in the learners' textbooks, such as maps used in Geography.

Teachers feel that it is extremely important for a school to be staffed with competent teachers, as incompetent teachers are viewed as "warm-bodies" that only seem to serve the purpose of delaying or impeding the learners' progress in the classrooms. The present study's findings support previous findings by

Mwamwenda and Mwamwenda (1989) that in order to improve the quality of results, it is not enough for teachers to be professionally qualified without being competent (Mwamwenda & Mwamwenda, 1989). In line with this idea, Hargreaves (1997:27) argues that effective schools tend to have good teachers with high expectations. The presence of a library at school is considered as very important by teachers. Schools where such structures are non-existent, usually frustrate teachers since they cannot refer learners to further reading in books other than those prescribed. Library work supplements the information found in the textbooks so that learners can broaden their horizons as far as knowledge is concerned.

The present research reveals that teachers believe that the following are necessities for the successful operation of schools: duplicating machines, capacity building by the school management team, the presence of administrative staff and the availability of a usable chalkboard. There is a feeling among teachers that photocopiers can also be used in the place of a duplicating machine but not vice versa. If photocopiers cannot be supplied, teachers are prepared to settle for duplicating machines, but not without certain reservations. On the other hand, it does no harm if both of these facilities are available. These resources are used by teachers in order to produce or reproduce important documents such as test question papers.

There is a feeling among teachers that, although the chalkboard could be regarded as a traditional facility, it is still relevant, even in our modern classrooms. This supports Urwich and Junaidu's findings (1991) that school buildings, desks and learning materials are among the items of nineteenth century technology that are still regarded as indispensable. It is the chalkboard that tells that you are in a

classroom, even if learners are not there. A school without this basic resource could be likened to a car without a closed top. This analogy suggests that schools can, to a certain extent, operate without the availability of chalkboard, provided resources such as photocopiers and overhead projectors are available. In the same way, a car remains a car with or without a closed top.

Teachers furthermore feel that the school management team (SMT) needs to be appropriately trained to work in a democratic environment. The present study supports previous findings (Gounden & Dayaram, 1990) that the implementation of collegial theories of management in a democratic school brings about changes where there is much less of a 'them and us' relationship between the SMT and staff. Accordingly, the present study supports Vulliamy's (1987) findings that, according to teachers' perceptions, it is head teacher and his/her leadership style that are important for school improvement. Gounden and Dayaram (1990:313) argue that autocratic style of leadership should be discouraged as it creates disharmony and poor human relations in schools.

Teachers believe that the main part of their job is to teach in the classrooms. They are not happy with written work (educational management work) since they feel that it is not part of their profession but rather part of clerical work. Consistent with this argument, Gounden and Dayaram (1990:313) believe that poor educational management affects the school climate negatively because teachers are of the opinion that written work in the form of daily preparation, scheme of work, tests analyses, and so on was major constraints to their responsibility, which is to teach as effectively as possible.

A significant number of teachers (about ninety-five percent) appear to feel that in order for the school to operate more meaningfully, certain programmes should be put in place. These programmes include staff development for newly appointed teachers and general staff development. Teachers feel that staff development is very important as it purports to sharpen teachers' teaching skills, thereby enabling them to be more productive in their jobs. It is also the feeling of teachers that induction courses should be conducted for newly appointed members of the teaching staff. Such an exercise is not meant to undermine the excellent training that they received from the teacher training institutions, but to hopefully help them in becoming better oriented to the environment in which they are going to work. The main aim of orientation is seen as enhancement of the teaching skills of newly appointed teachers, since they would then be able to teach by making use of practical examples that are often related to the learners' daily lives.

The findings with regard to the first aim indeed hold implications for teaching and leaning in schools. As confirmed in the present study, access to technical and human resources are strongly associated with school effectiveness, meaning that should a school be deemed ineffective before any form of intervention is launched, it may be necessary to start by conducting a baseline study. The baseline study should be aimed at conducting an audit of all the resources that are usually considered fundamental to school effectiveness. This exercise should immediately shed light on possible causes of ineffectiveness in the school due to a lack of resources.

If the main resources, in terms of the resources audit, are available at a school that has been identified as ineffective, then perhaps the next step is to try to establish the extent to which each of the resources could be linked to the state of the school

effectiveness/ineffectiveness. This could be done through quantitative procedures after qualitative measures have been used in the form of a resources audit.

6.3 FINDINGS IN RELATION TO AIM NUMBER TWO

Aim number two is to determine *the extent to which adoption of a clear culture, vision and identity is associated with school effectiveness.*

According to the findings of the present study, the adoption of a clear culture, vision and identity is rated in the first position with a ninety-nine percent confidence limit. In terms of the present study, these variables are considered as a cluster. Previous theory has failed to cluster them in any manner; instead they were intertwined in such a way that it was impossible to talk about one element without referring to the other (Lazarus *et al.*, 2000:4).

The findings of the present study support the findings of Leithwood, Jantzi and Steinbach (1995), namely that culture is an aspect that is associated with organisational learning (Leithwood *et al.*, 1995). The present study's findings, however, refute the findings of Leithwood *et al.* (1995) namely that culture is a dominant factor in school effectiveness and that school's vision and mission are therefore determined by culture. This is contrary to the present study's findings, according to which it has been established that school vision and mission determine the cultural patterns of a school.

At this point, it is important to highlight that Leithwood *et al.* (1995) acknowledged that they themselves were surprised at their findings that culture determines school vision and mission, as such a result was contrary to their beliefs

and expectations. I agree that their findings seem to be contradictory, because logically, vision should be regarded as a dream which may map the way forward. On the basis of this, once the vision has been clearly formulated, all else should follow. Furthermore, the findings of the present study support previous findings on collaboration for educational change by Shaeffer (1992). Shaeffer's study (1992) revealed that it is through vision-building exercises and school mission that the school culture is created. The findings of the present study furthermore supports previous findings that culture is the essential feature of a school organisation (Moloi, Grobbler & Gravett, 2002). In line with our findings, Moloi *et al.* (2002) demonstrated in their study that culture is the element that reflects a shared vision at school. The underlying aspects, such as mutual commitment through collaboration with a view to achieving both individual and school goals, are indicative of a shared vision. Consistent with this view, the previous study revealed that a strong and visionary leadership is the key factor to success in restructuring or transforming schools.

The study revealed that teachers feel strongly that there are certain items in respect of aim number two that apparently underpin school effectiveness. These items are regular attendance, a focus on setting goals, punctuality at school and commitment to learning on the part of learners. The central point is that regular school attendance by everyone concerned, including teachers and learners, is a characteristic of every effective school. Teachers generally believe that it is important to set goals as targets that all the activities at a school can be aimed at.

The other important point relates to punctuality by all the members of the school community. Teachers feel that this item is just as important as those already highlighted in the preceding paragraphs. In an effective school, teachers and

learners are expected to display the tendency of arriving in time rather than on time. The ringing of the bell separating the teaching periods should ideally be interpreted as signalling the beginning of the teaching period rather than its end. This means that by the time the bell goes, the learners should already be waiting in front of the classroom where the next lesson is about to commence.

Teachers generally feel frustrated when learners fail to show commitment to their schoolwork. Such commitment is a culture that characterises an effective school. Any learner who is admitted to a school with a work ethic automatically acquires this culture, irrespective of whether or not he or she was committed to schoolwork prior to joining the school.

There are also other items that teachers feel are important ingredients of an effective school. These items include team work, a supportive culture, an effective working atmosphere, obedience to school policies and involvement in decision-making. Teachers firmly believe that team spirit takes precedence over other factors and as such every effort should be geared toward fostering and strengthening it in a school. The focus here is not on an individual teacher, although teachers should consider themselves as individuals among other individuals. If, for instance, a teacher is not adequately conversant with a certain topic or section of the syllabus that they teach, they may seek assistance from colleagues who are conversant with such topics. Such tendencies typify a culture of networking which is synonymous with school effectiveness.

The idea of team spirit should not be restricted to the practice of teaching only, but its scope should be broadened to encapsulate other aspects that relate to the social lives of the members of the school community. A good example of this practice is

the empathetic feeling of togetherness that teachers may experience when one member of the teaching staff encounters adverse experiences, such as bereavement or even the failure of a marriage. This is a wonderful gesture of team spirit which is likely to become a school culture. Bates (1981:38) explains that culture is not always concerned with facts, but also with meaning, that is, with interpretative and prescriptive rules which provide the basis for understanding and action. According to Hoy and Miskel's views (1982:15), culture has rituals that are either bureaucratic or therapeutic. The former relates to rigid principles while the latter is about mutual respect and understanding. The present study deals with the concept of school effectiveness, which is firmly rooted in democratic principles (Harber & Trafford, 1999:45) that are obviously not supported by bureaucratic aspects of a culture.

The present study reveals that teachers feel that they should be involved in decision-making. This supports previous findings by Harber and Trafford (1999:49) who revealed that teachers tended to be more cooperative and friendly in a democratised school environment. There is likelihood that in most cases teachers feel that they own decisions made in this fashion and therefore respect such decisions more than those that are thrust upon them by authorities.

Several other key features that characterise school effectiveness in terms of teachers' perceptions have been revealed in the present study. These include the school's target to obtain good examination results, a strong sense of belonging to the school, good role-modelling on the part of teachers, a shared educational ideal which provides the school with a guiding spirit and a sense of direction, sharing of beliefs about how the school should function, and the unique way in which effective schools are perceived to do things.

There seems to be a tendency to associate school effectiveness with a good pass rate at school. In line with this perception, Legotlo *et al.* (2002:113) argue that in South Africa, Grade Twelve examinations are used as a barometer to gauge the effectiveness of the school system. Since good examination results, especially in grade twelve, are associated with school effectiveness, it therefore becomes a matter of priority for the school to target good examination results. Any school that does not seem to meet this challenge is likely to be frowned upon and to be seen as a warehouse for learners.

A strong sense of belonging to the school was regarded by teachers as a necessity for school effectiveness. Most teachers regard the wearing of a school uniform as a symbol of identity. This enables learners to be totally convinced that they truly belong to the school both in thoughts and actions. Christie (1998:286) describes uniform as a ritual which serves the symbolic function of relating an individual to a social order, to heighten respect for that order, to revivify that order within the individual and, in particular, to deepen acceptance of procedures. It is probably on the basis of this conviction that learners would not like to let the name of the school down in terms of behaviour and even results. Further, the participation in the decision-making process through the democratic structures such as school governing bodies (SGB) and Representatives Council of learners (RCL) by teachers and learners is likely to foster this feeling of belonging to the school.

Teachers' perceptions show that good role-modelling on the part of teachers is an important determinant of school effectiveness. The reason for this is that it is highly likely that learners look up to teachers. There is therefore no doubt that teachers must be seen to practise what they preach. Role-modelling could be

illustrated in numerous instances where teachers are expected to set an example, such as in good time-management. The teachers' actions, however, should not be perceived as contradictory by learners. Good role-modelling could be contextualised in many other situations, including presentable and neat appearance on the part of teachers.

Findings in respect of aim number two have important implications for schooling. The adoption of a clear culture, vision and identity, as associated with school effectiveness, should be well understood within the context of the school before any kind of intervention is carried out. For example, the school's mission and vision should be reflected by the principal's office. These are among the most important features of school effectiveness and should not be overlooked. Culture manifests itself in a number of things such as time-management and a roster for morning devotions, to mention a few. Identity also manifests itself mainly in the act of wearing the school uniform. If all the learners are not wearing the school uniform, this should be interpreted as a problem in respect of school effectiveness.

6.4 FINDINGS IN RELATION TO AIM NUMBER THREE

Aim number three is to determine the *extent to which involvement in efficient strategic planning and structural arrangements and procedures are associated with school effectiveness.*

According to the findings of the present study, involvement in efficient strategic planning, structural arrangements and procedures is rated in the third position with a ninety-nine percent confidence limit. In terms of the present study, these variables are considered as a cluster. Previous theory has failed to cluster them in

any fashion due to the fact that these variables are intertwined in such a way that it is impossible to discuss one element without referring to the other (Lazarus *et al.,* 2000:4).

The findings of the present study support Bell's conclusion (1998:456) that strategic planning is an important tool in whole school development. According to his findings with regard to strategic planning, the implementation of holistic policies puts more emphasis on integration rather than on fragmentation. In holistic policies, everybody's views are valued and accommodated. Bell (1998:456) uses the effective analogy of right and left cerebral hemispheres of the brain to explain his holistic policy. He argues that if these two sides are not engaged in a co-ordinated thinking process, one side is likely to dominate at the expense of the other. This is also true in terms of the principle that the whole is greater than the sum of its parts. This means that a school that is run on the ideas of the principal, while other stakeholders' ideas are not accommodated, is likely to encounter problems. For all the stakeholders to participate, specific structures such as SMT, SGB and RCL should be put in place so as to allow the integration of ideas at school.

The present study's findings furthermore support the views of other studies in this regard, namely that the skill of persuasion on the part of an administrator is the most powerful tool of school effectiveness (Blumberg & Greenfield, 1986; Martin & Willower, 1981; Crowson, Porter-Gehrie & Hurwitz, 1984). This is furthermore supported by the findings of Avalos's study (1989), which the present study agrees with, namely that the ideal head teacher is seen as a friendly and approachable person. Avalos (1989:214), however, adds that they must be firm, strict, fair and efficient with regard to administration. The ability and capacity of the

administrator to persuade and therefore influence those that are junior to him/her, therefore causes them to work hard with a view to accomplishing the organisations' goals.

Teachers feel that networking, as a procedure associated with the school's effectiveness, should be encouraged in schools. The present study reveals that teachers are strongly in favour of the structures that normally exist in the form of both subject and departmental committees in schools. Teachers are of the opinion that it is the presence of these structures at school that enable them to share common problems, common successes and even common challenges. It is in this manner that the spirit of team work is reinforced for the common purpose in schools. There is a possibility that the presence of such structures can bring about trust, adaptability, unselfishness and co-operation among teachers. Hackett (1996:147) describes these items as the hallmarks of effective teamwork.

In respect of aim number three, teachers have rated certain items as major determinants of school effectiveness. These items include the planning of action steps to achieve goals, communication between teachers and fellow educators, that is, among themselves, communication between teachers and the principal, communication between teachers and the school management team (SMT), and school managers working both consultatively and collaboratively with teachers.

The planning of action steps to achieve goals was very popular with teachers because they strongly believe that this translates to strategic planning which addresses itself to the ways and means towards fulfilling the schools' mission and goals. The present study's findings support the assertion by Davidoff and Lazarus (1997:23) that action steps go beyond the act of setting goals.

Teachers also feel that the organogram of a school should not be interpreted as red tape. Teachers prefer structures that reflect the democratic ethos where effective communication among teachers is facilitated and favourable. If this is the case, one may to a certain extent eliminate any suspicion and thereby reinforce a collegial attitude among teachers and the school management team as members of the school community.

The present study has revealed that if the structures at school function in a manner that promotes the principles of democracy rather than bureaucracy, the feeling of being marginalised on the part of the teachers is likely to be minimal. Teachers feel that they should be involved in the decision-making process at school. In this way, those action steps that are already taken are more likely to be implemented with ease. Teachers also believe that those in senior positions should try to be transparent in matters that affect the day-to-day running of the school.

As strategic planning and structural arrangements and procedures are factors that affect the functioning of the school, the findings of the present study with regard to aim number three which is based on these factors should have implications for the schooling. Any form of intervention should also begin with steps towards checking if structures which facilitate school effectiveness, do exist. The next step is to try to establish the extent to which these structures are being functional rather than positional. There is likelihood that in spite of the existence of these structures the school can still remain ineffective. A possible reason for this is that the members of the school management team sometimes do not know what their jobs entail. If this is the case, the obvious starting point in the intervention is to hold workshops with members of the school management team on specific roles that each of them should play. This should include information on how to conduct

proper strategic planning; how to implement the action steps formulated; and how to ensure that everybody does what is expected of them.

6.5 FINDINGS IN RELATION TO AIM NUMBER FOUR

Aim number four is to determine *the extent to which gender, age, teaching qualification and teaching experience as respondents' dimensions are associated with school effectiveness.*

According to the findings of the present study, gender, age, teaching qualifications and teaching experience are not associated with educators' perceptions of school effectiveness. Although certain associations were found between teaching qualifications and the perception of school effectiveness, the relationship was weak. This association was expressed by a contingency correlation co-efficient of 0.21. Although this coefficient is very low, the present study's findings have shown that teaching qualification do influence perceptions of school effectiveness. The findings of the present study support the findings of Mwamwenda and Mwamwenda's study (1989) that professionally qualified teachers are influential in a school improvement. It is possible that this low correlation coefficient is due to the fact that the co-efficient of correlation are sometimes erratic (Sibaya, 1984:69). Chances are that, according to Sibaya (1984:69), an increase in the simple size can subsequently increase the correlation coefficient.

The findings of the present study support previous findings on the effect that the variable of gender has on the respondents' perceptions (Sibaya, 1984:70). Sibaya's study (1984) revealed that gender does not influence the respondents' perception of the handicapped. Even though this is a different issue, it shows that the

characteristics of gender and perceptions are associated. This means that the characteristics of school effectiveness are perceived in the same manner, regardless of whether a teacher is a male or a female.

The findings of the present study, however, refute the findings of Mwamwenda and Mwamwenda's study (1989) that there is a relationship between gender and pupils' achievement. Their study revealed that pupils taught by female teachers performed significantly better than pupils taught by male educators.

Concerning other variables such as age and teaching experience, the present study revealed that there is no relationship between these variables and school effectiveness. The present study's findings refute the findings of Mwamwenda and Mwamwenda's study (1989) which concluded that there is a relationship between teaching experience and pupils' academic achievements. Their study revealed that pupils taught by teachers with more teaching experience performed significantly better than pupils taught by less experienced teachers.

The findings of the present study have implications for the education system. In the event that an intervention is called for with the view to helping an ineffective school improve, one of these variables is worth noting. This is the variable of teaching qualifications. Since the findings of the present study have revealed that this variable does influence the perception of school effectiveness, it may be necessary for the intervention panel to do an audit of teaching qualifications. One of their recommendations should be to encourage those teachers who are either under-qualified or inappropriately qualified to improve their professional and academic qualifications.

With regard to other variables, it does not seem to be much of a problem whether the members of the teaching staff at a particular school are young or old, males or females, experience or inexperienced.

6.6 IMPLICATION OF FINDINGS

The present study focuses on school effectiveness. The findings are therefore of practical importance to the school environment as well as to classroom activities. The study reveals that there is a very strong association between the essential features of school organisation and school effectiveness. Three factors that constitute essential features of school organisation and effectiveness are access to technical and human resources as factor number one; adoption of a clear culture, vision and identity as factor two; and involvement in efficient strategic planning, structural arrangements and procedures as factor number three. However, the findings of the present study have enabled us to rearrange these three factors in a different rank order: factor two was assigned to the first position, factor one to the second position and, coincidentally, factor three to the third position. This rank order on its own has implication for school effectiveness.

Among the many elements that account for school effectiveness, culture, vision and identity play the most important roles. The fact that the adoption of a clear culture, vision and identity was rated in the first position means that for any school to be truly effective, these aspects must be considered first of all. This aspect can be thought of as a dream that has to be in a school management team's mind. There is no doubt that vision and mission have to be clearly formulated in any school as vision can be associated with a compass that shows the direction in which the school is figuratively going. It is this vision, again, that should map the

way forward, thus determining those practices, habits and routines that are acceptable within a specific milieu, in this case, a school.

Our findings have placed factor one (access to technical and human resources) in the second position. For purposes of clarity, resources could be likened to the tools or implements that are used to make or achieve something. For instance, classrooms, desks, chalkboards, textbooks, exercise books and so on, are resources that are meaningfully used when the vision is clearly formulated and shared by all concerned.

According to the findings of the present study, factor three (involvement in efficient strategic planning, structural arrangements and procedures) was rated in the third position. This indicates the idea of planning action steps in order to achieve goals that have been set as part of a vision. This planning should recognise the participation of the stakeholders in the day-to-day running of the school.

The decision-making should be a joint venture of all the members of the school community. It is in this way that a healthy working atmosphere could be created. However, it is important for the principal and his/her school management team to have a clear vision of the school's goals.

Regular meetings help to establish a vision that is gradually assimilated and eventually shared by all the stakeholders. This may appear to be a very simplistic approach, but it does play a significant role in school effectiveness.

The study has found that characteristics or dimensions of teachers, such as age, gender and teaching experience, do not have a bearing on school effectiveness.

This finding implies that these dimensions should not play a decisive role in the recruitment and appointment of teachers. The only dimension that was found to have an effect on school effectiveness is that of teaching qualification. This implies that whenever teachers are appointed the relevance of their qualifications should be considered.

6.7 CONCLUSION

It has become abundantly clear that it is always possible to transform a school, no matter how ineffective and hopeless it may seem to be, into an effective school. The present study has demonstrated that any school that is said to be effective should reflect the essential features that have been discussed in chapter two. The extent to which these factors are associated with school effectiveness has also been demonstrated. This chapter has also demonstrated that attention to such factors could serve as an educational panacea for all the problems that threaten to render our schools ineffective. This process can only be put into effect if teachers are willing to put the recommendations into practice.

According to the findings of the present study, adoption of a clear culture, vision and identity is rated in the first position. It has accordingly been shown that these factors are the ones that provide a sense of direction – of where the school is and where it ought to be. Next on the priority list are the resources that a particular school requires in order to fulfil its dreams in terms of what it would like to be, as the ideal determines the resources that are required to realise it. Lastly, the planning of the action steps need to be undertaken. This can only happen if there is a clearly defined dream together with the resources to make it come true.

CHAPTER SEVEN

7.0 SUMMARY, RECOMMENDATIONS AND LIMITATIONS

7.1 SUMMARY

7.1.1 The Problem

This study was designed to investigate teachers' perceptions of the essential features of whole school development/organisation. The main focus of the study was the extent to which teachers, according to their own opinion, associated these features with school effectiveness.

7.1.2 The aims of the study were

(a) To determine the extent to which access to technical and human resources is associated with school effectiveness.

By technical resources, we refer to the allocation of budgets that make it possible for the school to access funds for support services. By human resources, we refer to people who are deployed strategically in order to ensure that health-promoting and inclusive goals are achieved in a school.

(b) To determine the extent to which the adoption of a clear culture, vision and identity is associated with school effectiveness.

This covers the essence of school effectiveness, namely the identification of key values that form the foundation upon which the school's policy is formulated. All the stakeholders should participate actively in the formulation of the school's vision and mission statement as well as norms for purposes of commitment and co-ownership by all concerned.

(c) To determine the extent to which involvement in efficient strategic planning, structural arrangements and procedures is associated with school effectiveness.

After the exercise in which the school's vision and mission was formulated, goal-setting, planning and an evaluation process take place. This implies the re-arrangement of existing structures within the school in order to ensure that the goals of health promotion and inclusion become a reality.

(d) To determine the extent to which gender, age, teaching qualifications and teaching experience as respondents' dimensions are associated with school effectiveness.

The responses in terms of sex, age, teaching qualification and teaching experience are analysed in the light of this hypothesis. This is done in order to check whether any of the variables have an impact on the way in which respondents have responded to the items with regard to school effectiveness

7.1.3 The following hypotheses were formulated

(a) Access to technical and human resources is associated with school effectiveness.

(b) Adoption of a clear culture, vision and identity is associated with school effectiveness.

(c) Involvement in efficient strategic planning, structural arrangements and procedures is associated with school effectiveness.

(d) Gender, age, teaching qualifications and teaching experience as respondents' dimensions are associated with school effectiveness.

7.1.4 Methodology

The structure of the work comprised seven chapters. Chapter one was concerned with the motivation for an investigation in school effectiveness. Chapter two was comprised of theories and models of whole school development. Chapter three consisted of a review of previous work done in school effectiveness. Chapter four detailed the method of study used in this research. The measuring instrument took the form of a questionnaire which was constructed and standardised by the writer. Chapter five contained the presentation and the analysis of data. Chapter six provided a discussion of findings. Chapter seven provided a summary together with certain recommendations.

7.1.5 **Findings**

The present study revealed the following:

Access to technical and human resources is associated with school effectiveness.

This result is not surprising considering the fact that when we talk of technical resources we refer to the instruments or implements that facilitate teaching and learning. These tools include learners' textbooks and exercise books as well as syllabi, to name but a few. These tools cannot be replaced without bringing the process of teaching and learning to a halt. On the other hand, human resources comprise those people with the necessary expertise to interpret the syllabi and textbooks, thereby breaking the contents into chunks for the consumption by learners. These persons are the teachers who monitor the progress of learners' learning. The literature reviewed in chapter two revealed that technical and human resources are the basic requirements for the school to operate.

There is a very strong association between adoption of a clear culture, vision and identity on the one hand, and school effectiveness on the other.

Research has shown that when culture is compared to adoption of a clear vision and identity, vision is rated in the first position. It is this vision that makes it possible for the school to first establish its bearings before any movement takes place. In terms of the result, vision determines the identity, which in turn determines culture. Culture, vision and identity serve as the

factors that determine the purposes of leading in the form of providing the direction in a school organisation. No wonder that it was rated in the first position in terms of the results.

There is also a very strong association between involvement in efficient strategic planning, structural arrangements and procedures on one hand and school effectiveness on the other hand. This factor is the one that is concerned with the action in a school organisation. It reflects the integration of all structures that are at work in a school.

There is no relationship, apart from teaching qualifications, between the gender, age, and teaching experience of teachers and their perceptions of school effectiveness, and even the relationship between qualifications and teachers' perceptions of school effectiveness was very low.

7.2 RECOMMENDATIONS

On the basis of the findings of the present study the following recommendations are made:

(a) In all schools, vision and mission should be formulated and be thoroughly discussed by everybody to ensure that all the stakeholders have a common understanding and commitment.

(b) Basic facilities and infrastructure that characterise a school should be provided in all schools.

(c) Appointment of teachers should be based on the appropriateness and relevance of their qualifications in the subjects they are to teach.

(d) Learner support materials (LSM) should be allocated according to the projected figures of enrolment of the school.

7.3 SPECULATIVE INTERVENTION MODEL

This section serves as a culmination of an arduous exercise in which a recipe was sought for assisting poorly performing schools in improving their conditions. This recipe for helping such schools has been developed on the basis of the findings of the present study. The idea was to provide a down to earth practical solution to the problems faced by these schools, rather than lofty-sounding platitudes. Clearly, a marked improvement in a school's state of effectiveness is called for once this strategy has been implemented. Once this intervention has been carried out as proposed, there should ideally be a minimum of differential achievements in schools.

The literature review has revealed the existence of certain assumptions with regard to the different stages of school development. The findings of the present study support the literature review with regard to three factors are considered to be essential features of school organisation. The rank order of these factors implies that effective schools will typically reflect the implementation of all these factors, as expected. However, if a school is found to fall short of either one or two of these factors, it cannot automatically be considered as ineffective. The worst case scenario would be a school where all of the factors are not implemented as

required. There are therefore three main categories of schools classified on the basis of the extent of their effectiveness (Hopkins & Harris, 1997: 403). They are:

- **Type I school.** These are failing schools that must be assisted to progressively become moderately effective and thereafter effective. The assumption is that it is impossible to suddenly progress from a failing condition to an effective school without passing through the stage of being moderately effective. Failing schools need to involve a high level of external support. Schools like these are called stuck schools (Hopkins & Harris, 1997: 404). The findings of the present study in respect of the adoption of a clear culture, vision and identity relate very well to the proposal regarding the stuck schools. This clearly indicates that if schools do not have vision, they are bound to be stuck because they will never know where they are going.

- **Type II schools.** These are moderately effective schools that must be helped to become effective. These schools need a minimal level of external support but it is theoretically possible for these schools to improve themselves. According to the findings of the present study, these schools should reflect that the adoption of a clear culture, vision and identity is cherished by all the members of the school management team. The only problem that these schools should have is to work out a strategy of how culture, vision and identity could be simplified so that all the stakeholders eventually have a common understanding regarding this aspect (adoption of a clear culture, vision and identity). Once this aspect are shared by all stakeholders, it is easy to ensure that technical and human resources are made available at schools. With the provision of resources and a clearly

defined culture, vision and identity, the grounds for efficient strategic planning, structural arrangements and procedures are laid.

- **Type III schools.** These are effective schools which must be assisted to remain so. Although external support is welcomed in these schools it is not really necessary as they can easily create their own support networks. All they need is exposure to new ideas, practices and collaboration through pairing or consortia. With regard to the present study's findings, these schools clearly have all the essential features of school organisation. Culture, vision and identity are clearly defined and shared by all stakeholders of the school. These are well resourced schools in terms of facilities and appropriately qualified members of teaching and clerical staff. There is no doubt that proper planning is done through the involvement of all stakeholders with a view to making informed decisions.

Having presented the theory on the stages of school development, the present study now proposes a simple model for assisting poorly performing schools to eventually become effective. However, it is acknowledged that changing a poorly performing school to become effective is a drastic and very difficult exercise. The nature of this model suggests that the entire exercise should pass through the three stages of school development. These stages have been discussed in the preceding paragraphs.

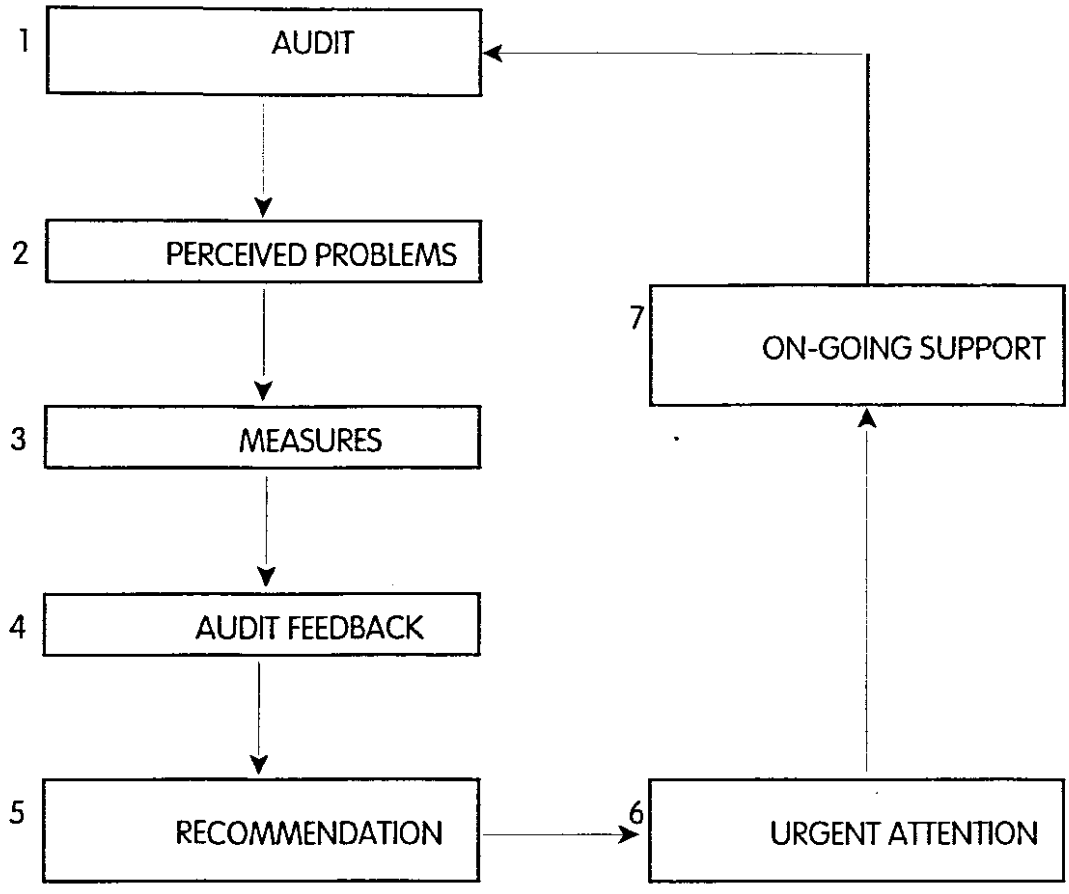

FIGURE 3: Model for intervention in schools

The numbering from 1 through 7 indicates the sequence in which the course of intervention should follow. As already mentioned earlier, this model is informed by the findings of the present study. We do realise that it may be difficult for one person to carry out this kind of intervention. We therefore recommend that intervention such as this one should be done by a team comprising of specialists in different subjects and management of schools. The course of intervention is discussed below.

According to the findings of the present study, all the three essential features of school organisation are strongly associated with school effectiveness. On the basis of this, our starting point of intervention in schools is an **audit**. This serves a purpose of a baseline study as it merely aims at checking the presence of the essential features of school organisation. Combrinck-Graham (1987: 507) refers to this stage of intervention as content and symptom stage simply because it is just about observation. This in fact accommodates the other two stages of intervention as propounded by Combrinck–Graham (1987: 507). These stages are the individual and family systems. The main objective here is that the team should compare all the proceedings at a school with the elements of whole school development. These essential features of school organisation are grouped into three factors. They are factor one: access to technical and human resources; factor two: adoption of a clear culture, vision and identity; and factor three: involvement in efficient strategic planning, structural arrangements and procedures. According to the present study's findings, these factors have been ranked in such a way that in the first position, is factor two, in the second position, is factor one and in the third position, is factor three. Therefore the presentation of these factors will reflect this rank order.

To determine the extent to which factor two, that is, adoption of a clear culture, vision and identity is implemented at school, the principal's office should be the starting point. It is here where the school's vision and mission statement should be accessible and be displayed on the wall. This may appear very simple; it does play a significant role in school effectiveness. Some important documents such as a document detailing a code of conduct and even corrective measures should also be accessible at school. There are various ways of showing that the school's vision and mission are cherished by all the members of the school community. Wearing

of school uniform by learners, punctuality by everybody, presentativeness by teachers which is part of good role-modelling by them, is some of the ways of showing the implementation of vision and mission at school.

As already mentioned earlier, factor one is rated in the second position. Factor one relates to access to technical and human resources. The extent to which this factor is being implemented can be verified by the availability of the important resources such as Learner Support Material (LSM) which includes things like textbooks, learners' exercise books, calculators, dictionaries, and so on. Observation should also be made with regard to the availability of chalkboard, classrooms and other important facilities.

Concerning human resources, since the present study's findings revealed that there is no influence the following teacher characteristics; age, gender, and teaching experience have on school effectiveness, then there is no need to record such information at the time of visit but should be readily available in schools. The only teacher characteristics that was found to have an influence on school effectiveness, is teaching qualification. It is for this reason that the audit of teaching qualification should be done. This audit should be considered within the subject being taught. For instance, a teacher with a Master's degree in Southern Sotho, but found teaching Mathematics without a Mathematics qualification should be treated as both unqualified and misplaced.

According to the findings of the present study, factor number three was rated in the third position. This factor relates to involvement in efficient strategic planning, structural arrangements and procedures. This can be measured in terms of the existence of democratically elected or appointed structures that usually reflect that

all the stakeholders are represented in the governance of the school. These structures are School Management Team (SMT), School Governing Body (SGB), Representative Council of the Learners (RCL) and so on. It is also important to check if there is a proper communication that reflects the democratic ethos among the structures rather than the top-down flow of information. This is undesirable as it is often associated with an authoritarian style of leadership. It is not uncommon to find that in some schools, these structures are there but they do not seem to be working as expected. However, the part relating to the functionality of these structures should be reserved for the section on audit feedback as well as recommendations.

With regard to stage number 2 of the intervention model, which is **the perceived problems**, we are envisaging a situation where all the stakeholders should be given a chance to list or mention those problems that they believe contributed to the state of ineffectiveness in which the school finds itself. This should take place at a meeting where the stakeholders should be represented in the form of structures such as SMT.

Even at this stage, the views of the panel are not expressed. Because there is no talking but merely listening on the part of the panel, we can liken this stage to the family system of the levels of intervention as proposed by Combrinck-Graham (1987: 507). Stage number 2 of the present study's intervention model is related to the present study itself. The main idea about this is that almost all the schools, unless it is a type I school, are capable of identifying their problems. This will be verified in terms of the panel's findings. Otherwise, it is hoped that even the type I school will be empowered on how to identify problems that hinder its progress.

Having listed all the problems that are thought to have led to poor performance, stakeholders should then be given a chance to highlight strategies that have been employed to correct the situation. Care should be taken that **measures** employed by stakeholders should correspond with the problems that they identified in the preceding paragraph. This again is aimed at empowering the school to be able to find solutions to their own problems rather than always waiting for external support. This stage seems to be the same as that which relates to the problems as perceived by stakeholders. We can therefore equate this stage to that of the family system as proposed by Combrinck-Graham (1987:507).

Audit feedback is a stage during which the members of the panel should take turns to report on their observation with regard to the essential features of school organisation. At this stage the members of the panel should simply state the condition(s) in terms of their observation without prescribing what ought to be. For example, if there is a shortage of text books, or if the vision and mission statements of the school are not formulated, they merely state that. In terms of Combrinck-Graham (1987:507), this belongs to the therapeutic system because the panel begins to express their views in terms of the observations that they have made.

According to the present study, stage number 5 of the intervention model, which is the **recommendations,** is considered as a combination of two levels of intervention as proposed by Combrinck-Graham (1987:507). These levels are inpatient (hospital) and diagnosing systems. As a matter of fact, recommendations should be handled by the intervention panel. This is based mainly on the information discussed from number 1 through 4 of the intervention model. It is at this stage where the panel starts to express their views and frustrations with regard

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to the goings-on at school. In some instances, it may happen that what was perceived a problem by the school might not be a problem that interferes with the functioning of the school in terms of the findings of the present study. To illustrate this, it may happen that the members of the school may think that the school might have not performed well because it is staffed with the majority of teachers who are either inexperienced or females. Such a problem can be refuted in terms of the findings of the present study.

According to the present study, schools where the essential features of school organisation are virtually non-existent, such schools are classified as type I schools. It is schools like these that need **urgent attention** because the conditions are horrendous and at worst, despicable. These schools need to be completely overhauled. This means that if it is necessary, the members of teaching staff, members of school governing body and other structures, should be sacked or transferred. Besides the human resources and a lot of other things may warrant urgent attention. Some of these things include lack of classrooms, lack of facilities, lack of furniture and so on.

Schools that have received intervention logically need an **on-going support.** This should be done in order to see if they (schools) are improving or not. In the event where no marked improvement is recorded or observable, the process should be repeated. In terms of the findings of the present study, a failure to improve by the school is unlikely if all the essential features of school organisation are given necessary attention. There is every reason to change the entire human resources of the schools if the conditions of the school do not improve even after intervention.

7.4 Limitations of the study

In spite of the fact that this study has achieved its objectives, several limitations exist with regard to sampling, instruments used and research design.

(a) The researcher has used quantitative approach in conducting the research on whole school development. Much of the work reviewed did not cover the quantitative aspect of research where statistical models are employed. There is therefore a strong criticism that some powerful quasi-government agencies have simply come up with a package of key characteristics which are usually dropped onto the global cash-and-carry market as educational panaceas, even though they have not been researched (Harber & Muthukrisha, 2000:422). Consistent with this criticism, Harber (1999:4) argues that many of the characteristics of an effective school identified in the literature seem to be rather obvious and unsurprising.

(b) The researcher has taken great care in constructing the questionnaire and in soliciting advice from experts in various fields. For purposes of validity and reliability, the questionnaire was subjected to factor analysis. The result of the factor analysis therefore proves that the scale has very high validity and reliability coefficient indices.

(c) It is highly likely that the samples chosen for the pilot study and the final study were biased. The reason for this is that all the respondents were teachers who volunteered to participate. No one was compelled to take part in the study. It has further been noted that the questionnaire was administered to everybody who happened to be a teacher. It did not cater for

those who were in supervisory positions at the time. In the light of this, there is a possibility that the participants' positions were not verified.

(d) Considering the fact that the questionnaire had to be administered to so many teachers, it was very strenuous for the researcher to mark each and every questionnaire and, at the same time, to painstakingly analyse and interpret each result accordingly. As such exercises tend to be tiring researchers are likely to be tempted, unless assisted by a supervisor, to make their sample as small as possible. This could result in what Fraenkel and Wallen (1991:183) call a Type 1 error. Type 1 errors (Fraenkel & Wallen, 1991:183) occur when researchers reject a null hypothesis that is true.

7.5 AVENUES FOR FUTURE RESEARCH

This study, which investigated teachers' perceptions of the essential features of whole school development, has opened the following avenues for future research:

(a) There is a need for a study on the perceptions of other stakeholders, such as parents and learners.

(b) There is a need to investigate the practical implementation of the essential features of whole school development. This may be necessitated by the phenomenon that, whereas in some instances these features appear to be understood and well cherished by all the stakeholders, they are, for some strange reason, not always implemented. Problems with implementation seem to arise out of the attitude that is generally expressed as follows:

"It is a good idea but please leave me out." This is possible considering the fact that in some schools especially, when they are to be visited by the intervention panel, the personnel are prompted to put their house in order, in general, by updating everything that may be required at the time of visit by the panel. Where this happens, the panel is likely to be confused since the school appears to be effective in terms of the requirements but continues to be ineffective after the visit. This inefficiency has its own index, namely matric examination results.

(c) There is a need for a comparative study where an effective school and an ineffective school will be juxtaposed with a view to making comparisons. This can possibly indicate where the differences and similarities lie in terms of the essential features of whole school development. The present study has made a significant contribution in this regard by producing a standardised instrument for making comparisons between institutions.

(d) Another form of comparative study is needed to compare effective schools among themselves. These schools may be situated in different environments, that is, in rural areas, in urban areas, or in South Africa and other countries.

(e) The present study did not investigate whether effective schools automatically achieve good results especially in Grade twelve examinations. This suggests avenues for further investigation.

(f) Most of the work in this field to a great extent concentrates on the qualitative procedures, to the total disregard of the quantitative approach.

More studies on the quantitative approach based on statistical models are needed.

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ANNEXURE A

NUMERICAL WEIGHT/VALUE
FOR
ITEM NUMBERS 1.1 TO 1.22

TABLE A 1 :

NUMERICAL WEIGHT/VALUE FOR ITEM NUMBER 1.1

Raring Category	Number of individuals selecting the response	Percentage of the total responses	Weight	Weight multiplied by percentage
A lot	180	45	05	225
Some	195	48	02	96
A little	08	02	01	02
None	08	02	00	00
Don't know	13	03	00	00
Total	**404**	**100**		**323**

TABLE A 2 :

NUMERICAL WEIGHT/VALUE FOR ITEM NUMBER 1.2

Raring Category	Number of individuals selecting the response	Percentage of the total responses	Weight	Weight multiplied by percentage
A lot	224	55	05	275
Some	157	39	02	78
A little	15	04	01	04
None	05	01	00	00
Don't know	03	01	00	00
Total	**404**	**100**		**357**

TABLE A 3 :

NUMERICAL WEIGHT/VALUE FOR ITEM NUMBER 1.3

Raring Category	Number of individuals selecting the response	Percentage of the total responses	Weight	Weight multiplied by percentage
A lot	314	78	5	390
Some	30	7.4	2	14.8
A little	30	7.4	1	7.4
None	12	3	0	0
Don't know	18	4.4	0	0
Total	**404**	**100**		**412.2**

TABLE A 4 :

NUMERICAL WEIGHT/VALUE FOR ITEM NUMBER 1.4

Raring Category	Number of individuals selecting the response	Percentage of the total responses	Weight	Weight multiplied by percentage
A lot	337	83	05	415
Some	30	08	02	16
A little	08	02	01	02
None	08	02	00	00
Don't know	21	05	00	00
Total	**404**	**100**		**433**

TABLE A 5 :

NUMERICAL WEIGHT/VALUE FOR ITEM NUMBER 1.5

Raring Category	Number of individuals selecting the response	Percentage of the total responses	Weight	Weight multiplied by percentage
A lot	329	81	05	405
Some	37	09	02	18
A little	08	02	01	02
None	14	04	00	00
Don't know	16	04	00	00
Total	**404**	**100**		**425**

TABLE A 6 :

NUMERICAL WEIGHT/VALUE FOR ITEM NUMBER 1.6

Raring Category	Number of individuals selecting the response	Percentage of the total responses	Weight	Weight multiplied by percentage
A lot	254	63	05	315
Some	45	11	02	22
A little	08	02	01	02
None	52	13	00	00
Don't know	45	11	00	00
Total	**404**	**100**		**339**

TABLE A 7 :

NUMERICAL WEIGHT/VALUE FOR ITEM NUMBER 1.7

Raring Category	Number of individuals selecting the response	Percentage of the total responses	Weight	Weight multiplied by percentage
A lot	306	76	05	380
Some	37	09	02	18
A little	37	09	01	09
None	09	02	00	00
Don't know	15	04	00	00
Total	**404**	**100**		**407**

TABLE A 8 :

NUMERICAL WEIGHT/VALUE FOR ITEM NUMBER 1.8

Raring Category	Number of individuals selecting the response	Percentage of the total responses	Weight	Weight multiplied by percentage
A lot	284	70	05	350
Some	15	04	02	08
A little	30	08	01	08
None	47	12	00	00
Don't know	28	06	00	00
Total	**404**	**100**		**366**

TABLE A9 :

NUMERICAL WEIGHT/VALUE FOR ITEM NUMBER 1.9

Raring Category	Number individuals selecting the response	Percentage of the total responses	Weight	Weight Multiplied by Percentage
A lot	262	65	05	325
Some	60	15	02	30
A little	22	05	01	05
None	27	07	00	00
Don't know	33	08	00	00
Total	**404**	**100**		**360**

TABLE A 10:

NUMERICAL WEIGHT/VALUE FOR ITEM NUMBER 1.10

Raring Category	Number of individuals selecting the response	Percentage of the total responses	Weight	Weight multiplied by percentage
A lot	232	57	05	285
Some	52	13	02	26
A little	37	09	01	09
None	56	14	00	00
Don't know	27	07	00	00
Total	**404**	**100**		**320**

TABLE A 11:

NUMERICAL WEIGHT/VALUE FOR ITEM NUMBER 1.11

Raring Category	Number of individuals selecting the response	Percentage of the total responses	Weight	Weight multiplied by percentage
A lot	277	69	05	345
Some	52	13	02	26
A little	22	05	01	05
None	29	07	00	00
Don't know	24	06	00	00
Total	**404**	**100**		**376**

TABLE A 12 :

NUMERICAL WEIGHT/VALUE FOR ITEM NUMBER 1.12

Raring Category	Number of individuals selecting the response	Percentage of the total responses	Weight	Weight multiplied by percentage
A lot	195	48	05	240
Some	97	24	02	48
A little	49	12	01	12
None	26	06	00	00
Don't know	37	10	00	00
Total	**404**	**100**		**300**

TABLE A 13 :

NUMERICAL WEIGHT/VALUE FOR ITEM NUMBER 1.13

Raring Category	Number of individuals selecting the response	Percentage of the total responses	Weight	Weight multiplied by percentage
A lot	307	76	05	380
Some	45	11	02	22
A little	08	02	01	02
None	30	07	00	00
Don't know	14	04	00	00
Total	**404**	**100**		**404**

TABLE A 14:

NUMERICAL WEIGHT/VALUE FOR ITEM NUMBER 1.14

Raring Category	Number of individuals selecting the response	Percentage of the total responses	Weight	Weight multiplied by percentage
A lot	292	72	05	360
Some	52	13	02	26
A little	08	02	01	02
None	44	11	00	00
Don't know	08	02	00	00
Total	**404**	**100**		**388**

TABLE A 15:

NUMERICAL WEIGHT/VALUE FOR ITEM NUMBER 1.15

Raring Category	Number of individuals selecting the response	Percentage of the total responses	Weight	Weight multiplied by percentage
A lot	239	59	05	295
Some	82	20	02	40
A little	15	04	01	04
None	31	08	00	00
Don't know	37	09	00	00
Total	**404**	**100**		**339**

TABLE A 16:

NUMERICAL WEIGHT/VALUE FOR ITEM NUMBER 1.16

Raring Category	Number of individuals selecting the response	Percentage of the total responses	Weight	Weight multiplied by percentage
A lot	232	57	05	285
Some	90	22	02	44
A little	22	05	01	05
None	21	05	00	00
Don't know	39	09	00	00
Total	**404**	**100**		**334**

TABLE A 17:

NUMERICAL WEIGHT/VALUE FOR ITEM NUMBER 1.17

Raring Category	Number of individuals selecting the response	Percentage of the total responses	Weight	Weight multiplied by percentage
A lot	239	59	05	295
Some	75	19	02	38
A little	45	11	01	11
None	13	03	00	00
Don't know	32	08	00	00
Total	**404**	**100**		**344**

TABLE A 18:

NUMERICAL WEIGHT/VALUE FOR ITEM NUMBER 1.18

Raring Category	Number of individuals selecting the response	Percentage of the total responses	Weight	Weight multiplied by percentage
A lot	254	63	05	315
Some	67	17	02	34
A little	30	07	01	07
None	26	06	00	00
Don't know	27	07	00	00
Total	**404**	**100**		**356**

TABLE A 19:

NUMERICAL WEIGHT/VALUE FOR ITEM NUMBER 1. 19

Raring Category	Number of individuals selecting the response	Percentage of the total responses	Weight	Weight multiplied by percentage
A lot	269	67	05	335
Some	49	12	02	24
A little	49	12	01	12
None	22	05	00	00
Don't know	15	04	00	00
Total	**404**	**100**		**371**

TABLE A 20 :

NUMERICAL WEIGHT/VALUE FOR ITEM NUMBER 1.20

Raring Category	Number of individuals selecting the response	Percentage of the total responses	Weight	Weight multiplied by percentage
A lot	292	72	05	360
Some	60	15	02	30
A little	15	04	01	04
None	14	03	00	00
Don't know	23	06	00	00
Total	**404**	**100**		**394**

TABLE A 21:

NUMERICAL WEIGHT/VALUE FOR ITEM NUMBER 1.21

Raring Category	Number of individuals selecting the response	Percentage of the total responses	Weight	Weight multiplied by percentage
A lot	254	63	05	315
Some	52	13	02	26
A little	37	09	01	09
None	28	07	00	00
Don't know	33	08	00	00
Total	**404**	**100**		**350**

TABLE A 22:

NUMERICAL WEIGHT/VALUE FOR ITEM NUMBER 1.22

Raring Category	Number of individuals selecting the response	Percentage of the total responses	Weight	Weight multiplied by percentage
A lot	202	50	05	250
Some	97	24	02	48
A little	30	07	01	07
None	31	08	00	00
Don't know	44	11	00	00
Total	**404**	**100**		**305**

ANNEXURE B

NUMERICAL WEIGHT/VALUE
FOR
ITEM NUMBERS 2.1 TO 2.15

TABLE B 1 :

NUMERICAL WEIGHT/VALUE FOR THE ITEM NUMBER 2.1

Raring Category	Number of individuals selecting the response	Percentage of the total responses	Weight	Weight multiplied by percentage
A lot	314	78	05	390
Some	30	07	02	14
A little	15	04	01	04
None	31	08	00	00
Don't know	14	03	00	00
Total	**404**	**100**		**408**

TABLE B 2 :

NUMERICAL WEIGHT/VALUE FOR THE ITEM NUMBER 2.2

Raring Category	Number of individuals selecting the response	Percentage of the total responses	Weight	Weight multiplied by percentage
A lot	254	63	05	315
Some	60	15	02	30
A little	22	06	01	05
None	46	11	00	00
Don't know	22	05	00	00
Total	**404**	**100**		**350**

TABLE B 3 :

NUMERICAL WEIGHT/VALUE FOR THE ITEM NUMBER 2.3

Raring Category	Number of individuals selecting the response	Percentage of the total responses	Weight	Weight multiplied by percentage
A lot	299	74	05	370
Some	37	09	02	18
A little	22	06	01	05
None	30	07	00	00
Don't know	16	04	00	00
Total	**404**	**100**		**393**

TABLE B 4 :

NUMERICAL WEIGHT/VALUE FOR THE ITEM NUMBER 2.4

Raring Category	Number of individuals selecting the response	Percentage of the total responses	Weight	Weight multiplied by percentage
A lot	284	70	05	350
Some	30	07	02	14
A little	22	06	01	06
None	47	12	00	00
Don't know	21	05	00	00
Total	**404**	**100**		**370**

TABLE B 5 :

NUMERICAL WEIGHT/VALUE FOR THE ITEM NUMBER 2.5

Raring Category	Number of individuals selecting the response	Percentage of the total responses	Weight	Weight multiplied by percentage
A lot	307	76	05	380
Some	15	04	02	08
A little	22	06	01	06
None	24	05	00	00
Don't know	36	09	00	00
Total	**404**	**100**		**394**

TABLE B 6 :

NUMERICAL WEIGHT/VALUE FOR THE ITEM NUMBER 2.6

Raring Category	Number of individuals selecting the response	Percentage of the total responses	Weight	Weight multiplied by percentage
A lot	329	81	05	405
Some	15	04	02	08
A little	08	02	01	02
None	34	08	00	00
Don't know	18	05	00	00
Total	**404**	**100**		**415**

TABLE B 7 :

NUMERICAL WEIGHT/VALUE FOR THE ITEM NUMBER 2.7

Raring Category	Number of individuals selecting the response	Percentage of the total responses	Weight	Weight multiplied by percentage
A lot	195	48	05	240
Some	120	30	02	60
A little	22	06	01	06
None	25	06	00	00
Don't know	42	10	00	00
Total	**404**	**100**		**306**

TABLE B 8 :

NUMERICAL WEIGHT/VALUE FOR THE ITEM NUMBER 2.8

Raring Category	Number of individuals selecting the response	Percentage of the total responses	Weight	Weight multiplied by percentage
A lot	224	56	05	280
Some	90	22	02	44
A little	45	11	01	11
None	21	05	00	00
Don't know	24	06	00	00
Total	**404**	**100**		**335**

TABLE B 9 :

NUMERICAL WEIGHT/VALUE FOR THE ITEM NUMBER 2.9

Raring Category	Number of individuals selecting the response	Percentage of the total responses	Weight	Weight multiplied by percentage
A lot	269	67	05	335
Some	67	17	02	34
A little	20	05	01	05
None	29	07	00	00
Don't know	19	04	00	00
Total	**404**	**100**		**374**

TABLE B 10:

NUMERICAL WEIGHT/VALUE FOR THE ITEM NUMBER 2.10

Raring Category	Number of individuals selecting the response	Percentage of the total responses	Weight	Weight multiplied by percentage
A lot	247	61	05	305
Some	67	17	02	34
A little	22	05	01	05
None	15	04	00	00
Don't know	53	13	00	00
Total	**404**	**100**		**344**

TABLE B 11:

NUMERICAL WEIGHT/VALUE FOR THE ITEM NUMBER 2.11

Raring Category	Number of individuals selecting the response	Percentage of the total responses	Weight	Weight multiplied by percentage
A lot	299	74	05	370
Some	45	11	02	22
A little	00	00	. 01	00
None	26	07	00	00
Don't know	34	08	00	00
Total	**404**	**100**		**392**

TABLE B 12:

NUMERICAL WEIGHT/VALUE FOR THE ITEM NUMBER 2.12

Raring Category	Number of individuals selecting the response	Percentage of the total responses	Weight	Weight multiplied by percentage
A lot	292	72	05	360
Some	37	09	02	18
A little	15	04	01	04
None	17	04	00	00
Don't know	43	11	00	00
Total	**404**	**100**		**382**

TABLE B 13:

NUMERICAL WEIGHT/VALUE FOR THE ITEM NUMBER 2.13

Raring Category	Number of individuals selecting the response	Percentage of the total responses	Weight	Weight multiplied by percentage
A lot	292	72	05	360
Some	52	13	02	26
A little	15	04	01	04
None	09	02	00	00
Don't know	36	09	00	00
Total	**404**	**100**		**390**

TABLE B 14:

NUMERICAL WEIGHT/VALUE FOR THE ITEM NUMBER 2.14

Raring Category	Number of individuals selecting the response	Percentage of the total responses	Weight	Weight multiplied by percentage
A lot	292	72	05	360
Some	45	11	02	22
A little	15	04	01	04
None	33	08	00	00
Don't know	19	05	00	00
Total	**404**	**100**		**386**

TABLE B 15 :

NUMERICAL WEIGHT/VALUE FOR THE ITEM NUMBER 2.15

Raring Category	Number of individuals selecting the response	Percentage of the total responses	Weight	Weight multiplied by percentage
A lot	277	69	05	345
Some	52	13	02	26
A little	23	05	01	05
None	24	06	00	00
Don't know	28	07	00	00
Total	**404**	**100**		**376**

ANNEXURE C

NUMERICAL WEIGHT/VALUE
FOR
ITEM NUMBERS 3.1 TO 3.10

TABLE C 1 :

NUMERICAL WEIGHT/VALUE FOR THE ITEM NUMBER 3. 1

Raring Category	Number of individuals selecting the response	Percentage of the total responses	Weight	Weight multiplied by percentage
A lot	284	70	05	350
Some	45	11	02	22
A little	08	02	01	02
None	51	13	00	00
Don't know	16	04	00	00
Total	**404**	**100**		**374**

TABLE C 2 :

NUMERICAL WEIGHT/VALUE FOR THE ITEM NUMBER 3. 2

Raring Category	Number of individuals selecting the response	Percentage of the total responses	Weight	Weight multiplied by percentage
A lot	247	61	05	305
Some	67	17	02	34
A little	08	02	01	02
None	47	12	00	00
Don't know	35	08	00	00
Total	**404**	**100**		**341**

TABLE C 3 :

NUMERICAL WEIGHT/VALUE FOR THE ITEM NUMBER 3. 3

Raring Category	Number of individuals selecting the response	Percentage of the total responses	Weight	Weight multiplied by percentage
A lot	224	55	05	275
Some	67	17	02	34
A little	45	11	01	11
None	26	07	00	00
Don't know	42	10	00	00
Total	**404**	**100**		**320**

TABLE C 4 :

NUMERICAL WEIGHT/VALUE FOR THE ITEM NUMBER 3. 4

Raring Category	Number of individuals selecting the response	Percentage of the total responses	Weight	Weight multiplied by percentage
A lot	269	67	05	335
Some	52	13	02	26
A little	15	03	01	03
None	37	09	00	00
Don't know	31	08	00	00
Total	**404**	**100**	.	**364**

TABLE C 5:

NUMERICAL WEIGHT/VALUE FOR THE ITEM NUMBER 3. 5

Raring Category	Number of individuals selecting the response	Percentage of the total responses	Weight	Weight multiplied by percentage
A lot	269	67	05	335
Some	52	13	02	26
A little	22	05	01	05
None	17	04	00	00
Don't know	44	11	00	00
Total	**404**	**100**		**366**

TABLE C 6 :

NUMERICAL WEIGHT/VALUE FOR THE ITEM NUMBER 3. 6

Raring Category	Number of individuals selecting the response	Percentage of the total responses	Weight	Weight multiplied by percentage
A lot	269	67	05	335
Some	37	09	02	18
A little	22	05	01	05
None	51	13	00	00
Don't know	25	06	00	00
Total	**404**	**100**		**358**

TABLE C 7 :

NUMERICAL WEIGHT/VALUE FOR THE ITEM NUMBER 3. 7

Raring Category	Number of individuals selecting the response	Percentage of the total responses	Weight	Weight multiplied by percentage
A lot	239	59	05	295
Some	79	20	02	40
A little	08	02	01	02
None	46	11	00	00
Don't know	32	08	00	00
Total	**404**	**100**		**337**

TABLE C 8 :

NUMERICAL WEIGHT/VALUE FOR THE ITEM NUMBER 3. 8

Raring Category	Number of individuals selecting the response	Percentage of the total responses	Weight	Weight multiplied by percentage
A lot	224	55	05	275
Some	67	17	02	34
A little	45	11	01	11
None	23	06	00	00
Don't know	45	11	00	00
Total	**404**	**100**		**320**

TABLE C 9 :

NUMERICAL WEIGHT/VALUE FOR THE ITEM NUMBER 3. 9

Raring Category	Number of individuals selecting the response	Percentage of the total responses	Weight	Weight multiplied by percentage
A lot	239	59	05	295
Some	75	19	02	38
A little	37	09	01	09
None	24	06	00	00
Don't know	29	07	00	00
Total	**404**	**100**		**342**

TABLE C 10:

NUMERICAL WEIGHT/VALUE FOR THE ITEM NUMBER 3. 10

Raring Category	Number of individuals selecting the response	Percentage of the total responses	Weight	Weight multiplied by percentage
A lot	247	61	05	305
Some	52	13	02	26
A little	45	11	01	11
None	23	06	00	00
Don't know	37	09	00	00
Total	**404**	**100**		**342**

APPENDIX A

THE SCALE USED IN THE PILOT STUDY

THIS IS A QUESTIONNAIRE ON EDUCATORS' OPINIONS ON THE CONCEPT OF SCHOOL EFFECTIVENESS

You are requested to give your own opinion. DO NOT WRITE YOUR NAME. For each question, please simply put a tick (✓) in the appropriate space or box below next to the response of your choice. There are no right or wrong answers.

SECTION A

1. PERSONAL DETAILS

1.1 Sex

Male	
Female	

1.2 Age

Under 20 years	
21 - 30 years	
31 - 40 years	
41 years and above	

1.3 Teaching qualification

Primary Teachers Diploma	
Secondary Teachers Diploma	
University Education Diploma	
Other (Specify)	

1.4 Number of years teaching

0 - 3 years	
4 - 6 years	
7 - 9 years	
10 years and above	

SECTION B

1. To what extent do you consider the following contributing to school effectiveness?

		A lot	To Some Extent	A Little	None	Do not Know
1.1	Focusing on setting goals					
1.2	Planning action steps to achieve goals					
1.3	Implementing action steps					
1.4	Evaluating the implementation process in terms of the results					
1.5	Focusing on good role-modeling on the part of educators					
1.6	Showing commitment to teaching on the part of educators					
1.7	Showing commitment to learning on the part of the learners					
1.8	Things promoting teaching and learning					
1.9	Punctuality at school					
1.10	Regular attendance at school					

2. To what extent do you think you are part and parcel of the following ideas about your school?

		A lot	To Some Extent	A Little	None	Do not Know
2.1	The way we do things in this school					
2.2	Sharing of beliefs about how school should function					
2.3	A strong sense of belonging to your school					
2.4	A shared educational idea which provides the school with a guiding spirit and a sense of direction					
2.5	Team work and supportive culture					
2.6	Involvement in decision-making					
2.7	Effective working atmosphere					
2.8	Obedience to school policies					
2.9	The school purports to get good examination results					

3. To what extent do you think the following can contribute to school effectiveness?

		A lot	To Some Extent	A Little	None	Do not Know
3.1	A sense of shared ownership of decisions on the part of all concerned					
3.2	Communication between yourself and the principal					
3.3	Communication between yourself and fellow educators					
3.4	Communication between yourself and School Management Team (SMT)					
3.5	Communication between yourself and parents					
3.6	Communication between yourself and School Governing Body (SGB)					
3.7	School Managers working collaboratively with educators					
3.8	School Managers working consultatively with educators					

4. To what extent do you think the availability of the following technical resources can contribute to school effectiveness?

		A lot	To Some Extent	A Little	None	Do not Know
4.1	A usable chalkboard					
4.2	Chalk					
4.3	Desks for all learners					
4.4	Learner exercise books to write in					
4.5	Learner textbooks					
4.6	Electricity					
4.7	Water					
4.8	Library					
4.9	Duplicating machine					
4.10	Type-writer					
4.11	Photocopier					
4.12	Telephone					
4.13	Teaching and learning support/aids					
4.14	Availability of budgets to buy school needs					

5. To what extent to your consider the following as contributing to school effectiveness?

		A lot	To Some Extent	A Little	None	Do not Know
5.1	A programme for staff development					
5.2	Supervision as part of staff development					
5.3	Staff development for newly appointed educators					
5.4	Capacity building of School Management Team (SMT)					
5.5	Competency on the part of educators					
5.6	Good working conditions for educators					
5.7	Presence of administrative staff/clerks					
5.8	Staff responsible for acquiring, storing and making available of the resources such as donations.					

APPENDIX B

THE FINAL SCALE

THIS IS A QUESTIONNAIRE ON EDUCATORS' OPINIONS ON THE CONCEPT OF SCHOOL EFFECTIVENESS

You are requested to give your own opinion. DO NOT WRITE YOUR NAME. For each question, please simply put a tick (✓) in the appropriate space or box below next to the response of your choice. There are no right or wrong answers.

SECTION A

2. PERSONAL DETAILS

1.1 Sex

Male	
Female	

1.2 Age

Under 20 years	
21 - 30 years	
31 - 40 years	
41 years and above	

1.3 Teaching qualification

Primary Teachers Diploma	
Secondary Teachers Diploma	
University Education Diploma	
Other (Specify)	

1.4 Number of years teaching

0 - 3 years	
4 - 6 years	
7 - 9 years	
10 years and above	

SECTION B

5. To what extent do you think the following technical and human resources can contribute to school effectiveness?

		A lot	To Some Extent	A Little	No ne	Do not Know
1.1	A usable chalkboard					
1.2	Chalk					
1.3	Desks for all learners					
1.4	Learner exercise books to write in					
1.5	Learner textbooks					
1.6	Electricity					
1.7	Water					
1.8	Library					
1.9	Duplicating machine					
1.10	Type-writer					
1.11	Photocopier					
1.12	Telephone					
1.13	Teaching and learning support/aids					
1.14	Availability of budgets to buy school needs					
1.15	A programme for staff development					
1.16	Supervision as part of staff development					
1.17	Staff development for newly appointed educators					
1.18	Capacity building of School Management Team (SMT)					
1.19	Competency on the part of educators					
1.20	Good working conditions for educators					
1.21	Presence of administrative staff/clerks					
1.22	Staff responsible for acquiring, storing and making available of the resources such as donations					

6. To what extent do you consider the following contribute to school effectiveness?

		A lot	To Some Extent	A Little	None	Do not Know
2.1	Focusing on setting goals					
2.2	Focusing on good role-modeling on the part of educators					
2.3	Showing commitment to learning on the part of learners					
2.4	Things promoting teaching and learning					
2.5	Punctuality at school					
2.6	Regular attendance at school					
2.7	The way we do things in this school					
2.8	Sharing of beliefs about how school should function					
2.9	A strong sense of belonging to your school					
2.10	A shared educational idea which provides the school with a guiding spirit and a sense of direction					
2.11	Team work and supportive culture					
2.12	Involvement in decision-making					
2.13	Effective working atmosphere					
2.14	Obedience to school policies					
2.15	The school purports to get good examination results					

7. To what extent can the following contribute to school effectiveness?

		A lot	To Some Extent	A Little	None	Do not Know
3.1	Planning action steps to achieve goals					
3.2	Implementing action steps					
3.3	A sense of shared ownership of decisions on the part of all concerned					
3.4	Communication between yourself and the principal					
3.5	Communication between yourself and fellow educators					
3.6	Communication between yourself and School Management Team (SMT)					
3.7	Communication between yourself and parents					
3.8	Communication between yourself and School Governing Body (SGB)					
3.9	School Managers working collaboratively with educators					
3.10	School Managers working consultatively with educators					