

**THE ROLE OF HIGH SCHOOL EDUCATORS  
IN CREATING CLASSROOM CULTURE IN  
THE PONGOLA CIRCUIT**

BY

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## DECLARATION

I declare that *The role of High School educators in creating classroom culture in the Pongola Circuit* is my own work, and all sources have been acknowledged by means of complete references.



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DATE SUBMITTED:.....

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No one ever conducted a study alone. This is indeed true in my case.

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## **PREFACE**

The objective of this research was to determine the role of educators in the creation, development, and maintenance of classroom culture in secondary schools .The study was conducted in the Pongola Circuit of the Vryheid District of the Zululand Region of the Department of Education in the Province of KwaZulu-Natal. Indeed educators play a leading role in the creation and maintenance of classroom culture .The focus of this research was only on secondary schools in the above-stated circuit.

In order for teaching and learning to take place effectively, educators must organize educational situations that facilitate teaching and learning. The question here is how educators go about carrying out this task and how effective are they. A questionnaire was administered to educators. The main aim was to determine the educators' role in creating, developing and maintaining a classroom culture in their schools.

The educators responded by giving their views. It was on the basis of these views that the study concluded that a greater number of educators in the area that was studied play an important role in the creation of classroom culture.

It was also discovered that there are some educators who are not clear on their roles as facilitators of classroom culture. They do not properly understand their roles as facilitators of teaching and learning. Such educators need capacity building workshops and training. This makes recommendations inevitable as far as the development and the maintenance of classroom culture is concerned. Such recommendations are made for use by a variety of stakeholders in education, mainly educators and other officials in education.

## **CHAPTER ONE**

### **ORIENTATION OF THE STUDY**

#### **1.1. INTRODUCTION**

The department of education, as one of the organs of the state, has definite aims and objectives to be attained. These are mainly to be attained through the process of teaching and learning in schools. For teaching and learning to happen effectively, there must be a positive and effective classroom culture. Hence the absence of such a classroom culture impacts adversely on the attainment of set educational objectives in schools. Thus in this study, strategies and approaches that educators and learners can apply to create an ideal classroom culture that is conducive to effective teaching and learning are examined.

#### **1.2. MOTIVATON FOR THE STUDY**

It has become a common practice for learners to approach educators during the December holidays privately to ask them to make report cards for them (the learners), as a way of promoting them to the next classes. These learners are either those that would have failed the end-of-year examinations or those that would have dropped out of school during the course of the year. They do not necessarily approach the educators in their schools. They approach anyone they know to be an educator in a school. Hence a marked number of learners who fail the end-of- year examinations, change schools and somehow manage to put themselves in the next classes in the new schools.

It is also observed that there is a marked deterioration in discipline in secondary schools. Educators face numerous problems pertaining to discipline, both inside and outside the classroom in the schools. There is a general tendency among the learners to ignore instructions from the educators until they are compelled to honor such instructions. It has become apparent that learners refuse to acknowledge and respect the authority of the educators. As a result it has become hard for the educators to exercise authority over the learners. This became more apparent and has increasingly flourished since the abolishment of corporal punishment in South Africa. It seems educators depended heavily on corporal punishment to maintain discipline in schools until it was abolished, leaving the educators with no equivalent measure.

The observations stated above, make it obvious that both the learners and the educators are to be held accountable for the prevailing lack of discipline in the schools. It is, therefore, obligatory that such a situation be remedied for it impacts heavily on the reputation of the schools and ultimately on the reputation of the Department of Education, and the future of the learners.

### **1.3. STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM**

The culture of teaching and learning has remarkably deteriorated. This is evidenced by the lack of discipline in secondary schools, and a general negative attitude towards teaching and learning. Such deterioration in the culture of teaching and learning in many ways renders education ineffective as it is counter to the objectives of the Department of Education. As observed by the researcher, there is a lot that is wrong on the part of both

the educators and the learners who honor instructions from educators when they have no choice. The learners' interests are elsewhere away from learning and being taught. This is a real cause for concern because, as stated by Levin and Cailods (2001: v), secondary school education is indeed a crucial stage for the education system. It is where youngsters learn how to think, how to be, how to work, and how to co-operate with others.

#### **1.4. HYPOTHESES**

1.4.1. Classroom management and the culture of teaching and learning in secondary schools in the Pongola circuit are closely related to one another.

1.4.2 The approaches of classroom management used in secondary schools in the Pongola circuit, do not promote a culture of teaching and learning.

#### **1.5. RESEARCH QUESTIONS UNDERLYING THE STUDY**

The main aim of the study was to answer the following questions:

- (a) What is the role of educators in the creation of a classroom culture that is conducive to teaching and learning?
- (b) What is the role of learners in the creation of a culture of learning in the school?
- (c) Why has there been marked deterioration in the culture of teaching and learning?

## 1.6. DEFINITION OF TERMS

### 1.6.1. THE CONCEPTS OF ORGANIZATIONAL CULTURE AND CLASSROOM CULTURE

According to Bush and West-Burnham (1994) organizational culture is the characteristic spirit and belief of an organization that is demonstrated in the norms and values, generally held, about how people should treat each other, the nature of working relationships to be developed; and the nature of the attitude to change. Robinson (1997) defines culture as a shared system of perceptions and values, or a group of people who share a certain system of perceptions and values. Guirdham (1999: 51) observes that the use of the term *system* means that culture is a rigid constellation of interactions between values.

The definitions of organizational culture given above are just the two that have been brought forth. These definitions suggest that at the core of organizational culture are norms and values that enable a group of people to co-exist meaningfully. For purposes of this study, organizational culture is defined as the established and acceptable ways of dealing with a variety of situations. The said ways of dealing with a variety of situations are based on core-values and norms of the population of the organization (the school), and they facilitate the attainment of set objectives for the organization. van der Westhuizen

(1991:617) argues that schools meet all requirements for being organizations. In schools, people are grouped together in an ordered hierarchical authority structure with a common purpose which is educative teaching / learning. The organizational culture that is discussed above exists in schools as a school culture. It is from the school culture that classroom culture stems and the two are closely intertwined.

### **1.6.2. POSITIVE AND FUNCTIONAL CULTURE**

Sergiovanni (1987) asserts that all schools have culture, and that the tendency is that successful schools adhere to a strong functional culture aligned with a vision of quality schooling. Similarly, Kilmann et al (1991: xiii) assert that organizations can be grouped into competitive and not competitive and that the competitive ones are able to satisfy the interests of all internal and external stakeholders over an extended period of time.

It can be concluded, therefore, that a positive and functional culture provides a set of norms that clearly define what people should accomplish and the ways to accomplish it. It is from these that educators and learners derive meaning and significance as they perform the tasks assigned to them. In other words, positive and functional culture steers people towards the attainment of the objectives of the institution. In this case it is the objectives shared by both the schools and the department of education.

This study focuses on classroom culture. The concept of organizational culture has been defined in detail under the *definition of terms*. Classroom culture refers to phenomenon as it exists within a classroom. Therefore classroom culture is the characteristic spirit and belief of a class that is demonstrated in the norms and values, generally held about how people should treat each other, the nature of working relationships to be developed and the nature of the attitude to change (Bush and West-Burnham, 1994). Classroom culture is what directs all activities within the classroom. It mobilizes people within the classroom to do certain things at certain times in certain ways. Mdingi (1999) argues that the presence of such a culture is a precondition for a successful education and training system. It defines what people should accomplish and the ways to accomplish it, and to be accomplished in this case is educative teaching and learning. The stakeholders in the classroom, that is the educators and the learners, should all share a commitment to work together, and contribute by co-operation to successful teaching and learning.

### **1.7. PURPOSE OF THE STUDY**

This study examines factors that impact on classroom culture. Thus it is a useful source in understanding an effective classroom culture. In this study, valuable information on factors that contribute to an ideal form of classroom culture is found, as well as factors that are detrimental to such a culture.

## **1.8. METHOD OF RESEARCH**

In this research, a survey was conducted using structured questionnaires, which were administered to educators in secondary schools in the Pongola circuit of the Vryheid district of the Department of Education in the Province of KwaZulu- Natal. In addition, a study of available and relevant literature was conducted. This was done to ensure that the study balance of the study was maintained.

## **1.9. THE LIMITATIONS AND DELIMITATION OF THE STUDY**

### **1.9.1. LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY**

In dealing with the questionnaires, the educators gave their own views on the matter. So there was a great possibility of subjectivity. But such subjectivity was countered by the fact that the questionnaires were administered to educators in different schools located in different places in the circuit. Apart from that, Pongola is a small city and has a small township called Ncotshane that has only two small sections, A and B. This means that the Pongola circuit of the Vryheid District of the Department of Education is predominantly rural. Therefore, findings from township schools may be inconsistent with findings from schools that are found in rural areas, which form the majority of the schools in the circuit. However such findings may provide a good foundation for future research.

## 1.9.2. DELIMITATION OF THE STUDY

A random sampling of secondary schools was followed by the questionnaires which were administered to educators from the schools. As already indicated, sampling was done randomly. This means that all the schools in the circuit had equal opportunities to be part of the sample. The sample picked under such circumstances created credibility and authenticity, and reliability regarding the findings of the study.

## 1.10. LAYOUT OF THE STUDY

The objective of this section was to provide a general and broad overview of the whole study. Presented here are all the chapters, together with broad statements of what each of them (the chapters) is about.

**Chapter One:** This chapter provides a useful orientation to the study.

**Chapter Two:** This chapter reviews relevant literature on organizational culture, classroom culture, and classroom management as it relates to this study.

**Chapter Three:** This chapter deals with the research methodology used in the study.

**Chapter Four:** This chapter focuses on the analysis and interpretation of the data gathered. So, chapter four turns the data into meaningful information.

**Chapter Five:** This is where a summary, conclusions and recommendations are made.

## **CHAPTER TWO**

### **LITERATURE REVIEW**

#### **2.1. INTRODUCTION**

Driver et al (2005: 29) argue that every business has an ethos, or a culture that is influenced by everyone who is part of the business. This does not apply only to businesses, but to all organizations, such as schools, churches or clubs; they all have their own internal culture. Similarly Smith, and Cronje (1997:268) assert that every organization has its own unique personality which is known as its corporate culture. Furthermore, every organization has a particular culture, which is almost like a personality; and the culture comprises of an omnipresent set of assumptions which is often difficult to fathom, and which directs activities within the organization.

In the discussion of excellent schools in Beare et al. (1989:97-98), it is learned that the principal is first and foremost an instructional leader; and that in such schools, "the glue" bonding the whole together is a strong corporate culture. It is observed here that the culture of the school directs all the activities within the school; which according to Beare et al. (1989:97) is instruction and learning, in which excellent schools excel.

Owens and Steinhoff (1989) define culture as an invisible force which mobilizes people to do things at certain times and in certain ways. In schools it is the prevalent school culture that mobilizes the educators and learners to do things at certain times and in certain ways. Thus Mdingi (1999:06) asserts that the presence of the culture of teaching and learning is a precondition of a successful education and training system.

According to the Department of education (2003:04), in 1995 the Minister of Education initiated the first step towards implementing the transformation of the apartheid further Education and Training curriculum, by establishing the National Education and Training Forum (NETF). It was during this time that the Ministry of Education stated that it was the joint responsibility of all South Africans to help build a just, equitable and high quality system of education and training, for all citizens, characterized by a common culture of disciplined commitment to learning and teaching (The White paper on Education and Training 1995). Notably, effective schools are characterized by a culture of co-operation and collaboration, in which all stakeholders within the school share a commitment to work together to develop the schools' learning climate (Purkey and Smith, 1983:178). This is attested to by Driver et al's (2005: 29) argument that employees have responsibilities towards the business they work for, and they can play an active role in shaping the ethos or culture within the business.

As every business has an ethos or culture, schools have their own too. Educators as employees in their schools are major stakeholders within the schools. Hence they must

share the commitment to work together to develop the schools' learning climate, and in so doing they can play an active role in shaping the ethos or culture of the schools. This study is about classroom culture. The concept of culture as defined above, when applied in a classroom context is classroom culture. In other words classroom culture is the culture that exists within a classroom where educators and learners have to effect educative teaching and learning. So, classroom culture is what directs all the activities of the educators and the learners within the classroom. This is in line with the statement by Beare et al (1989:98) that the culture of an organization directs all the activities within the organization.

In this chapter, therefore, we focus on the review of literature on the role of educators in creating a classroom culture that is conducive to teaching and learning, which according to Beare et al. (1989: 97) is the essential purpose of schools. Classroom management, which is studied as the basis for the achievement of the creation of such a culture will be discussed.

## **2.2. ORGANIZATIONAL CULTURE**

Miller (1979: 37) argues that every human being has culture, regardless of the type of society in which he or she lives. Human beings need and use culture to adapt to and survive in their natural environment and their society. Lemmer and Badenhorst. (1997: 192) share Miller's views in this regard. Thus culture has always been a force or factor in human life

such that it could not, and cannot be ignored or cast aside. As Mdingi (1999:6) argues there are as many definitions of organizational culture as there are writers on the subject. Hence the statement by Lemmer and Badenhorst (1997: 191) that social scientists define culture according to their particular perspectives and in the manner in which they use the concept. It is not surprising then that in a school there is culture, the school culture, and in a classroom there is classroom culture

### **2.3. CREATING ORGANIZATIONAL AND CLASSROOM CULTURE**

van der Westhuizen (1991: 627-29) discusses how culture gets created or how culture comes into existence in a school organization. It is argued that during the development and extension of the school, certain problems are experienced which may be both in and outside the school. Confronted with the problems, the teaching corps, as called by van der Westhuizen (1991:627); who have the duty to act responsibly and accountably, seek correct and applicable solutions to the problems.

In this way, we learn that a body of solutions is formed from successfully coping with the problems. These solutions are eventually transferred to new members as correct feelings and thoughts about specific problems and the correct perceiving and handling of them. The body of solutions gradually becomes assumptions about the nature of things in education, which is because of their significance as measures for preventing and resolving problems.

This is attested to by van der Westhuizen's (1997) assertion that, this applies to the nature of the people, reality, the school, the schools' tasks, the work procedures, the activities, time utilization, space, and mutual relationships. In this way a unique set of assumptions originates in a school concerning what is and what should be within the reality of the school. The idea of the generation of the assumptions is founded on that the culture functions as a set of subconscious, untested, self-evident, accepted truths concerning how things are and should be in the school organization.

Johnson (1961:11) observes that the culture of a society is comprehensive in the sense that it contains cultural patterns sufficiently diversified to enable the group to fulfill the requirements of social life. This is the case in all organizations and / or societies. As argued by Haralambos (1985: 3), every society has certain common problems to deal with. Smit and Cronje (1997: 268) assert that every organization has a particular culture which is almost like a personality.

Smit and Cronje (1997: 269) argue that the term culture, therefore, refers to a set of basic assumptions within an enterprise or organization, and that these assumptions are upheld as the correct way of doing things or understanding problems in the particular enterprise. The term "basic assumptions" refers to the following:

(i) Beliefs: These are based on and are reinforced by personal experience.

(ii) Values: These are the assumptions about what ideals are worth pursuing; values are also based on personal experience and the influence of the members of the organization with whom an individual associates (Smit and Cronje, 1997:296).

Therefore, culture is the beliefs and values shared by people in an organization. Numerous scholars in their definitions of culture do not stand opposed to this definition, but they only add more to it to make it more clarified and more comprehensive. Thus it can be argued that this is one of the ways in which organizational culture gets created or originates.

It is worth reiterating Smit and Cronje's (1997:269) definition of organizational culture as the beliefs and values shared by people in an organization. Classroom culture, therefore, is a set of beliefs and values that are shared by the people within the classroom. These beliefs and values are upheld as the correct way of doing things or understanding problems within the classroom.

As stated in van der Westhuizen (1997:628), organizational culture, as well as classroom culture, assume a coercive character due to its prescriptive nature, which is due to the fact that certain approaches to work, in time become conventions and traditions that should be obeyed. The school culture has ways of obtaining its members' commitment to it. This may be by way of promotions, salary increments, public recognitions, and etcetera, to those who adhere to the core values of the culture. This brings into light the leader of the school organization, who is the principal.

The school principal plays a leading role in creating, sustaining, and promoting the school culture. This is substantiated by Sergiovanni's (1987:59) assertion that principals of schools have a strong influence in creating and shaping the culture of the school, which in turn directs and /or shapes classroom culture fundamentally. Similarly, Beare et al. (1989: 98) argue that the principal is, in the final analysis, the custodian of the school culture. According to Lunenburg and Ornstein, (1991:60) the process of creating culture is a complicated one as it involves organizational heroes, rites and rituals, and communication. A detailed discussion of these is desirable, and it is the subject of the next section.

### **(i) ORGANIZATIONAL HEROES**

The Oxford advanced learner's dictionary (2000:561) defines a hero as a person, especially a man, who is admired by many people for doing brave or good. Thus organizational heroes are such people; male and female in this case. Such people pose as role models in the organizations.

In addition to this, they are very effective sources of motivation for the current members of the organizations as they set performance standards. Mdingi (1999:8) concludes that organizational heroes play a vital role in the creation of organizational culture by perpetuating the organization's underlying values. It is the duty of educators to see to it that high standards are set in the schools, and to advance the schools' underlying values. In other words, in schools as organizations it is the educators who should present such heroes. Such people as heroes of their classes can be so much of an effective source of motivation for the current members of the classes.

## **(ii) RITES AND RITUALS**

Rites and rituals can be defined as ceremonies and repeated periodical events in which the achievement of /by members of the organization, in their duties allocated by the organization are praised, appreciated, and recognized. To create a good platform for this, schools may adopt annual functions like the speech and prize giving day, and others which it may decide on. Awards could be given to achievers to symbolize work well done and to motivate others to do like wise (Mdingi, 1999:8). As educators are the people who run the schools, it is their task to see to it that such platforms are created regularly, where the achievement of/ by the members of the school are recognized and appreciated. These may be done at the classroom level focusing on the members of the class, and aiming at sustaining and/or promoting classroom culture.

## **(iii) COMMUNICA TION**

As defined by van Schoor (1977:13), communication is the mutual exchange of ideas and the interpretation of messages. Good communication in an organization, like a school, therefore, ensures that the members of the organization are kept informed and abreast with the latest trends and developments, both within and outside the organization. This is of great importance because a school is not an island as it is here to serve the needs of the community. Thus it is imperative that positive values of the wider community be considered as part of the process of building the culture of teaching and learning in the school (Mdingi, 1999:9).

We argue, therefore, that the schools have the responsibility to reflect the positive values that are central and meaningful to their communities and for that they receive a lot of approval and appreciation. Leaders can, therefore, be seen as cultural forces faced with the task of creating the moral order that binds them and also binds the people (Mdingi, 1999:9). In a nut shell, societal culture is a fundamental shaper of organizational culture (Ott, 1989:74).

Similarly, the class must reflect the positive values that are central and meaningful to the school, and for that it will be praised and appreciated. In doing that communication plays a very important role. Through communication every member of the class is kept adequately informed about everything that happens in the school, and so they are able to make decisions that are correct, correct even when viewed from the perspective of the school and of the class.

#### **2.4. ORGANISATIONAL CULTURE IN EDUCATIONAL INSTITUTIONS**

The concept of organizational culture has now been defined and discussed in details. Also addressed is the question of the creation of such a culture. Mdingi (1999:9) observes that *organizational culture not only has to be created but it is essential that it be maintained*. It was mentioned in the preface that educators play a leading role in creating, sustaining, and promoting classroom culture in the schools. What is called corporate culture in other organizations is called the school culture in schools and classroom culture in the classroom.

It is through and by educators that such culture comes into existence. This is attested to by Driver et al's (2005:29) assertion that every business has an ethos, or a culture that is influenced by everyone who is part of the business. This does not apply to businesses only, but to all organizations such as schools, churches, clubs, and others. Hence classroom culture is influenced by the educators and learners in the classroom.

Similarly, Smit and Cronje (1997:268) assert that every organization has its own unique personality, which is known as its corporate culture. This means that all schools or classes have culture that is unique to them. No two or more schools or classes have identical forms of classroom culture. Such differences bring in the question of the types of the culture that may be found in the schools. So, the role of educators in shaping the classroom culture and the school culture that is unique to the different schools deserves special attention. This is so because as a consequence, different types of culture exist in different schools and in different classes.

According to Glatter et al. (1988: 109-112), Smit and Cronje (1992: 392 - 393) and Bush and West-Burnham (1994: 103) there are four types of culture in educational institutions. They are: the club culture, the role culture, the task culture, and the person culture. Each type of culture will be briefly discussed in the next section.

#### **2.4.1. THE CLUB CULTURE**

According to Smit and Cronje (1992:392), the club culture is found mainly in small

enterprises where culture is dependent on a central power source. It is further stated that this culture is characterized by few rules and regulations. The key to the organization sits in the centre, surrounded by ever-widening circles of inmates and influence.

#### **2.4.2. THE ROLE CULTURE**

According to Glatter et al (1998:109) the underlying organizational idea here is that organizations are sets of roles or job-boxes, joined together in a logical and orderly fashion, so that together they discharge the work of the organization. As argued by Smit and Cronje (1992:392) sometimes the role culture is known as a bureaucracy. It is these characteristics that define the role culture.

#### **2.4.3. THE TASK CULTURE**

Smit and Cronje (1992:392) argue that this culture emphasizes getting the job done. Glatter et al (1988:110) assert that the organizational idea in this culture is that a group or a team of talents and resources should be applied to a project or problem or task. In that way each task gets the treatment that it requires. The task culture is, therefore, job or project oriented.

#### **2.4.4. THE PERSON CULTURE**

In Smit and Cronje's (1992) view, in this culture the organization is subordinate to the

individual and depends for its very existence on the individuals. Glatter et al. (1988) assert that the organizational idea in this culture is that the individual talent is all-important, and must be serviced by some sort of minimal organization. This culture is characterized by a high degree of autonomy, and it is well supportive to talent and initiative.

Mdingi (1999:10) concludes that the choice of a particular culture or the use of a combination of some depends on a number of factors, like: the size of the school, the leadership style of the principal, and others. So, any of the types of culture or a combination of them may be found in schools. In the same way the choice of any of the types of culture or a combination of some in the classroom, depends on such factors as referred to above. That means different educators will create culture that is unique to their schools and classes.

## **2.5. WHAT CONSTITUTES A HEALTHY CLASSROOM CULTURE?**

Classroom culture in a school is viewed and acknowledged as a "healthy" one if there is effective educative teaching and learning in the classroom. During the apartheid era in South Africa, educational institutions were established along racial lines and saturated with the doctrines of apartheid and entrenched inequality (Department of education, 2003).

As a consequence of the unequal distribution of resources, historically white schools and colleges tended to be well resourced, while the historically black institutions tended to be poorly resourced. This had an adverse impact on the quality of teaching and learning,

especially in the historically non-white schools. Such differences were enforced through legislation and regulations. The final consequence was the absence of the culture of teaching and learning in such schools. Therefore, there was no healthy classroom culture in the schools. Hence no educative teaching and learning took place.

When in 1994 a democratically elected government was installed, it was confronted with this problem as one of the most daunting challenges. With South Africa now being a democratic state that cherished values such as transparency, trust, consultation, and participation and the majority rule, a major review of the education system was necessary, which would result in social transformation in education aimed at ensuring that the educational imbalances of the past are redressed. This was an effort by the state Department of Education to bring back to schools a healthy culture of teaching and learning, which was almost non-existent by then. This effort should be commended by all. Such a culture is characterized by: transparency, trust, consultations, and participation. This is reminiscent of Purkey and Smith's (1983:178 ) assertion that effective schools are characterized by a culture of co-operation and collaboration, in which all stakeholders within the school share a commitment to work together to develop the school's learning climate. Parents, pupils, teachers, school managers, and the community all contribute by co-operation to successful teaching and learning, which are the products of a well- managed school.

Purkey and Smith (1983:178) further argue that in effective schools, principals and educators believe in the potential of their learners. As a result they set standards that are

high, yet attainable by the learners. Similarly, Levin and Lockheed (1993:5) argue that educators in schools with a positive culture have high expectations on the performance of their learners, and they put priority on the assessment of the academic progress of the learners, which they make to be as frequent as possible. By the same token, Maughan and Ouston (1979:23) assert that learners were expected to work hard and succeed in early successful schools.

What is said about schools here applies to classes. So, in successful classes educators believe in the learners' potential and set high but attainable standards with high expectations on the learners' performance, making assessment to be as frequent as possible. In such classes the educators and the learners commit themselves to work cooperatively and collaboratively.

Besides all this, deserving special attention is the figure of the school principal. Bearé et al. (1989:99-100) assert that outstanding leadership has invariably emerged as a key characteristic of outstanding schools. Outstanding leaders have a vision for their schools. Vision is defined as a mental picture of a preferred future, which is shared with all in the school community, and which shapes the programme for learning and teaching, as well as policies, priorities, and plans and procedures pervading the day-to-day life of the school. This indicates that educators excel in their educating tasks because they have visions for their classes, and they are outstanding in leadership.

This is reminiscent of Driver et al's (2005: 29- 30) assertion that the attitudes and values of *senior management often have a strong influence on the working environment and culture of the whole business*. This does not mean, however, that establishing the right type of culture is just upon management. Instead, the other employees, subordinates, have responsibilities towards the business they work for and they can play an active role in shaping the ethos or culture within the business. This means that when the educators create classroom culture in the different classes, they play an active role in shaping the culture of teaching and learning in the schools.

According to Mdingi (1999: 11) the school principal should not be seen as solely responsible for the running of the school, but this should be a joint responsibility of the whole school community. According to Zulu (1998) this participation and involvement creates a positive climate, a sense of purpose and efficiency, and thus promotes strong working relationships.

## **2.6. THE CULTURE OF TEACHING AND LEARNING**

### **2.6.1. ISSUES IN THE CULTURE OF TEACHING AND LEARNING.**

It has been observed earlier on that the education system during the apartheid era was established such that historically black schools were the most devastated by the absence of the culture of teaching and learning. This means that the educators were not committed to teaching and the learners were not committed to learning. In accordance with this, the culture of teaching and learning in this study is understood as a climate of the commitment

of both learners and educators to teaching and learning. The commitment to teaching and learning is what drives the educators and learners to create a classroom culture (as defined in the definition of terms) that permits educative teaching and learning effectively in the classrooms.

In the National Education Conference that was held in 1992, it was observed that the national schooling situation was marked by an evident lack of interest and commitment in teaching and learning. Such a situation could not be left unresolved. That is why when a democratically elected government was installed in 1994, it undertook to take up the daunting challenge and transformed the education system to bring about an education system that entrenches and enables the development and maintenance of a healthy culture of teaching and learning and ultimately bring back to schools an effective classroom culture.

In Chisholm and Vally's (1996) view, in schools that were affected, there were no conditions conducive to teaching and learning, and discipline, and classroom culture was non-existent. In addition, the communities had lost faith in the benefits and legitimacy of education, and so school going habits and values were adversely lacking. Consequentially, all these had an adverse impact on the morale of all the stakeholders in the schools communities. It is, therefore, not surprising that those learners who do not qualify to be promoted to the following classes, approach educators privately to ask them to make them

report cards for them as a way of promoting them (learners) to the next classes. This is absolutely wrong. This is a direct consequence of the loss of faith in the outcomes and legitimacy of education.

## **2.6.2. FACTORS THAT AFFECT THE CREATION OF AN IDEAL CLASSROOM CULTURE**

There are some practical factors that can be identified as hindering the efforts of educators in creating such a culture. This study has identified the following factors: leadership and management; transformation; physical resources; and redeployment and rationalization. Now each of the factors will be discussed.

### **(I) LEADERSHIP AND MANAGEMENT**

The school principal holds a leadership position in the school. He or she is ultimately responsible for everything that occurs within the school (Walters, 1992:36). The principal's position thus requires many qualities, the most important of them being the ability to: plan, lead, organize, control, communicate, delegate, decide, motivate, coordinate, and discipline.

Considering this assertion by Walters (1992:36), one may conclude that it is real that within

the school, the educational leader who is the school principal bears the responsibility of creating an order which enables educative teaching to take place. Similarly van der Westhuizen (1991:118) argues that it is the task of the educational leader to create a safe and stimulating school and learning climate in which the staff and pupils may be stimulated to productivity.

What is discussed here applies to an educator who is a leader of his or her class. Such an educator bears the responsibility of creating an order that enables educative teaching and learning to occur. The educator must be able to efficiently carry out the following tasks, which are important: planning, leading, organizing, communicating, delegating, motivating, and decision-making, coordinating, and discipline.

Besides that, Silver (1994:81) identifies factors that were prominent in early effective schools. Some of these factors are: the strong leadership and the participation in the classroom of the principal; high expectations on the part of the principal, of learners and educators performances. It is worth reiterating that in Beare et al's (1989:99) view, outstanding leadership has invariably emerged as a key characteristic of outstanding schools.

It should be noted that the South African Schools Act No.84 of 1996 demands the participation, consultation and co-operation of all stakeholders in education during the process of making decisions. The stakeholders are parents, educators, learners and the

community around the schools. However, it remains that the principal is accountable in most of the matters affecting the running of the school. This act saw the establishment of school governing bodies that are representative of all the stakeholders in the school. These governing bodies work together with the school principals during decision-making processes.

Mdingi (1999: 15) asserts that the role of the principal has now become one of public relations and leadership. He or she is expected to handle administration and to coordinate the interactions between educators and parents and also encourage community involvement in the affairs of the school. As a leader, the principal is expected to promote teamwork among the staff members at the school. Cronje et al (1997:266) define public relations as a deliberate, planned and sustained process of communication between a business and its publics, for the purpose of obtaining, maintaining, or improving good relations with regard to: good will, mutual understanding, acceptance and cooperation; on which profitable survival and growth depend.

Cronje et al (1997:227) argue that an organization needs to understand change in its external environment and constantly endeavor to keep abreast with the opinions, demands, and preferences and dislikes current in it, so that it can adjust its activities accordingly. The school principal's role of public relations and leadership is a new one. It has been brought

about by change. It calls for new skills and knowledge from the principals, without which they (the principals) would be helpless and ineffective. Hence it has a direct impact on the schools' culture of teaching and learning.

All the factors mentioned here have a direct bearing on the classroom culture as they form the environment within which the classroom culture exists and functions. They either stifle it or sustain and promote it.

## **(ii) TRANSFORMATION**

In Smit and Cronje's (1997:265) view, people care less about the organization's best interest. They resist change if they think it makes them lose something of value. Even if the change benefits everyone, people still resist if they do not fully understand the purpose. This flourishes in situations where distrust and suspicion prevail, as there is a spread of rumors and distorted information.

As asserted by Ruddick (1991:30), change involves the adaptation of new and unfamiliar practices, and the abandonment of practices that are familiar and therefore comfortable. It is, therefore, important that the people involved in change should be made to realize that change is inevitable.

The development of democracy in South Africa brought about change in all spheres of

society, including the education system, schooling, teaching and learning; and the curriculum. Delores (1996:13) asserts that in education, people see an indispensable asset in their attempt to attain the ideals of peace, freedom and social justice. In addition, education is acknowledged as one of the principal means to reduce poverty, exclusion, ignorance, oppression, and war.

In South Africa the transformation of the education system has brought in Outcomes Based Education (OBE). This came with a whole range of new concepts and new roles for educators. In order to be able to cope, educators needed to acquire new skills and knowledge and that posed new challenges to them (the educators). Failure to live up to the new challenges could result in job loss. In such a situation one expects notable degrees of anxiety and uncertainty, and fear of job loss among the educators. This is attested to by Fullan's (1991:45) assertion that any form of change is always accompanied by a degree of anxiety, fear and uncertainty. This was so when considering that educators might possibly not succeed in adequately acquiring the new skills and knowledge required of them.

As a matter of fact, the role of educators changed with the coming of OBE. The principal's role became one of public relations and leadership as he or she now co-ordinates interactions between the school and the community. Educators became facilitators of learning and no more transmitters of knowledge. The educator now has to design learning programmes and administer them to the learners. The educational tasks in the learning programme make learners to research; look for facts that solve specific problems in education. Then they give

feedback to the educator who then functions as an assessor. This brings into light the educator's role as an assessor. The educator must understand continuous assessment as an integral part of teaching and learning, and know how to integrate it into the process of teaching and learning.

If educators are not adequately equipped with the necessary skills and training, they will find themselves helpless and without capacity to handle the change, and thus they might not be able to create and or sustain a classroom culture that is conducive to teaching and learning. Principals also need vast managerial and leadership skills for the emerging situations.

As a consequence of all these, a lot of high ranking educators opted for packages, and others left and sought employment elsewhere, just because they found the change in the education system to be too uncomfortable and/or unbearable (Mdingi, 1999:16). Hence there has been a tremendous increase in educator turnover. The increased educator turnover means classroom culture cannot be sustained, or even promoted.

### **(III) PHYSICAL RESOURCES**

Instructional materials are key ingredients to the process of teaching and learning. Scholars like Chisholm and Valley (1996) argue that facilities make an incalculable difference to classroom culture in the schools. Although some scholars may have differing views, at least they all agree that facilities make a great difference in teaching and learning.

Some schools are lacking equipment or resources that can be utilized as aids to assist in achieving outcomes and end - results in teaching and learning. Such schools are said to be under- resourced. The Oxford dictionary (1990:502) defines the term "under resourced" as referring to something which is poor in reserves or in natural resources, something that is lacking in resources.

According to Nyuswa (2003:22) schools in rural areas are typically small as compared to schools in more populated communities, due to low population density. Researchers, such as Nyuswa (2003), argue that budgets of small rural schools do not adequately cover the considerable costs of operations and that this could lead to limited curricular and programme offerings, and a lack of resources.

According to Wydeman (2004:98), resources are often thought off only as physical resources like textbooks, stationary, teaching - learning aids, overhead projectors, and so on. These are all-important in contributing to the creation of an effective teaching and learning environment or classroom culture. According to Mdingi (1999: 13), some scholars argue that resources do not teach but educators teach. Garson (1998) points out that the lack of commitment and capacity among the educators and learners are more problematic than the lack of funds for the acquisition of the necessary resources. Grey (1998:5) agrees that educators and learners lack commitment and capacity, but goes on to argue that this is attributable to the government's failure to address the appalling conditions in which they work.

From these arguments presented above one learns that educators and learners are responsible for the creation and sustenance of classroom culture in the schools. Moreover it is essential that at least minimum resources be available, and that educators need to be capacitated and to be committed to their work if a classroom culture that is conducive to educative teaching and learning is to prevail. This enables one to understand how important physical resources are in creating and sustaining classroom culture.

#### **(IV) REDEPLOYMENT AND RATIONALISATION**

In Smit and Cronje's (1997:265) view, what people fear the worst is the loss of their jobs. That is why change brings with it a lot of anxiety, uncertainty and fear. The process of redeployment and rationalization dictated that educators be declared in excess in some schools where they were too many for the schools' curriculum needs, and after-wards be redeployed to schools where they were needed.

This posed a threat to the educators being declared in excess as they would be displaced from their schools, and not be re-absorbed into other schools as a result of failure to meet the curriculum needs of the needing schools. This heavily impacted on the educators' job security. It left them (educators) full of resentment and bitterness, as their jobs were absolutely insecure. It is naive to think that issues affecting one's job security will not affect the job itself (Mdingi, 1999: 17). So, the effects were definitely adverse.

Due to the annual post provisioning norm of the Department of Education, small schools like Landokwakhe Secondary and Siqalukubona Secondary, found in well rural communities, have been repeatedly confronted with the problem of being allocated few and inadequate posts in keeping up with their low enrolments. As a result they have had to appoint inadequate numbers of educators. In trying to cope with this problem, such schools have repeatedly resolved to appointing some educators and paying their salaries through their governing bodies. Such educators are mostly not qualified for the work and so are incapacitated. It should be noted that in most schools parents cannot afford to pay educators' salaries. Hence it is clear now how redeployment and rationalization threatens classroom culture in concerned schools.

When discussing the factors that affect the creation of an ideal classroom culture, it is noticeable that they are not the responsibility of the educators. So, the blame for their existence does not fall on the educators. However, educators still bear the responsibility to work with adequate dedication and commitment. The educators have an obligation to alleviate the problems facing the schools.

## **2.7. THE ROLE OF EDUCATORS IN CREATING CLASSROOM CULTURE**

It is learned from Sankale-Sementey (1984:82) that education involves the large scale socialization of the youth who, in theory, are yet to embark upon a fully active life, and whose main occupation is to study in schools, universities or other centers of learning. In a nut shell, education involves furthering the process of enculturation.

Kronowitz (1992:110-111) argues that when children begin their formal instruction, parents decrease or even cease their informal instruction, leaving the job to those they perceive “as more experienced and more capable”. They step into the background and relegate their role to homework overseers. It is therefore evident that individuals, and families or surrogate families are dependent on educators in general for ensuring that offsprings develop the tools for communication and the essential skills for functioning in a complex society (Murray, 1980:66).

In view of these arguments by various scholars, it is obvious that educators are in the best position to inculcate culture among the learners. As educators serve schools, they are better positioned to socialize learners into the culture of the schools and into the classroom culture within the schools, and moreover this is their responsibility in which they must not fail.

Educators can do this through rituals like, inter alia, speech and prize giving days, where achievers are given public recognition and symbols of recognition. Notably, stories of organizational heroes and heroines of the school can be very powerful motivational factors for people, more especially learners, to adhere to the prevailing classroom culture. Apart from that such heroes and heroines may serve as role models.

According to Purkey and Smith (1983:179) all forms of praise, appreciation and incentives have a positive impact on learners. As a matter of fact effective schools create multiple opportunities for such recognition. Schools that publicly honor academic achievement and stress its importance encourage learners to perform well.

According to Walters (1992:8), in more effective schools, there is regular communication between the schools and the homes, as to how parents can support their children's performance, as well as the schools goals. Chances of successful learner performance and staff effectiveness probably diminish if parents, and community leaders and organizations are not supportive.

Murray (1980:19) argues that many of the educational programmes that exist fail because parents do not co-operate. Notably, the influence of the home and community environment and particularly of parents' interest has a great impact on the learners' educational development. It is up to the educators to use their skills and the expertise of the parents to create a classroom culture that is adequately conducive to teaching and learning.

As stated in Fenstermacher and Soltis (2004:11), the task of the educator is to engage the learners in academic work. To do this, the educator must determine what the learners are to be taught and then figure out whether the learners are ready to learn it or not. Having done this, the educator has to figure out how to get it across to the learners and what motivational devices might be used to interest the learners and thus keep them engaged for the duration of the period. Finally the educator should figure out what classroom structure best contributes to successful instruction, for example, large groups or independent learning.

With reference to the existence of a classroom culture, the educators being the founders invite more other key people, the learners, to create a core group that shares the vision of the

founder. Then together they engage in a variety of activities, which result in educative teaching and learning. This is attested to by Luthans' (1989:55) assertion that in creating culture there seems to be a founder who invites more other key people and a core group is created after which they engage in a variety of activities to create an organization in which a common history begins.

Today teaching means understanding and guiding learners as individuals and as groups. It means providing learning experiences that enable each learner to grow continuously and sequentially towards his or her adult role in society (Morse and Wingo, 1957:9). It is asserted that it is when you yourself have an adequate foundation of knowledge and skills that you can provide learners with the learning experiences that they need for continuous sequential growth in all areas of living.

This implies that the educator has to plan for each and every lesson. Good and Brophy (1994) argue that thorough lesson-planning is a key to effective classroom culture. Kellough and Roberts (1998: 167) argue that to teach effectively, educators must prepare for every minute of every class. This planning takes place during the proactive phase of instruction. It is concluded that effective teaching does not just happen, but is brought about by careful planning of each phase of the learning process. This means that efficient planning for every minute of every lesson enables the educator to create, sustain, and develop a classroom culture that permits educative teaching and learning.

McCutcheon (1989) identifies internal and external reasons for planning. The internal

reasons identified include: to feel more confident, to learn the subject matter better, to enable lessons to run more smoothly, and to anticipate problems that need to be avoided. The external reasons identified include: meeting the expectations of the school principal, and providing direction for possible substitutes or replacements.

## **2.8. CONCLUSION**

In this chapter, the focus was on reviewing relevant and available literature on the topic, ‘The role of educators in creating and maintaining classroom culture in the Pongola circuit’. The phenomenon of classroom culture was treated in detail in the light of organizational culture. Issues on culture which were treated here are:

- Organizational culture.
- Creating organizational and classroom culture.
- Organizational culture in educational institutions.
- What constitutes a healthy classroom culture?
- The culture of teaching and learning
- The role of educators in creating classroom culture.

## **CHAPTER THREE**

### **RESEARCH METHODOLOGY AND DESIGN**

#### **3.1. INTRODUCTION**

According to Wehmeier (2000:999), the term 'research' refers to a careful study of a subject, especially in order to discover new facts or information about it. Methodology, as a term refers to a set of methods and principles used to perform a particular activity, whilst the term 'method' refers to a particular way of doing something. (Wehmeier, 2000:740).

Research methodology, therefore, is a set of methods used to carefully study a particular subject, especially, with a view to discover new facts or information about it. It is in this way that research methodology is understood in this study. The next concept considered is design. According to Wehmeier (200:315) the term design refers to a general arrangement of the different parts of something that is made. In other words, design concerns the physical outlook of something. In this study the concern is with the design of the research exercise.

Similarly, Bailey (1987:3) advocates the perceptions of research methodology and design that are discussed above. This is evidenced in his assertion that research planning involves strategies designed for the gathering of data that help the researcher to answer questions about a specific problem.

Conducting research, therefore, is establishing facts or discovering facts or principles (Collins 978: 638). In this study the researcher planned to collect factual data on the educators' role in creating classroom culture. Another matter of primary importance in research is the matter of approaches to research which are the subject of the next section.

### **3.2. APPROACHES TO RESEARCH**

According to Booyse et al. (1993: 14), research may be quantitative and or qualitative in approach. The two research approaches were at the disposal of the researcher, who had to make his choice between them. The qualitative approach to research was found to be the most appropriate for purposes of this study. Hence it is the subject of the next section.

### 3.2.1. QUALITATIVE RESEARCH

Booyse et al (1993: 14) discuss the qualitative approach to research. As argued by Booyse et al. (1993), qualitative researchers strive for the best possible comprehension or understanding of a given phenomenon in its unique context, rather than studying it in a universal context.

Qualitative researchers usually work on an exploratory - descriptive way and use sensitizing or empathizing rather than quantifiable concepts. Data gathering is performed by means of qualitative methods, while data analysis is characterized by the use of interpretative frameworks, models, and schemes. In a nut shell, data coded and represented in numerical scores are typically referred to as quantitative or statistical data. Data not transferable to statistics are called qualitative data. Both types of data are useful in the process of systematic inquiry (Merriam and Simpson, 1984: 129).

For purposes of this study the qualitative approach to research was adopted. As stated earlier on, the main intention of the researcher was to collect factual data; as such data may best be collected by means of qualitative methods, and better analyzed by using interpretative frameworks, models, and schemes. The data concerned were not transferable to statistics, and so were not capable of being presented in numerical scores. So, the researcher found the qualitative approach to research to be the most

appropriate and suitable for this study, hence it was adopted. Before the survey could commence, the researcher had to make preparations for it. The question of what preparations were made and how they were made is discussed below.

### **3.3. THE PREPARATION AND THE DESIGN OF THE RESEARCH**

#### **3.3.1. PERMISSION**

The intention of the researcher was to engage in a process of data gathering amongst educators; in the Pongola Circuit of the Vryheid District of the Zululand Region of the Department of Education, in the Province of KwaZulu-Natal. The researcher conducted the study in the circuit and engaged educators in the administration of the investigation, which according to Stake (1995; 57) involves a certain measure of an invasion of the personal privacy, more especially of those people who have authority over the domain.

The researcher, therefore, deemed it necessary to seek permission from the manager of the circuit concerned. Hence a letter requesting such permission was written and personally delivered to the circuit manager by the researcher. A few days later the researcher was notified, by means of a telephone call to fetch the letter of response. Thus the letter granting such permission as had been requested was received by the researcher (appendices, A and B).

### 3.3.2. THE SELECTION OF RESPONDENTS

Having been granted permission to conduct the inquiry, the researcher could now commence the exercise. The first step was the selection of the respondents. It is asserted in *THE WORLD BOOK ENCYCLOPEDIA (1985:686)* that designing ways to collect data is one of the statisticians' most important jobs. Some observations are quick and inexpensive. Often, however, statisticians make a small number of carefully drawn observations, called a sample, to obtain information about the whole population. A population is defined as the entire group affected by the problem of the researcher's interest; while a sample is only a portion of the population.

Briggs (1989:931) defines the term "sample" as used in statistics to indicate a smaller part of a total population which can be counted or measured, in an investigation, usually in order to estimate values for the population as a whole. It is observed that a subjectively chosen sample; that is, one taken by picking individuals that look typical, is often biased and frequently underestimates the variability of the population. In addition, objective sampling requires that the sample individuals be chosen at random or systematically

By the same token Kerlinger (1986:114) argues that one common strategy used in selecting and assigning participants to groups for study is randomization. Objective sampling, therefore, is the assignment of objects of the universe to subsets of the universe; in such a way that every member of the universe has an equal probability to be chosen for assignment.

Thus the definition of a sample by Merriam and Simpson (1984:54) that a sample is a strategically and systematically identified group of people or events that meets the criterion of representativeness for a particular study in order to detect casual relationships, and project into the future experimental design, and demands a selection of research participants or events that accurately represent the total population of persons, or the universe of events being studied is comprehensible. Briefly, therefore, to sample means to identify subjects or events for study in a systematic way.

It is, therefore, essential that when statisticians use only a sample, they must be sure that it will tell them exactly what they need to know. Careful planning is therefore required. The statistician has to determine how to obtain a sample that represents the population, as a whole as accurately as possible. The statistician should figure out the most appropriate size of the sample as per the requirements of the research problem concerned (THE WORLD BOOK ENCYCLOPEDIA, 1985:686).

It should be understood that the target population for this study were secondary school educators in the Pongola circuit. Having studied all the arguments and observations, advanced by various scholars, the researcher went on to select the sample for this study. Sampling was necessitated by the fact that it was impossible to include the entire population of secondary school educators of the Pongola circuit in the survey. So, a sample had to be selected.

During the sampling process, all the secondary schools' names in the circuit were written on small pieces of papers. The little papers were folded such that the names of the schools were completely hidden. Then the folded papers were put into a container and shaken for a complete mix-up. A person who had no interest whatsoever in what was happening was asked to pick ten of the folded little papers from the container. In this way ten names of schools were picked. They formed the sample for assignment from a total population of thirty-one secondary schools in the circuit.

### **3.3.3. THE SAMPLE SIZE**

Once the researcher completed the process of sample selection, a sample existed. This generated interest and concern pertaining to the size of the sample. Notably it is impossible to have a sample as large as the population itself, as the cost and the time associated with the inclusion of every member of the population in the sample will be enormous. It is therefore imperative that the sample be far less than the population under survey (Mdingi, 1999:24).

According to Denzin and Lincoln (2000:446), in qualitative field work, a purposive sample, building in variety and acknowledging opportunities for intensive study is drawn. Thus the researcher examines various interests in the phenomenon, selecting a case of some typicality, but learning towards those cases that seem to offer opportunity to learn. My choice would be to examine the case from which we feel we can learn the most. (Denzin and Lincoln, 2000:446).

Stake (1995) states that balance and variety are important and that the opportunity to learn is of primary importance. Also of the utmost importance is the observation that nothing is more important than making a proper selection of cases. In addition to all that has been said, Grey and Russell quoted in Denzin and Lincoln (2000:780) argue that sampling may be based on extreme or deviant cases that illustrate maximum variety, on variable cases that are somehow typical of a phenomenon or cases that confirm or disconfirm a hypothesis.

Notably, here there is not the least of a measure of importance placed on the size of sample. As stated earlier on, the researcher should figure out the appropriate size of the sample as per the requirements of the research problem concerned. Ary and Razaveieh (1972) argue that the researcher should not be preoccupied with the size of the sample per se, as it is not the determinant of representativeness on its own. Sample size does not compensate for the bias that is introduced through faulty sampling techniques. Data gathering is a major element in a survey. Therefore, it is necessary that there must be an instrument that is used to do this (gathering data), and it must be an appropriate one. A discussion of the instrument that was used in this study follows below.

### **3.4. THE RESEARCH INSTRUMENT**

According to Merriam and Simpson (1984:129), the researcher has three major ways of

collecting data. They are:

- asking questions through a survey. This is the use of questionnaires and interviews.
- observing, this is direct observation.
- testing.

It has been stated earlier on in the introduction of this chapter, that this study was conducted qualitatively. It is clear, therefore, that a survey was conducted. According to Merriam and Simpson (1984:129), the term survey represents a broad category of techniques that use questioning to elicit information. Written forms of surveys are referred to as questionnaires, and surveys conducted orally are interviews. In conducting this investigation, the researcher, therefore, used the questionnaires as a research instrument. (Appendix C). Hence it is discussed in details below.

#### **3.4.1. THE QUESTIONNAIRES AS A RESEARCH INSTRUMENT**

Before going any further in discussing the questionnaires as a research instrument,

it is worth defining the concept. Zulu (1999:79) defines the questionnaires as a set of questions that deals with the same topic and is given to a selected group of individuals for the purpose of gathering data on a problem under research.

Similarly, Bailey (1978: 111) asserts that data collection is the basic function of the questionnaires. Therefore, it is expected that the questionnaires should consist of a number of standardized questions that have been preset, and designed to collect the information that is required.

Vadum and Rankin (1988:1) perceive the questionnaires as a method of systematically collecting data from people about their behaviors, attitudes, and beliefs. Similarly, Dane (1990: 120) holds the same view and further states that the questionnaires allow one to obtain information directly from the group of individuals who participate in the research project, and so the questionnaires are the most appropriate for descriptive research.

Still on the question of the suitability of the questionnaires for data collection, Behr and Brumble (1989: 156) conclude that if the questionnaires are properly constructed and administered, they still continues to be the best available instrument for obtaining information from widely spread sources. The researcher perceived and acknowledged the questionnaires as such. So, in choosing to use them as "THE" research instrument he (the researcher) made an adequately informed choice.

Behr and Brumble (1989: 156) argue that the questionnaires continue to be the best available instrument for obtaining information from widely spread sources if they are properly constructed and administered. This brings in the question of how well or how proper the questions that constitute the questionnaires are constructed. Should the questionnaires be poorly constructed, they will most likely fail in their function as a data-gathering instrument. The construction of the questionnaires is of the utmost importance, and as such deserves definite attention.

#### **3.4.2. THE CONSTRUCTION OF THE QUESTIONNAIRES**

A researcher, who endeavors to construct questionnaires to be used as a data gathering instrument in a survey, should ensure that the specific results that he has in mind are reflected in certain concepts used in the questionnaires. He or She should also ensure that the results can and will be obtained by means of certain operations and conditions that are prevalent and appropriate for the questionnaires to operate. In a nut shell, the researcher must make sure that the instrument that he or she has identified will enable him or her to obtain what he or she has planned to obtain. This calls for a clear and adequate understanding of each of the question items that constitute the questionnaires, both uniquely and as a member of the whole.

According to Mdingi (1999:26), ideal questionnaires are clear, unambiguous and

uniformly workable. The researcher needs to bear it in mind that the completion of questionnaires is voluntary on the part of the respondents. The construction of such questionnaires must be such that it captures the interests of the respondents, and so encourages them to cooperate, and respond to the best of their ability.

Merriam and Simpson (1984: 130) argue that questionnaires vary in design according to the purpose suggested by the research problem. There are two general types of questionnaires, as already stated earlier on: the open- ended questionnaires, and the closed - ended questionnaires. Each will be discussed in details in the next section

### **3.4.3. TYPES OF QUESTIONNAIRES**

#### **(i) THE CLOSED - ENDED QUESTIONNAIRES**

According to Merriam and Simpson (1984: 130) closed - ended questionnaires are characterized by the following:

- They are structured such that in responding to them, the person is forced to choose one of alternatives provided.
- The responses to such questions are more easily analyzed because data have been essentially categorized prior to the beginning of the gathering process.

- Items on a closed questionnaire represent factors surrounding the research phenomenon, which are the focus of the investigation.
- It allows the researcher to guide participants along pertinent lines of thought associated with the phenomenon being studied.
- It allows no room for inappropriate and irrelevant responses to questions.

#### **(ii) THE OPEN-ENDED QUESTIONNAIRES**

The following are presented, in Merriam and Simpson (1984) as characteristics of such questionnaires:

- It has items (questions) that allow greater freedom of response.
- Information that the researcher may have never anticipated may result.
- Variation in response will be prevalent meaning more work in the analysis and the identification of categories.
- Being less structured, it requires a lot of time and effort for coding and developing strategies after the responses to the instrument are made.

- It is less threatening and frustrating to certain special populations of participants, like: the undereducated, the culturally different, the marginally literate, and others.

What have been discussed above are the two general types of questionnaires that can be used in data gathering exercises. It is argued that it is preferable to design questionnaires in a closed form if the research problem permits. The researcher took this into consideration when designing the questionnaire that was used in this study.

Hence in the questionnaires designed by the researcher, there were twenty-five closed-ended questions and only two questions were open-ended. The questionnaires, therefore, consisted of twenty-seven items. The idea was to use closed-ended questions. However, of interest to the researcher was the possibility of unanticipated information coming up as Merriam and Simpson (1984) assert above. To allow for this, the researcher decided to include the two open-ended questions in the questionnaires.

It is normal that the questionnaires as a data gathering instrument should have advantages and disadvantages. Like any other phenomenon of this nature, and which has a considerable impact to human life and behavior. It is bound to have such advantages and disadvantages, and they deserve definite attention.

#### 3.4.4. ADVANTAGES OF QUESTIONNAIRES

The questionnaires are nothing but one means by which data gathering in research may be done. A lot has been observed and said by several scholars about questionnaires and the other means of data gathering, of which the questionnaires are one. Inter alia, it has been said that; like the other means of data gathering, the questionnaires have some advantages and disadvantages. Hence this section looks at the advantages.

In Mdingi (1999:28) the following are identified as advantages of the questionnaires:

- The questionnaires are cost-effective in terms of time and money as compared to the other methods of gathering data. This was more so as the educators who were respondents were widely spread all over the Pongola Circuit.
- Data gathered through the questionnaires are more easily coded, analyzed and interpreted as opposed to data obtained through the other means.
- This method of data gathering proved to be non-disruptive to the normal day-to-day programmes of the schools. This is because the respondents,

- who were secondary school educators in the Pongola Circuit, were to complete (and they did), the questionnaires in their own free time. This was to ensure that the normal schools programmes were not disrupted.
- Data obtained through questionnaires are more objective as they are not subjected to the researcher's influence. Such influence could dominantly come into play in such cases as interviews.

These advantages presented in Mdingi (1999) were found by the researcher to be the advantages of the questionnaires prevalent in this study. The same applied to the disadvantages.

#### **3.4.5. DISADVANTAGES OF QUESTIONNAIRES**

It was indicated earlier on that the questionnaires do have disadvantages, though not so numerous of them have been identified. However various scholars have in their works taken it upon themselves to investigate the disadvantages of questionnaires. They did come up with some disadvantages though not so numerous of them. These disadvantages are discussed below:

- It is extremely difficult to formulate a series of questions whose meaning is crystal clear to every reader.

- Responding to the questionnaires is voluntary on the part of the respondents. There is no means by which the researcher can ensure that respondents cooperate and respond to the questions, to the best of their ability.

These disadvantages were particularly and carefully taken into consideration by the researcher during the construction of the questionnaires for this study. The questions were phrased as briefly as possible and to the point, and in a language that is simple to understand. Chances of ambiguity were minimized or rendered non-existent.

According to McMillan and Schumacher (1993:249), it is recommended that researchers conduct a pretest of their questionnaires before using them. The researcher in this study took this recommendation to its logical conclusion by doing as recommended. The intention was that the researcher wanted to know whether it would take too long to complete the questionnaires or whether the directions and items were clear (McMillan and Schumacher, 1993:250).

As argued by McMillan and Schumacher (1993), if there are enough pretest subjects, pretesting could enable an estimate of reliability to be calculated. This brings in the question of the reliability and validity of the questionnaires used in the study. It is in the next section that these will be discussed in details, and as discussed and presented by various scholars who have endeavored to study them in their works.

### **3.5. THE VALIDITY AND THE RELIABILITY OF THE QUESTIONNAIRES**

All social researchers want their measures to be reliable and valid. The reliability and validity are important in order to establish truthfulness, credibility or believability in the findings of the researcher. (Neumann, 2000:164). Now each of the two concepts, the concepts of validity, and reliability, will be discussed below in details.

#### **3.5.1. VALIDITY**

As argued by Vadum and Rankin (1998:16), validity is concerned with what the test measures and how well it does so. It tells us what can be inferred from test scores. Buchler and Puttergill (1997: 70) conceive of validity in questionnaires as referring to the appropriateness of a particular measurement to a theoretical construct. Bell (1999:104) argues that validity has to do with the question of whether a measuring instrument will measure what it ought to measure or not. Therefore, it may be defined thus: Validity is a judgment of the appropriateness of a measure for specific inferences or decisions that result from the scores that are generated. In other words, validity is a situation- specific concept: validity is dependent on the purpose, population, and a situational factor in which measurement takes place. A test, questionnaires, or other measures can therefore be valid in one situation and invalid in another (McMillan and Schumacher, 1993:167) Scholars who endeavor to study validity argue that there are various types of it. They are discussed below.

## **(i) TYPES OF VALIDITY**

Having acquired the understanding that validity is a situation- specific concept; one would not be perplexed to discover that there are different types of validity. Ary et al. (1972: 170) present three different types of validity, and Mdingi (1999:31) cherishes the idea. These are:

**(A) Content validity:** This is the degree to which a test samples the content area which is to be measured.

**(B) Construct validity:** This pertains to the extent to which the test measures a specific trait; like intelligence, attitudes, and others.

**(C) Criterion validity:** This refers to the relationship between the scores on a measuring instrument and an independent variable. The independent variable being the criterion which is believed to measure directly the behavior or characteristic that is under investigation (Mdingi, 1999:31). Such a criterion should be relevant and reliable, and free from bias and contamination.

These types of validity all work together to produce questionnaires that are characterized by balanced validity. They guide the researcher when designing the questionnaires. If the researcher ensures that his or her questionnaires have content validity, construct validity, and criterion validity; he or she can be sure of that his or her questionnaires are valid.

In this study, when the questionnaires were constructed, every effort was made to ensure that: the content of the questions best sampled the content area which was to be measured, and the relevant specific traits within the content area measured were adequately measured, and the criterion used was reliable and free from bias and contamination as much as it was possible. In a nut shell, every effort was made to ensure that the questionnaires that were to be used in this study were valid.

### **3.5.2. RELIABILITY**

Reliability is the extent to which a test or procedure produces similar results under constant conditions on all occasions (Bell, 1999: 103). In other words, reliability refers to the consistency of scores obtained by the same person when reexamined with the same test on different occasions (Vadum and Rankin, 1998: 16). In short, one may say then that reliability has to do with consistency and dependability.

Every researcher would like his or her survey to be reliable. It should have consistency and dependability. So, it is necessary that the researcher must be able to estimate how far reliable the questionnaires being constructed are. Therefore, it is important for the researcher to have a good understanding of the methods of estimating reliability that one may use. From the various methods that are available, the researcher may choose the one or even a combination that is most suitable for his or her case. Ary et al. (1972:201) present four methods in which reliability may be measured or estimated.

### **(i) METHODS OF ESTIMATING RELIABILITY**

**(A) Test - retest reliability:** Here consistency is estimated by comparing two or more repeated administrations of the measuring instrument. This gives an indication of the dependability of the results on one occasion and on other occasions (van den Aardweg and van den Aardweg, 1990:194).

**(B) Equivalent form reliability:** This is used if it is probable for the subjects to still recall their responses in the first administration if the same test is given to the same group. The results of equivalent forms of the test administered to the same individuals are correlated.

**(C) Split - half reliability:** By correlating the results obtained from two halves of the same measuring instrument, one can calculate the split-half reliability. (van den Aardweg and van den Aardweg, 1990: 194)

**(D) Kuder - Richardson Reliability:** Here reliability is estimated by establishing how all items on the test related to all other items and to the test as a whole.

From the above discussion of the concept "reliability", it is clear that in essence reliability refers to consistency. However, this does not guarantee truthfulness. The

reliability of the questionnaires is no proof that the answers reflect the respondents' true feelings (Dane, 1990: 256). This observation is of the utmost importance and deserves definite attention from the researcher. If a researcher were to ignore it, the research exercise would be characterized by prevalent inconsistency and untruths

During the administration of the questionnaires there are factors that come into play. Some of the factors may be detrimental to the exercise. It is important for the researcher, therefore, to be absolutely mindful of such factors. Kidder and Judd (1986:45) call such factors “sources of error” These are the factors that affect the administration of the questionnaires in a negative way. So, the researcher must have a good understanding of them. Hence they are discussed in details below:

- Fluctuations in the mood or alertness of respondents because of factors like illness, fatigue, recent good or bad experiences and other factors, and/or temporary differences amongst members of the group being measured.
- Variations in the conditions of administration between groups. These range from various distractions, such as unusual noise outside, to inconsistencies in the administration of the measuring instrument, such as omissions.
- Differences in the scoring or interpretation of results. These include chance differences in what the observer notices, and errors in computing scores.

- Random effect by respondents who guess or check off attitude as alternatives without trying to understand them.

Having understood the whole discussion on reliability, the researcher ensured that the Kuder- Richardson reliability as discussed above was observed. Apart from that was emphasized the confidentiality and anonymity of the questionnaires. The researcher believes that respondents would most likely be more honest and frank in their responses if their identity would not be disclosed; and this was an attempt to ensure truthfulness.

### **3.6. PRETESTING**

According to McMillan and Schumacher (1993:249), it is highly recommended that researchers conduct a pretest of their questionnaires before using them in studies. The researcher in this study observed this recommendation and this was executed in the following way:

Out of the twenty-one secondary schools in the Pongola circuit that were not part of the sample, another ten were randomly selected in the same way in which the sample was selected. One copy of the questionnaires was submitted to each of the schools identified. The researcher personally submitted the copies of the questionnaires and in each case an arrangement was made with the schools' authorities on when to return to fetch the completed questionnaires.

The schools' authorities were requested to randomly pick one educator, from their schools to complete the questionnaires. The researcher in each case emphasized the need for randomization in picking such educators. Then the researcher left it to the schools authorities to work through this using their discretion. The pretesting exercise was conducted for the following reasons:

- To be able to decide on the feasibility of the study and whether or not it is worthwhile to continue engaging in it.
- To permit a preliminary testing of the hypothesis. This might give some indication of its tenability or whether further refinement was needed.
- To provide a chance for unforeseen problems to appear, and so that they might be solved at such an early stage.

Out of the pretesting exercise the researcher found out that the study was feasible and worthwhile. The hypothesis was tried out with positive results, and there were no major problems that needed to be solved. Hence the stage was set for the full blown study to commence.

### **3.7. THE ADMINISTRATION OF THE QUESTIONNAIRES**

The researcher personally visited all the schools that were part of the sample and discussed the matter with the schools' authorities, who in most cases, were the principals and in a few cases were the vice principals. The authorities agreed that they would distribute the questionnaires to the educators and arrange with them on when the educators would return the completed questionnaires to them (the authorities). The researcher and the schools authorities agreed on dates on which the researcher would return to fetch the completed questionnaires from the schools' authorities, who would have collected the completed questionnaires from the educators in the schools.

As stated earlier on, the questionnaires were predominantly closed in nature. The respondents were forced to choose from given alternatives that which best represented their views, in relation to specific written statements. They had to indicate by means of a cross in the correct square whether they: agree; strongly agree; disagree; strongly disagree; or uncertain, with a given statement. Twenty-five of the twenty-seven questions had to be responded to in this way.

The remaining two questions were open-ended in form, which means they allowed a greater freedom of response from the participants. Merriam et al. (1984:130) argue that they (the questions) have an advantage of eliciting wide latitude of possible responses from

the participants. This is unlike in the case of closed-ended questions where the participants are forced to choose from alternatives that have been predetermined for them by the researcher in responding to the questions.

It is not surprising, therefore, that in responding to the open-ended questions, the respondents most probably come up with information that the researcher would never have anticipated. This is so because the respondents are allowed to respond to such questions in their unique ways and approaches. Discovering more and more facts around the phenomenon of the researcher's interest is all what research is about.

It is clear, therefore, that in a research exercise or rather in a survey, open-ended questions make a major and valuable contribution. It was for this reason that the researcher included the two open-ended questions in the questionnaires that were used in this study, and also in anticipation to obtaining information that the researcher had never anticipated (Merriam and Simpson ,1984).

It needs to be mentioned at this point that a total of 130 questionnaires were distributed to educators in 10 secondary schools. A total of 100 were returned completed, the rest were not returned, which means 23% were not returned. According to McMillan and Schumacher (1993), the 23% would not have a decisive influence on the findings; it would have such an influence if it was above 30%. So the exercise continued.

### **3.8. DATA ANALYSIS**

Once data have been gathered, they must be analyzed and interpreted so that they become meaningful and useful information. So, the data that were gathered during this study had to undergo the analysis and interpretation process. They were not subjected to statistical analysis though. Frequencies and tables were used to analyze them (the data) manually.

### **3.9. CONCLUSION**

The researcher finds it appropriate to state that when the questionnaires are used as an empirical research instrument, there is no specific method used to determine their reliability. Therefore, it is difficult to establish the extent to which the answers of the respondents are reliable. However, the researcher believes that the questionnaires in this investigation, were completed with the necessary honesty and sincerity required to render the maximum possible reliability. Frankness in responding to the questions was made possible by the anonymity of the questionnaires. In the coding, it was evident that the questionnaires had been completed with the necessary dedication.

The objective of this chapter was to discuss the methodology and the design of this research exercise. Hence the following issues were discussed in detail:

- Approaches to research.
- Preparations and the design of the research.
- The research instrument.
- The validity and reliability of the (questionnaires) instrument.
- Pretesting the research instrument (the questionnaires)
- The administration of the questionnaires.

## CHAPTER FOUR

### THE ANALYSIS AND INTREPRETATION OF DATA

#### 4.1. INTRODUCTION

To the researcher, evidence is data. That means data are results obtained from research from which interpretations or conclusions are drawn. Therefore in a general sense, the terms data, sources, and evidence are used synonymously, meaning information obtained by research methods (McMillan and Schumacher, 1993: 11). It is clear now that after data have been gathered, they undergo the analysis and interpretation processes. It is a necessary step that after data have been gathered they should be analyzed and interpreted because it is through analysis and interpretation that the data become meaningful information that can be used in decision-making processes.

According to Wehmeier (2000:36) the term analysis means a detailed study or examination of a phenomenon in order to understand more about it. In this case it is data collected that must be analyzed. During the analysis process, data are divided into relevant parts or units, and chunks of meaning, within a holistic perspective (McMillan and Schumacher, 1993:111). This is made necessary by the fact that the human mind is not able to process large amounts of diverse content all at once. The analyst, therefore,

concentrates on sets of smaller and similar materials at any given time. However, intensive analysis usually begins with reading all the data to gain a sense of the whole, which facilitates the interpretation of the smaller units of the data. The main goal then becomes the emergence of a larger comprehensive picture within the design limitations. Segmenting the data into smaller units or into smaller chunks of meaning, therefore, enables efficient analysis and interpretation.

The concept of interpretation deserves attention because it is of importance at this stage. Wehmeier (2000:627) states that to interpret is to decide that a phenomenon has a particular meaning and to understand it as such. This means that the process of interpretation turns data into meaningful information. It is the information that may be useful as a basis for making decisions pertaining to classroom culture in schools.

The main aim of this chapter is to analyze and interpret the data that were collected during the survey. Questionnaires were used as a data-gathering instrument. It is for purposes of this exercise that the concepts of the analysis and interpretation of data will be understood as discussed above.

## 4.2. ANALYSIS AND INTERPRETATION OF THE DATA

### 4.2.1. EDUCATOR PREPAREDNESS

#### 4.2.1.1. Educators prepare for lessons.

Table 4 (i)

| AGREE | STRONGLY AGREE | DISAGREE | STRONGLY DISAGREE | UNCERTAIN |
|-------|----------------|----------|-------------------|-----------|
| 57    | 29             | 10       | —                 | 04        |
| 57%   | 29%            | 10%      | —                 | 04%       |

According to Kellough and Roberts (1998: 167), effective teaching does not just happen, but is brought about by careful planning of each phase of the learning process. To teach effectively, educators must prepare for every minute of every class. This planning takes place during the proactive phase of instruction. This is an indication that without careful and thorough lesson-planning there can be no educative teaching and learning. As a consequence thereof, lesson- planning is of incalculable importance in the creation of a classroom culture that is conducive.

Notably, according to table 4 (i) above 10% of the educators disagrees that educators prepare for lessons. So, these educators do not plan for their lessons. This may most likely have far-reaching consequences even to the extent of watering down the good work and

effort of a notable portion of those educators that does the necessary planning for the lessons, that is, the 57% who agrees and the 29% who strongly agrees that educators do the necessary planning of their lessons. The 4% that is uncertain may be constituted by educators who are inconsistent in planning their lessons, sometimes they do and sometimes they do not.

#### 4.2.1.2. The educators' lessons are interactive with learners,

Table 4 (ii)

| AGREE | STRONGLY AGREE | DISAGREE | STRONGLY DISAGREE | UNCERTAIN |
|-------|----------------|----------|-------------------|-----------|
| 50    | 34             | 4        | 1                 | 11        |
| 50%   | 34%            | 4%       | 1%                | 11%       |

The principles of Curriculum 2005 define an educator as a facilitator of teaching and learning on the one hand and on the other hand a learner is defined as an active participant in the process of learning. To facilitate learning, an educator designs and gives to learners educational tasks. The educational tasks make the learners to do research and look for facts that help solve specific problems in education. Then they give feedback to the educator who assesses the findings, measuring them against stated assessment criteria and performance indicators.

Purkey and Smith (1983:179) argue that in effective schools many students hold positions of responsibility. They are also encouraged to take responsibility for their own learning. Through involvement they learn to organize, to plan, to participate in decision-making processes, and acquire leadership skills. This, according to Highet (1968:52-3), fixes a broad outline of the learners' work in their minds more firmly and allows grand general ideas to germinate in them. As a result it often stimulates them to suggest further work in a direction that educators would not have anticipated. Educators have to realize the ideal classroom culture that is created in this way.

In table 4 (ii), 4% of the educators disagree that lessons are interactive with learners, and another 1% strongly disagree. These are the educators whose lessons do not engage learners. Their lessons are counter to creating a positive atmosphere of achieving. It can be inferred that there are some educators who are uncertain whether their lessons are interactive with the learners or not, 11 % of the educators belongs to this group. This means that if their lessons happen to engage learners, it is by coincidence.

Notably 50% of the educators agree with the statement whilst another 34% strongly agree, together they total up to 84%. This indicates that such a percentage of educators conduct lessons that engage the learners in educational tasks. This characterizes their lessons with a positive atmosphere of achieving. It is desirable that the educators who are not part of the 84% should come on board.

#### 4.2.1.3. Educators provide themselves as role-models to learners.

Table 4 (iii)

| AGREE | STRONGLY AGREE | DISAGREE | STRONGLY DISAGREE | UNCERTTAIN |
|-------|----------------|----------|-------------------|------------|
| 44    | 41             | 8        | 5                 | 2          |
| 44%   | 41%            | 8%       | 5%                | 2%         |

It is noted in table 4 (iii) that 44% of the educators perceives and acknowledges role modeling as a very important aspect of their teaching, and 41 % feels very strongly infavour of it. The 13% of the educators feels that educators do not pose as role-models to learners, of the 13%, 8% disagrees and 5% strongly disagrees. Such educators do not pose as role-models to the learners. The remaining 2% is uncertain which means even though they are not against role-modeling they have nonetheless not made any committed to it.

Mdingi (1999:36) argues that consistent role-modeling is one way of maintaining culture in an organization. Educators and individuals who have performed well in the past can serve as role-models to learners as well as newcomers. Thus, educators who pose as role-models effectively maintain the culture of the schools. The school culture is the fundamental shaper of classroom culture, and the two are closely intertwined. Educators who have excelled in aspects such as professionalism, discipline, dedication, integrity, and others; could pose as role-models in those aspects; and thus maintain and promote these aspects in the classroom culture. Role-models symbolize success and they are a source of inspiration and will encourage learners to do likewise (Mdingi, 1999:36).

#### 4.2.1.4. Educators exemplify the norms and values of the school.

Table 4 (iv)

| AGREE | STRONGLY<br>AGREE | DISAGREE | STRONGLY<br>DISAGREE | UNCERTAIN |
|-------|-------------------|----------|----------------------|-----------|
| 53    | 29                | 4        | 4                    | 10        |
| 53%   | 29%               | 4%       | 4%                   | 10%       |

van der Westhuizen (1991:620) defines norms as criteria, prescriptions or rules concerning what is proper within a certain cultural community. Norms, therefore, are specific values which have been internalized to personal prescriptions. They prescribe certain behavior and allow some forms of behavior while forbidding others.

It is the duty of educators to inculcate the norms and values of the school into the learners. To be able to do that, the educators first must accept these norms and values, and then adhere to them. Once this has happened, learners can learn from the educators to do the same. Hence educators need to be exemplary to the learners, and be seen to practise what they preach. It is the norms and values that shape the culture of the school, which in turn fundamentally shapes classroom culture in the school. Table 4 (iv) shows that 82% of the educators agrees that educators exemplify the norms and values of schools to the learners, 29% of whom strongly agrees.

A sum of 4% of the educators disagrees and another 4% strongly disagrees that educators exemplify the norms and values of the schools to learners. Educators like those should learn that educators communicate their expectations of learners through verbal and non-verbal cues. It is well established that these expectations affect the interaction between the educators and the learners (Ornstein, 1990:543). It is important that all educators accept and adhere to the norms and values of their schools. This is because adherence to the norms and values is one way of maintaining the culture of the schools, which forms the basis of classroom culture.

**4.2.1.5. Educators are approachable to learners.**

Table 4 (v)

| AGREE | STRONGLY AGREE | DISAGREE | STRONGLY DISAGREE | UNCERTAIN |
|-------|----------------|----------|-------------------|-----------|
| 49    | 38             | 6        | 1                 | 6         |
| 49%   | 38%            | 6%       | 1%                | 6%        |

49% of the educators agrees that educators are approachable to learners whilst 38% strongly agrees. 6% disagrees, another 1% strongly disagrees, and 6% is uncertain. That they are uncertain means that they do not see educators as being approachable to learners even though they are not sure that the opposite is the case.

All educators must remain approachable to learners at all times. This is in line with Spaulding's (1992:65) assertion that the first goal of educators should be to build a positive, friendly, and supportive relationship with the learners. Educators are, therefore, advised that during the first weeks of schooling, they must make special efforts to show the learners that they are interested in them as people and that they are people that the learners can trust to be available and supportive whenever they need help of any sort (Spaulding, 1992:66).

This perfectly creates conditions that are conducive for creating and sustaining a classroom culture that permits educative teaching and learning. Trusting the educator makes learners believe in the educator and be ready to work with him or her with commitment and dedication, and taking full responsibility for their education. An effective classroom culture then results.

**4.2.1.6. Educators exercise authority over learners.**

Table 4 (vi)

| AGREE | STRONGLY AGREE | DISAGREE | STRONGLY DISAGREE | UNCERTAIN |
|-------|----------------|----------|-------------------|-----------|
| 46    | 35             | 6        | 6                 | 7         |
| 46%   | 35%            | 6%       | 6%                | 7%        |

On the subject of educators exercising authority over learners, Ornstein (1990:57) argues that in order to be able to teach, one must be able to manage his or her learners. No matter how much potential one has as an educator, if one is unable to control his or her learners in his or her classroom, little or no learning will take place.

Kyriacou (1986: 130) asserts that the prime task of the educator is to organize and manage the learners' learning. That involves exercising control over the learning activities and the learners. It is of the utmost importance that learners accept the teacher's authority otherwise effective teaching is likely to be undermined (Kyriacou, 1986:136),

In table 4 (vi) 12% of the educators disagrees that educators do exercise authority over learners, half of whom disagrees strongly. This means that there are so many instances in which effective teaching and learning is undermined, which means that there are so many instances where very little or no educative teaching and learning takes place. This is a real cause for concern. 7% of the educators is uncertain, which means they are not sure whether educators do exercise authority over the learners or not. It is encouraging that 46% agrees, and 35% strongly agrees that educators do exercise authority over learners. It would be good if all educators successfully exercised authority over the learners. This would enable them to remain in charge of classroom culture in their schools.

#### 4.2.1. 7. Educators keep learners informed about the vision of the school.

Table 4 (vii)

| AGREE | STRONGLY AGREE | DISAGREE | STRONGLY DISAGREE | UNCERTAIN |
|-------|----------------|----------|-------------------|-----------|
| 43    | 39             | 9        | 5                 | 4         |
| 43%   | 39%            | 9%       | 5%                | 4%        |

Table 4 (vii) shows that 82% of the educators agrees that educators keep learners informed about the visions of schools, 9% of the educators disagrees and 5% disagrees strongly. The remaining 4% is uncertain. It is important that the visions of the schools be clearly communicated to learners as they are major and active stakeholders in the activities of the schools. It is through the learners that the schools are able to realize their visions. This will enable both the educators and learners to establish classroom culture consistent with the visions.

Beare et al. (1989:99) defines a vision as a mental picture of a preferred future, which is shared with all the stakeholders in the school community, and shapes the programme for learning and teaching, as well as policies, priorities, and plans and procedures pervading the day-to-day life of the school. On the one hand all learners must, therefore, be kept adequately informed about the vision of their school. On the other hand all educators should take it upon themselves to ensure that this happens.

#### 4.2.1.8. Educators treat learners with the due respect and dignity.

Table 4 (viii)

| AGREE | STRONGLY<br>AGREE | DISAGREE | STRONGLY<br>DISAGREE | UNCERTAIN |
|-------|-------------------|----------|----------------------|-----------|
| 46    | 37                | 10       | 1                    | 6         |
| 46%   | 37%               | 10%      | 1%                   | 6%        |

From table 4(viii) one notes that 83% of the educators agrees that learners are treated with respect and dignity by educators, 11% disagrees and 6% is uncertain. The 83% is made of 46% of the educators who agrees and 37% who strongly agrees. This shows that there are some educators who do not treat learners with respect and dignity. That could have permanent adverse effects on the lives of such learners.

Purkey and Novak (1984:45) argue that whatever else a school should be, it should not be a place where people are embarrassed, insulted or humiliated. If there are policies, practices or programs that cannot be performed in accordance with respectful treatment or if there are faculties or staff who cannot or will not function in a consistently respectful manner; they should not be in schools. This means that demeaning school practices such as public ridicule, invidious comparisons, deliberate humiliation, and corporal punishment must be eliminated if a school is to consider itself personally and professionally inviting (Purkey and Novak, 1984:46).

This argument means that it is important for all educators in all schools to treat all learners with respect and dignity at all times. That enables both educators and learners to create and to establish a classroom culture that permits effective teaching and learning. This is a compulsory task for educators.

**4.2.1.9. The educator / learner relationship is healthy.**

Table 4 (ix)

| AGREE | STRONGLY AGREE | DISAGREE | STRONGLY DISAGREE | UNCERTAIN |
|-------|----------------|----------|-------------------|-----------|
| 48    | 21             | 16       | 2                 | 13        |
| 48%   | 21%            | 16%      | 2%                | 13%       |

It should be kept in mind that ‘the first goal of educators should be to build a positive, friendly, supportive relationship with learners. In doing so, the goal is not being feared by the learners, nor becoming their friend. However, the goal is to become a reliable and trusted adult in their lives’ (Spaulding, 1992:65)

48% of the educators agrees that educator / learner relationships are healthy and 21% strongly agrees. 16% of the educators disagrees and 2% strongly disagrees. This provides at least an estimation of the educators who have unhealthy relationships with learners. Educators and learners should recognize each other as individuals, hold each other in

esteem, and treat each other in a manner that is acceptable to both. This is a pre-condition for the existence of a positive classroom culture. The relationships between educators and learners are of great importance in creating a positive classroom culture (Kyriacou, 1986:180). 13% of the educators is uncertain on this matter. It is rather outlandish of them that they are not sure of the nature of their relationships with the learners that they teach.

**4.2.1.10. Educators conduct lessons in a professional manner.**

Table 4 (x)

| AGREE | STRONGLY AGREE | DISAGREE | STRONGLY DISAGREE | UNCERTAIN |
|-------|----------------|----------|-------------------|-----------|
| 50    | 38             | 4        |                   | 6         |
| 50%   | 38%            | 4%       | 2%                | 6%        |

Prinsloo and du Plessis (1988) argue that an educator is a professional, which means that he or she is a person who educates for gain. Therefore, he or she must have a particular knowledge of education, which includes knowledge of his or her own rights and duties, as well as knowledge of the rights and duties of parents and children. As a professional, an educator is obliged to give the best of himself or herself and to the satisfaction of the employer, because he or she is paid for that.

Table 4 (x) shows that 88% of the educators agrees that educators conduct lessons in a professional manner. In the 88%, 50% agrees and 38% strongly agrees. 6% of the

educators disagrees; and it is made up of 4% who disagrees and 2% who strongly disagrees. The 6% of the educators are those who do not conduct their lessons professionally. The remaining 6% of the educators is uncertain. These do not perceive themselves to be conducting their lessons professionally, even though they also do not see themselves conducting their lessons unprofessionally. This means that they disregard all or some of their rights and duties, and those of learners and parents.

#### 4.2.2. CLASSROOM MANAGEMENT

##### 4.2.2. Educators teach learners to take responsibility for their learning.

Table 4 (xi)

| AGREE | STRONGLY AGREE | DISAGREE | STRONGLY DISAGREE | UNCERTAIN |
|-------|----------------|----------|-------------------|-----------|
| 43    | 48             | 3        | 3                 | 3         |
| 43%   | 48%            | 3%       | 3%                | 3%        |

As argued by Purkey and Smith (1983: 179) in effective schools many students hold positions of responsibility. They are also encouraged to take responsibility for their own learning. Maughan and Ouston (1979: 19) hold the same view in this regard. It is evidenced by their assertion that one of the characteristics of early good schools was that students were expected to take responsibility for the day-to-day matters in their schools.

Table 4 (xi) shows that 43 % of the educators agrees that they teach learners to take responsibility for their learning and 48% agrees strongly, together they total to 91%. The Outcomes Based Education (OBE) as an approach to education in South Africa, requires

that learners organize and manage themselves and their activities and responsibilities, and effectively collect, analyze, organize and critically evaluate information, and thus be fully responsible for their learning. Seeing that only 3% of the educators disagrees and another 3% of the educators disagrees strongly, and that only another 3% is uncertain, one hopes that in a not so distant future these educators will join the 91 % and 100% of the educators will take up the responsibility, so that 100% of the learners take full responsibility for their own learning.

**4.2.2.2. Educators provide support to learners in their educational needs.**

Table 4 (xii)

| AGREE | STRONGLY AGREE | DISAGREE | STRONGLY DISAGREE | UNCERTAIN |
|-------|----------------|----------|-------------------|-----------|
| 40    | 40             | 11       | 1                 | 8         |
| 40%   | 40%            | 11%      | 1%                | 8%        |

80% of the educators agrees that they support learners in their educational needs, half of whom agrees strongly; and 12% disagrees, 1% of whom strongly disagrees. It is inferred, therefore, that 12% of the learners do not find support from their educators or rather that learners find 80% of the support that they need from their educators. This is in the light of the fact that 8% of the educators is uncertain whether it does this or not.

This is quite undesirable in Outcomes Based Education. Shutter and Shooter (2006) argue that, when they facilitate learning, educators use a variety of methods of instruction to help each learner to learn Every learner is assisted to succeed but at their own pace. It is

therefore hard to understand how it happens that educators at times, although they are professionals, fail to support learners in their educational needs if it is not that they fail in their duties and responsibilities as facilitators of learning. This study observes that if educators help learners in their educational needs, the result can inter alia be positive relationships of mutual acceptance and trust culminating into a classroom culture strongly characterized by such characteristics.

#### 4.2.2.3. Educators facilitate team activity among learners.

Table 4 (xiii)

| AGREE | STRONGLY<br>AGREE | DISAGREE | STRONGLY<br>DISAGREE | UNCERTAIN |
|-------|-------------------|----------|----------------------|-----------|
| 47    | 42                | 6        | 2                    | 3         |
| 47%   | 42%               | 6%       | 2%                   | 3%        |

Team activity is normally called group work. 47% of the educators agrees that they facilitate it, and 42% strongly agrees, 8 % disagrees, 2% disagrees strongly, and 3% is uncertain. Team activity can be very much effective in facilitating teaching and learning if properly implemented. Mdingi (1999) argues that team activity is of great value in creating classroom culture. Its value is expressed in the following ways:

- It creates a climate in which learners can work with a sense of security and self - confidence.

- It facilitates the growth of understanding by offering the optimum opportunity for parents to talk reflectively with each other.
- It promotes a spirit of co-operation and mutual respect.

In addition:

- It ensures that learners are active participants in learning.

This shows that team activity, normally called group work, is of great value and makes an incalculable contribution to classroom culture.

#### 2.2.4., Educators engage in creating a classroom culture that is conducive to learning

Table 4 (xiv)

| AGREE | STRONGLY AGREE | DISAGREE | STRONGLY DISAGREE | UNCERTAIN |
|-------|----------------|----------|-------------------|-----------|
| 43    | 47             | 5        | 1                 | 4         |
| 43%   | 47%            | 5%       | 1%                | 4%        |

90% of the educators agrees that educators engage in creating a classroom culture that is conducive to learning. 47% of the 90% strongly agrees. 6% disagrees 1% of whom disagrees strongly, and 4% is uncertain. It may be inferred that those educators who are uncertain are not committed to creating a classroom culture that is conducive to teaching and learning even though they are not against it.

It is worth reiterating in Fenstermacher and Soltis' (2004:11) terms that educators must determine what learners are to be taught and then figure out how to get it across to the learners. This involves figuring out motivational devices which might be used to interest the learners and keep them engaged for the duration of the lesson period. Furthermore, the educator should figure out what classroom structure will best contribute to successful instruction in each case. This is direct engagement in creating an efficient classroom culture.

In doing these, the educator is engaged in creating a classroom culture that is conducive to teaching and learning. It is apparent that if the educator does not do these, the result is a classroom climate (culture) that does not permit educative teaching and learning. If an educator fails to create such a culture, it may be inferred that he or she is failing in his or her duties and responsibilities as a professional educator.

This is the case with the 6% of the educators who disagrees with the assertion that educators engage in creating a classroom culture that is conducive to teaching and learning. Educators must learn to understand that life in the classroom needs to reflect the basic requirements of a good education system in terms of: space, equipment, teaching resources and or a healthy moral and social environment (Mdingi, 1999:43). The classroom and what goes on in it have effects on the learners. The uncertain 4% of the educators must get out of the state of uncertainty and engage in creating a classroom culture that promotes educative teaching and learning.

**4.2.2.5. Educators have realistic expectations of learners.**

Table 4 (xv)

| AGREE | STRONGLY AGREE | DISAGREE | STRONGLY DISAGREE | UNCERTAIN |
|-------|----------------|----------|-------------------|-----------|
| 49    | 35             | 6        | 3                 | <u>1</u>  |
| 49%   | 35%            | 6%       | 3%                | <u>1</u>  |

It is worth reiterating in Purkey and Smith's (1983:178) terms that in effective schools principals and educators believe in the potential of their learners, and that they set standards that are high, yet attainable to the learners. That the standards are attainable to learners means that such standards are realistic. Wehmeier (2000:97:1) holds the same view that the term realistic means sensible and appropriate, and possible to achieve.

According to table 4 (xv) on the one hand 84% of the educators agrees that they have realistic expectations of their learners. This percentage is made up of 35% who strongly agrees and 49% who just agrees. On the other hand, 9% of the educators disagrees and 3% of them disagrees strongly while 6% just disagrees. These do not see the expectations of the learners by educators to be realistic or rather they do not see any expectations of the learners by educators.

Educators need to realize that such expectations are of the utmost importance to learners. Prophesying low achievement for learners not only provides educators with an excuse for their learners' failure, but also communicates a sense of inevitable failure to the learners (Ornstein, 1990:543). All educators must, therefore, be conscious of their expectations of their learners lest they become detrimental. Hence there is no justification for the 7% of the educators who are uncertain.

**4.2.2.6. Educators create an environment in which learners feel safe and secure.**

Table 4 (xvi)

| AGREE | STRONGLY AGREE | DISAGREE | STRONGLY DISAGREE | UNCERTAIN |
|-------|----------------|----------|-------------------|-----------|
| 47    | 41             | 6        | -                 | 6         |
| 47%   | 41%            | 6%       | -                 | 6%        |

Table 4 (xvi) shows that 88% of the educators feels that educators do create an environment in which learners feel safe and secure. 41% of the 88% strongly agrees and 47% just agrees. 6% disagrees, and 6% is uncertain. It is inferred in this table that the uncertain 6%, does not make any conscious effort to create an environment that makes learners feel safe and secure. As regards the matter of the safety of learners in schools, van der Westhuizen (1991: 118) argues that it is the task of the educational leader to create a safe and stimulating school and learning climate in which the staff and pupils may be stimulated to productivity. Educators are the people who deal in direct contact persistently with learners; hence it is through them that the school principal can effect such an environment.

The educators have a duty to act responsibly and accountably. They, therefore, have to seek correct and applicable solutions to this problem of creating an environment in which learners feel safe and secure in schools. It is without any doubt that effective teaching and learning cannot happen within a threatening environment. So, educators therefore have to do their best in this regard. This means that a positive classroom culture can only survive and flourish in schools where and when learners feel safe and secure.

**4.2.2.7. Educators facilitate the sharing of problems with learners.**

Table 4 (xvii)

| AGREE | STRONGLY AGREE | DISAGREE | STRONGLY DISAGREE | UNCERTAIN |
|-------|----------------|----------|-------------------|-----------|
| 41    | 33             | 12       | 3                 | 11        |
| 41%   | 33%            | 12%      | 3%                | 11%       |

At this point one needs to reiterate Spaulding’s (1992:66) assertion that during the first few weeks of school the educator should make special efforts to show the learners that he or she is interested in them as people, and that he or she is someone they can trust to be available and supportive whenever they need help of any sort. It is inferred that learners must be assured that if they meet any problems of any sort they can look up to the educator for assistance in finding solutions.

Table 4 (xvii) indicates that, on the one hand, 74% of the educators agrees that they

facilitate the sharing of problems with learners, of whom 33% strongly agrees and 41% just agrees. They present themselves to the learners as reliable and trustworthy adults. On the other hand, 15% of the educators disagrees that they (educators) facilitate the sharing of problems with the learners, and 11 % is uncertain. In schooling situations various problems arise. The educators should put themselves in appropriate positions to be able to deal with them (the problems) effectively. This means that educators must always be aware that they have a duty to facilitate the sharing of the problems with learners, which calls for them to present themselves to the learners as discussed above.

**4.2.2.8. Educators set and communicate to learners, clear and achievable objectives for each lesson.**

Table 4 (xviii)

| AGREE | STRONGLY AGREE | DISAGREE | STRONGLY DISAGREE | UNCERTAIN |
|-------|----------------|----------|-------------------|-----------|
| 48    | 30             | 11       | 3                 | 8         |
| 48%   | 30%            | 11%      | 3%                | 8%        |

Ornstein (1990:213) defines learning objectives as descriptions of what is to eventually take place at the classroom level. They specify content and sometimes the proficiency level to be attained. They specify the skills, tasks, content, and attitudes to be taught and learned. In addition, they give educators and learners a standard by which to judge whether they are achieving or not. In other words objectives enable the creation of an effective classroom culture when properly set and when they are realistic. This is because everybody knows

what they must do during the lesson. In table 4 (xviii), 48% of the educators agrees that educators set and communicate to learners clear and achievable objectives for each lesson; while 30% strongly agrees. 11% of the educators disagrees, 3% disagrees strongly, and 8% is uncertain. In the researcher's view, educators should learn that it is important to set and communicate to learners clear and meaningful objectives. No matter what its nature is, the statement of objectives in terms of desired outcomes sets the scope and limits for what is to be taught and learned. (Ornstein, 1990:214)

**4.2.2.9. Educators provide prompt and meaningful feedback to learners after lesson activities.**

Table 4 (xix)

| AGREE | STRONGLY AGREE | DISAGREE | STRONGLY DISAGREE | UNCERTAIN |
|-------|----------------|----------|-------------------|-----------|
| 46    | 27             | 19       | 1                 | 7         |
| 46%   | 27%            | 19%      | 1%                | 7%        |

Table 4 (xix) shows that 46% of the educators agrees that educators provide meaningful feedback to learners and 27% agrees strongly. 19% of the educators disagrees, 1% strongly disagrees, and 7% is uncertain. The educators must realize that providing feedback to learners is of the utmost importance, and thus compulsory. Ornstein (1990:89-90) defines feedback as a means to build self-awareness. It (feedback) tells learners what effects their actions are having on others. Ornstein (1990:90) further

argues that it is important for the educators to provide feedback that does not threaten the learners. The more threatened and defensive the learners become, the more likely it is that they will not understand the feedback correctly. Yet the importance of providing meaningful feedback to the learners must never be underestimated. Increasing a learner's self-awareness through feedback gives the learner the basis for making informed choices in future behavior (Ornstein, 1990:99). Providing meaningful feedback to learners, therefore, facilitates the learners' process of learning. This means that providing feedback to the learners contributes immensely to creating, sustaining, and promoting classroom culture.

**4.2.2.10. Educators do not permit behavior that will disturb their lessons.**

Table 4 (xx)

| AGREE | STRONGLY AGREE | DISAGREE | STRONGLY DISAGREE | UNCERTAIN |
|-------|----------------|----------|-------------------|-----------|
| 37    | 59             | 1        | 1                 | 2         |
| 37%   | 59%            | 1%       | 1%                | 2%        |

It is noted in table 4 (xx) that 96% of the educators agrees that they do not permit behavior that disturbs their lessons, of the 96%, 59% strongly agrees and only 2% disagrees, of whom 1% strongly disagrees, and the remaining 2% is uncertain. The situation is encouraging and it makes one hopeful that the 96% of the educators will have an overwhelming influence on the 4%, and the result will be that all educators will not permit behavior that disturbs their lessons.

A good way of preventing behavior that disturbs lessons is to keep learners fully engaged in educational tasks for the duration of the period. This allows no time for disruptive behavior or misconduct on the part of the learners. It is worth mentioning again that Kellough and Roberts (1998:167) argue that to teach effectively, educators must prepare for every minute of every class, as this will enable the educators to keep their learners engaged in educational tasks for every minute of every class, leaving no room for misbehavior.

This is a double-edged phenomenon because by keeping the learners fully engaged in educational tasks for every minute of every class, an educator ensures that educative teaching and learning happens at its best. Thus, to get rid of any discipline problems, the educator must therefore channel all his or her attention and effort to educative teaching and learning. A classroom culture that is ideal for educative teaching and learning prevails in such circumstances.

#### 4.2.3. PARENTAL INVOLVEMENT

##### 4.2.3.1. Parents are involved in the processes of decision-making in the schools.

Table 4 (xxi)

| AGREE | STRONGLY AGREE | DISAGREE | STRONGLY DISAGREE | UNCERTAIN |
|-------|----------------|----------|-------------------|-----------|
| 44    | 25             | 18       | 7                 | 6         |
| 44%   | 25%            | 18%      | 7%                | 6%        |

According to table 4(xxi), 69% of the educators agrees that parents are involved in processes of making decisions in schools, 25% of whom strongly agrees and 44% just agrees. 25 % of the educators disagrees, 7% of these disagrees strongly, and 6% is uncertain. From the point of view of this study, such status quo is undesirable and thus deserves definite attention. It is desirable that parents of all the learners should fully take part in making decisions in the schools. That is because decisions taken in the schools about the education of learners eventually have permanent effects in their lives (the learners' lives).

'The involvement of the child's family as an active participant is critical to the success of any education programme that is there. Educators and parents need to work together as partners in making decisions for the education of the learners. Such decisions definitely have permanent effects on the lives of the learners' (McConkey, 1985:20). Apart from that, the South African Schools Act No 84 of 1996 demands the establishment of school governing bodies which are adequately representative of the schools communities.

The governing bodies ensure a partnership between educators and parents in processes of decision-making. This is corroborated in Mdingi's (1999:40-41) assertion that schools cannot educate children alone, they need the support and the active collaboration of parents. Working cooperatively with parents enhances the maintenance of an appropriate classroom and school culture.

**4.2.3.2. Parents are involved in curriculum choices for their children.**

Table 4 (xxii)

| AGREE | STRONGLY<br>AGREE | DISAGREE | STRONGLY<br>DISAGREE | UNCERTAIN |
|-------|-------------------|----------|----------------------|-----------|
| 22    | 18                | 28       | 14                   | 18        |
| 22%   | 18%               | 28%      | 14%                  | 18%       |

With regards to the question of involving parents in the learners' curriculum choices, Clarke (1997) observes that the school community is responsible for the choice of the content of the curriculum for their school. The curriculum is to be planned by parents, educators, education authorities and learners. It is expected, therefore, that the curriculum responds to very specific community needs and wants. Thus McConkey (1985:45) views parents and educators as engaged in a partnership, and therefore, expects joint decision-making. Arguably, joint decision-making epitomizes a partnership in action. When one or the other partner starts making all decisions, the partnership has dissolved.

Table 4 (xxii) shows that only 40% of the educators agrees that parents are involved in curriculum choices for their children, and only 18% of the 40% of the educators agrees strongly and 22% just agrees. 42% of the educators disagrees and of these 14% strongly disagrees and 28% just disagrees, and 18% is uncertain. This shows far less support from parents than expected. That the parents are not committed to the learners' education triggers the same attitude among the learners, and classroom culture subsequently deteriorates. Educators have to work tirelessly to draw more and more support from parents.

**4.2.3.3. Parents show appreciation for their children's achievements.**

Table 4 (xxiii)

| AGREE | STRONGLY AGREE | DISAGREE | STRONGLY DISAGREE | UNCERTAIN |
|-------|----------------|----------|-------------------|-----------|
| 37    | 22             | 23       | 5                 | 13        |
| 37%   | 22%            | 23%      | 5%                | 13%       |

It is noted from table 4 (xxiii) that only 37% of the educators agrees that parents show appreciation for their children's achievements and 22% agrees strongly. 23% disagrees, 5% disagrees strongly, and 13% is uncertain. It is, therefore, worth noting once again Purkey and Smith's (1983: 179) assertion that all forms of praise, appreciation, and incentives have a positive impact on learners. Schools that make a point of publicly honoring academic achievement and stressing its importance encourage learners to perform well.

McConkey, 1985:45) argues that it is a joint responsibility of parents and educators to ensure that the learners' achievements are praised, honored, and appreciated. It is discouraging that only 59%, of the learners receive praise, appreciation and incentives from their parents, and about 28% of them (the learners) does not, and the 13% of the learners might be getting such praise, appreciation, and incentives incidentally, irregularly and in a non-meaningful way. This is inferred from table 4 (xxiii).

**4.2.3.4. Educators and parents communicate about the individual learner's academic progress.**

Table 4 (xxiv)

| AGREE | STRONGLY AGREE | DISAGREE | STRONGLY DISAGREE | UNCERTAIN |
|-------|----------------|----------|-------------------|-----------|
| 40    | 24             | 23       | 8                 | 5         |
| 40%   | 24%            | 23%      | 8%                | 5%        |

Table 4(xxiv) shows that 64% of the educators agrees that educators and parents communicate about the individual learner's academic progress and 24% agrees strongly. 23% of the educators disagrees while 8% disagrees strongly and 5% is uncertain. It is inferred that 31% of the parents do not appear to educators to be communicating with them about the individual learner's academic achievement. It is strange that the parents are content with being uninformed about their children's academic progress. In such cases educators should take up the challenge and rectify the situation, because it affects the culture of teaching and learning adversely and is ultimately detrimental to classroom culture.

**4.2.3.5. The relationship between parents and educators is healthy at all times.**

Table 4 (xxv)

| AGREE | STRONGLY AGREE | DISAGREE | STRONGLY DISAGREE | UNCERTAIN |
|-------|----------------|----------|-------------------|-----------|
| 22    | 20             | 36       | 10                | 12        |
| 22%   | 20%            | 36%      | 10%               | 12%       |

At this point reference must be made again to Purkey and Smith's (1983: 179) assertion that studies find parental involvement and support to be a major factor in the learner's achievements. According to McConkey (1985:45) parents and educators are partners in the education of the learners. It is imperative, therefore, that the relationships between parents and educators should be kept healthy at all times. In that way parental involvement and support in the education of learners is maintained, and thus the partnership is kept alive and effective.

According to table 4 (xxv) only 22% of the educators agrees that their relationships with the parents of the learners is healthy at all times, and only 20% agrees strongly. 36% just disagrees, 10% disagrees strongly, and 12% is uncertain. The uncertain 12% of the educators does not perceive as healthy at all times the relationship between them and the parents of their learners, even though this does not mean that the relationship between them (the educators and the parents) is unhealthy. This kind of a situation definitely has a direct and negative impact on the culture and climate of teaching and learning in the affected schools.

It is a possibility that cannot be ruled out that there may be some educators who disregard the value of communicating with parents on matters affecting the learners' academic progress. In this study it has transpired that parental involvement is a factor that can contribute to classroom culture immensely. A meaningful involvement of parents in the education of the learners can strengthen confidence in and commitment to the school, thus

making it more responsive to the diverse concerns of the community. Parents will come to own the school, and cooperate as they will be part of the decisions taken and will be happy to carry them out, thus contributing greatly to the school culture and ultimately to classroom culture. It is against this background; therefore, that Mdingi (1999:59-60) asserts that parents can be a valuable resource in the creation and development of school culture if given the opportunity and the know-how. Given the opportunity and the support of the educators, the parents form an integral part in their children's achievement. Involving parents in educating the learners makes incalculable contributions towards a successful education system.

#### **4.2.4. OPEN - ENDED QUESTIONS**

At this juncture the researcher deemed it appropriate to explain that 40% of the educators had inappropriate answers to the open-ended questions. Their responses were found, by the researcher, to be a repeat of what had been dealt with and said in the closed-ended section of the questionnaires. Hence only 60% of them made responses that were appropriate according to the researcher. The information that was gathered from the open-ended questions was grouped into themes. It is reflected in table 4 (xxvi).

#### 4.2.4. 1. Other ways in which educators contribute to classroom culture

Table 4(xxvi)

| THEMES                               | FREQUENCY | PERCENTAGE |
|--------------------------------------|-----------|------------|
| 1. Motivation                        | 11        | 18         |
| 2. Learner participation in learning | 9         | 15         |
| 3. Understanding learner uniqueness  | 9         | 15         |
| 4. Guidance and counseling           | 6         | 10         |
| 5. Empathy and sympathy              | 6         | 10         |
| 6. Dedication and commitment         | 6         | 10         |
| 7. Inviting physical environment     | 6         | 10         |
| 8. Punctuality                       | 3         | 5          |
| 9. Approachability                   | 2         | 3          |
| 10. Psychological preparedness       | 1         | 2          |
| 11. Study supervision                | 1         | 2          |
| TOTAL                                | 60        | 100%       |

Table 4 (xxvi) is a frequency table on other ways in which educators contribute to classroom culture. Themes that came up were recorded in the order of their frequencies; the theme with the highest frequency first at the top, and downwards to the theme with the lowest frequency last at the bottom.

The theme of motivation has the highest frequency of 18%. It is followed by the themes of learner participation in learning, and understanding learner uniqueness, with frequencies of 15% respectively. The themes of: guidance and counseling; empathy and sympathy; dedication and commitment; and inviting physical environment, all follow with frequencies of 10% each. The themes punctuality and approachability follow with frequencies of 5% and 3% respectively. Lastly come the themes of: psychological preparedness; and study supervision with frequencies of 2% each.

According to table 4 (xxvi), the educators apply a lot of effort in building a classroom culture that is conducive to teaching and learning. They employ a variety of techniques and motivation is the most popular of them, and the most frequently used, with the others following as discussed above. It is evident that educators do engage in creating a classroom culture that is conducive to teaching and learning.

**4.2.4.2. Other ways in which educators inhibit the development of a healthy classroom culture.**

Table 4 (xxvii)

| THEMES   | FREQUENCY | PERCENTAGE |
|--|-----------|------------|
| 1. Autocratic                                    | 10        | 17         |
| 2. Failure to cope with transformation           | 8         | 13         |
| 3. Absenteeism                                   | 4         | 7          |
| 4. Educator-learner affairs                      | 4         | 7          |
| 5. Teaching methodology                          | 4         | 7          |
| 6. Lack of commitment and dedication             | 4         | 7          |
| 7. Irrelevancy (of education)                    | 4         | 7          |
| 8. Inconsistency in discipline                   | 3         | 5          |
| 9. Lack of support for teaching and learning     | 3         | 5          |
| 10. Learner humiliation                          | 3         | 5          |
| 11. Self – discipline                            | 3         | 5          |
| 12. Favoritism                                   | 3         | 5          |
| 13. Ignorance of learner aspirations             | 2         | 3          |
| 14. Lack of understanding for learner uniqueness | 2         | 3          |
| 15. Lack of teamwork (among educators)           | 2         | 3          |
| 16. Unattainable expectations                    | 1         | 2          |
| TOTAL  | 60        | 100        |

Table 4 (xxvii) is a frequency table on other ways in which educators inhibit a development of a healthy classroom culture. It reveals a range of themes on the subject. There are various ways in which educators counter their own efforts of developing a classroom culture that is conducive to teaching and learning. The themes that came up were recorded in the order of their frequencies as in table 4 (xxvi) above.

Themes with the highest frequencies are the themes on educators dealing with learners in an autocratic manner; and failure to cope with transformation, with frequencies of 17% and 13% respectively. The themes on: educator-learner affairs; teaching methodology; lack of commitment and dedication; and irrelevancy of education were next with frequencies of 7% each. This is just to pick on those themes that have high frequencies.

Tables 4 (xxvi) and 4 (xxvii) show that there are more other ways in which educators inhibit a development of a healthy classroom culture as compared to other ways in which educators contribute to classroom culture. The final effect is that educator actions counter the development and maintenance of a healthy classroom culture. The educators are to be blamed for the existence of conditions that do not promote educative and effective teaching and learning in schools. It is for them to rectify the situation by jointly working with their learners.

#### **4.3. RESTATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM AND HYPOTHESES**

In chapter one the researcher observed that there is a remarkable deterioration in the culture of teaching and learning in the Pongola circuit. The result is the prevalence of indiscipline, and negativity towards teaching and learning. The ultimate result is deterioration in classroom culture. This is the problem that generated the researcher's interest. Observation suggests that the educators, learners and parents are to blame for the deterioration in classroom culture in the Pongola circuit.

Apart from that, in chapter one two hypotheses were raised. They are presented below as follows:

1. Classroom management and the school culture, in secondary schools in the Pongola circuit are closely related to one another.
2. The approaches to classroom management used in secondary schools in the Pongola circuit do not promote classroom culture.

In this research exercise the researcher established that classroom management owes its existence to the classroom culture and the school culture is the basis of classroom culture. It is the kind of classroom culture that makes the educators and learners to behave in a

particular way at certain times in the classrooms (Beare et al, 1987:97). That confirms hypothesis one. With regards to hypothesis two, it has been observed that the final effect of the educators' activities in secondary schools is counter to creating and developing a classroom culture that is conducive to teaching and learning. Classroom management approaches used therefore do not promote classroom culture adequately. That confirms hypothesis two.

#### **4.3. CONCLUSION**

This chapter focused on the analysis and interpretation of the data that were gathered from the educators. The issues that were dealt with are the following:

- Educator preparedness.
- Classroom management.
- Parental involvement.
- Open-ended questions.

## **CHAPTER FIVE**

### **SUMMARIES, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS**

#### **5.1. INTRODUCTION**

In chapter four the focus was on analyzing and interpreting the data that were gathered with the view of turning it into meaningful information. Notably it is the meaningful information as derived from the analysis and interpretation of the data that can be used as a basis for making rational decisions.

#### **5.2 .THE AIMS OF THE STUDY RESTATED**

We argue that no classroom culture would exist without educators playing a key role in creating, developing, and sustaining it. Such a culture owes its existence to educator activities. Therefore, the contribution of educators in creating such a classroom culture is of the utmost importance. This study was aimed at investigating the contribution of educators in creating, developing and/ or sustaining such a culture in secondary schools. During the study it became clear that the contribution by educators is a major factor in this matter.

### 5.3. SUMMARIES AND CONCLUSIONS

#### 5.3.1. EDUCATOR PREPAREDNESS

Table 5 (i)

| AGREE | STRONGLY AGREE | DISAGREE | STRONGLY DISAGREE | UNCERTAIN |
|-------|----------------|----------|-------------------|-----------|
| 48%   | 34%            | 18%      | 3%                | 7%        |

On the question of educator preparedness Kellough and Roberts (1998: 167) assert that effective teaching does not just happen, but is brought about by the careful planning of each phase of the learning process. This means that unless the educators plan thoroughly all the phases of the process of teaching and learning, there can be no effective educative teaching and learning.

Ornstein ( 1990:575 ) argues ( chapter 4 ) that if you hope to be an effective educator who enjoys his or her work, not only will you need to be well prepared for each day's lesson, but you will also need to possess a variety of skills in working with people, such as the learners, colleagues, supervisors, and parents.

Being prepared as an educator includes establishing proper relationships with learners. Such relationships are of the utmost importance to educators and learners. Spaulding (1992:66) advises that during the first few weeks of school, educators should make special efforts to create such relationships. In creating such relationships the goal is to become a reliable and trusted adult in the learners' lives, that is, someone they can trust to be available and supportive whenever they need help of any sort.

If educators were to be prepared as discussed above, the following would be the case:

- All lessons would be thoroughly prepared for and be made interactive with learners.
- Educators would be role-models to learners in general life, and in exemplifying the schools' norms and values, and thus keep the learners well informed about the vision of the schools.
- The educator/learner relationship would be healthy at all times, and so educators would be approachable to the learners and thus be able to support them (the learners) in their educational needs.

- Educators would conduct their lessons in a professional manner, exercising authority over the learners, and yet treating them (the learners) with due respect and dignity.
- The educators would have an adequate foundation of the knowledge and the skills required to provide the learners with the learning experiences they need for continuous sequential growth in all areas of living.

According to table 5 (i), 82% of the educators agrees that educators are prepared to function as facilitators of learning in the Pongola circuit, of the 82%, 34% strongly agrees. 8% disagrees, 3% disagrees strongly, and 7% is uncertain. This simply means that not all educators are prepared to function as facilitators of learning. The contribution of such educators as the 11%; which is constituted by those that disagree, and strongly disagree; is counter to creating and developing a healthy classroom culture. With reference to the uncertain 7%, it is inferred that in some contexts they function effectively as educators and in some contexts they fail. This means that there is no way they can excel as educators under normal circumstances.

In this way table 5 (i) summarizes tables 4 (I - x) which deals with the section of educator preparedness in the questionnaires that were used as a data-gathering instrument in this study. The subject of the section that follows is classroom management. It had its own section in the questionnaires that were used as an instrument to gather data.

### 5.3.2. CLASSROOM MANAGEMENT

Table 5 (ii)

| AGREE | STRONGLY AGREE | DISAGREE | STRONGLY DISAGREE | UNCERTAIN |
|-------|----------------|----------|-------------------|-----------|
| 44%   | 40%            | 8%       | 2%                | 6%        |

Table 5 (ii) above is a summary of table 4 (xi - xx) of the closed-ended questions in the questionnaires. From this table, we establish how educators feel about classroom management in the Pongola circuit. The various strategies that educators can employ can be found in statements 4.2.2.1 to 4.2.2.10. So, the findings on this subject have been summarized in table 5 (ii). From this table the following inferences are made.

84% of the educators agrees that they do manage their classes properly. The 84% is made of 40% that agrees strongly, and 44% that just agrees. 8% of the educators disagrees, 2% strongly disagrees, and 6% is uncertain. We therefore infer that the 10% made of the educators who disagree and strongly disagree, for some reasons fail to manage their classes, and exercise authority and control over the learners. Kyriacou (1986:30) argues that the prime task of the educator is to organize and manage the learners' learning, which involves exerting control over the learning activities and the learners themselves. These are what will permit effective and educative teaching and learning (or a healthy classroom culture).

One of the themes that came up on the question of the other ways in which educators inhibit the development of a healthy classroom culture is that educators tend to be autocratic towards learners, and it has the highest frequency of 17%. We therefore infer that there are educators who employ autocracy in their efforts to manage and to control their classes.

As a result of autocracy, learners do not take responsibility for their learning, and they do not feel safe and secure in such an environment; educators are not supportive to the learners in their educational needs, and they are not engaged in creating a classroom culture that is conducive to teaching and learning. The sharing of problems with learners is thus not facilitated. All these are detrimental to the classroom culture.

Several more other ways in which educators inhibit the development of a healthy classroom culture were brought forth by the educators. In the light of all these findings, it is clear that some of the classroom management strategies that are used in the Pongola circuit do not promote a healthy classroom culture. So hypothesis two in chapter one stands.

### 5.3.3. PARENTAL INVOLVEMENT

Table 5 (iii)

| AGREE | STRONGLY AGREE | DISAGREE | STRONGLY DISAGREE | UNCERTAIN |
|-------|----------------|----------|-------------------|-----------|
| 33%   | 21%            | 26%      | 9%                | 11%       |

Table 5 (iii) is a summary of tables 4 (xxi - xxv). It gives the general feeling of the educators concerning the matter of parental involvement in the education of the learners. The various ways in which parents may be involved are found in the closed-ended questions 4.2.3.1 to 4.2.3.5, under the sub-topic **PARENTAL INVOLVEMENT**. From table 5 (iii) it is noted how far parents are involved in the education of their children in the Pongola circuit.

It is quite discouraging to note that only 54% of the educators agrees that parents are involved with them in the education of the learners, and only 21% of the 54% agrees strongly. 26% of the educators disagrees and 9% disagrees strongly. In other words, 35% of the educators is not involved with parents (or do not work with parents) in educating the learners. 11% of the educators is uncertain. With reference to the uncertain group it is inferred that in some instances they do get loosely involved with parents in matters that concern the education of the learners even though it might only be at a minimal level.

It is inferred here that 35% of the parents of the learners is not involved in the education of their children; and 11% of them sometimes gets loosely involved, an involvement that is far from being adequate and effective. It is evident, therefore, that parental involvement in the education of learners is adversely lacking. Mdingi (1999:55) argues that meaningful parental involvement can strengthen confidence in and commitment to the school. In addition, parental involvement allows parents to own the school and co-operate

as they are part of the decisions taken. As a result, they become happy to carry them out, and thus contribute to the school culture and ultimately to an efficient and healthy classroom culture.

With all these evidently lacking, we are not surprised by the prevalence of indiscipline and the general negative attitude towards teaching and learning in the schools, which were mentioned in the statement of the problem in chapter one.

In view of the lack of parental involvement, it is not strange that learners privately and secretly request educators to draw them report cards as a way of promoting them to the next classes, after failing the end - of -year examinations or dropping out of school before such examinations. A number of these learners succeed to put themselves in new classes in new schools. To such learners, passing or failing the end-of-year examinations makes no difference. In other words they do not see the need to qualify to be promoted to the next class. It is clear that teaching and learning have lost their authenticity and value. Such conditions leave the learners with no reason to acknowledge and respect the authority of the educators.

There will most likely be indiscipline prevalent among such learners, and a lack of school going habits. It needs to be understood that this is the case with those learners whose parents are part of the 35%. These are the parents who are not involved in the education of

their children. Even though the involvement of the rest of the learners in this cannot be ruled out, no clear boundaries can be drawn. After all there is still another 11% of the parents that makes no meaningful or effective involvement.

### **5.3. TRANSFORMATION**

It needs to be noted that in the frequency table on the other ways in which educators inhibit the development of a healthy classroom culture, one of the themes that came up was the failure of educators to cope with change. Moreover, it had the second highest frequency of 13% after autocracy as a theme. It is inferred that in the Pongola circuit, the matter of coping with change is quite an issue among educators. It has brought up challenges that are apparently insurmountable to the educators.

In responding to this part of the questionnaires, some of the educators pointed out that the changes that happen in the education system, since the inception of outcomes based education (OBE), are beyond what the secondary school educators can cope with. First, it was curriculum 2005. While the educators worked to master it, it was reformed into National Curriculum Statements with fundamental changes. Before the educators could master that, it was revised into Revised National Curriculum Statements and again fundamental changes were made. It is therefore not surprising that up to this far the educators have failed to cope.

It was observed in chapter two that the transformation of the education system in the country changed the roles of educators, as it came with a new jargon. The educators had to abandon their familiar and so comfortable practices, and adopt new and unfamiliar ones. This is true as Ruddick (1991:30) points out that change involves such. The educators need to acquire new skills and knowledge, without which they could find themselves helpless and without the capacity to handle the change. As a result they will not be able to create and/or sustain a classroom culture that is conducive to teaching and learning. This applies to both junior educators and school principals.

The researcher has often heard a substantial number of educators in the Pongola circuit, including school principals, openly acknowledging their failure to cope with the changes in the education system. It has, for some time, been a general outcry in the circuit that the echelons of the educational transformation have not been able to provide effective workshops and training for educators. The educators are, therefore, adversely incapacitated to cope with the change. This means that they cannot create and sustain a classroom culture that is conducive to teaching and learning.

It is worth reiterating Beare et al.'s (1989) assertion that outstanding leadership has invariably emerged as a key characteristic of outstanding schools. Outstanding leaders have a vision for their schools. Vision is defined as a mental picture of a preferred future, which is shared with all in the school community, and which shapes the programme for learning and teaching as well as policies, priorities, and plans and procedures pervading the day-to-day life of the school.

This means that if a school is to function effectively all the educators should share the vision of the principal. Driver et al. (2005) assert that as much as it is true that the attitudes and values of senior management often have a strong influence on the working environment and culture of the whole business, it does not mean that establishing the right type of culture is just upon management, but the other employees have responsibilities towards the business they work for and they can play an active role in shaping the culture within the business. These assertions referred to here, make it clear that it is the responsibility of the educators to effectively solve the problem of being incapacitated to cope with the change and working together with principals. Avoiding, and failing to live up to the challenge would mean their failure in the profession.

#### **5.4. RECOMMENDATIONS**

##### **5.4.1. EDUCATOR PREPAREDNESS**

A fact that warrants attention is that, quite a notable number of educators have not undergone professional training as educators. Some got employed as educators just after getting their senior certificates. So, they have no capacity to function as educators. Such educators need to enroll in tertiary institutions, so that they can get professional training, and thus build their capacity to function as educators.

Spaulding (1992:66) advises that the educators should present themselves to learners as trusted and reliable adults in their lives. They should also present themselves as people whom the learners can trust to be available and supportive whenever the learners need help of any sort. The educators should make special efforts to do this in the first few weeks of school. They (the educators) must always be aware that first impressions always have lasting effects. This cannot happen if educators turn to be autocratic towards the learners, as it came up in the open-ended questions. Besides this, the echelons of the educational transformation should take cognizance of the outcry among educators for more training. The educators have to be trained and / or workshopped adequately, until they are well equipped with the new knowledge and skills required of them by the latest trends and developments in education.

Once equipped, the educators should always remember that effective teaching is brought about by careful planning of each phase of the learning process (Ornstein, 1990:575). Notably, thorough lesson-planning is a key to effective classroom culture (Good and Brophy, 1994), and so preparing for every minute of every class as argued by Kellough and Roberts (1998: 167) enables them to teach effectively.

#### **5.4.2. CLASSROOM MANAGEMENT**

According to table 5(ii) 84% of the educators manages its classes efficiently. That means the educators do not permit disruptive behavior in their classes, they give meaningful feedback

to the learners after the lesson activities, they set and communicate to the learners clear and achievable objectives and have realistic expectations of the learners, facilitate team activity among the learners, and facilitate the sharing of problems with the learners. All these happen in an environment in which the learners feel safe and secure. It has already been stated above that educators should plan for every minute of every lesson. This means that educators must engage the learners in educational tasks for the duration of the period. This enables effective educative teaching and learning to take place and allows no room for misbehavior, as the learners are kept too busy to misbehave (Kellough and Roberts, 1998:167).

Engaging the learners in educational tasks makes them engage in research, look for solutions to specific problems in education, and thereafter give organized feedback to the educator who functions as an assessor of their work. In this way the learners learn to take responsibility for the day-to-day matters in their schools, and the educators effectively organize and manage the learners' learning (Kyriacou, 1986:130).

After assessment, the educator should provide prompt and meaningful feedback to the learners in a manner that makes them feel safe and relaxed. The feedback includes rewards for job well done, and remedial advice for error. So, both the educators and the learners should treat each other in a way that is acceptable to both parties, and no demeaning practices should happen (Purkey and Novak, 1984:46). Over and above all these, educators should take it upon themselves to continuously improve their classroom management strategies and skills, and to acquire new ones continuously.

### 5.4.3. PARENTAL INVOLVEMENT

Kronowitz (1992: 110-111) asserts that when children begin their school or formal instruction, parents decrease or even cease their informal instruction, leaving the job to those that they regard as more experienced and more capable. This is one of the major reasons why parents eventually become uninvolved in the education of their children, leaving the task to the educators only. They step into the background and relegate their role to homework overseers. This shows great trust in the educators.

Apart from that, a substantial number of parents is uneducated and some parents have never been to school as learners. So, they do not know or understand what goes on in a school. This situation has been aggravated by the coming in of the outcomes based education. It has come forth with its new jargon and roles, which a majority of the parents finds to be too strange and not easy to understand. What is problematic is not only the new jargon and roles, but also the latest technological developments like computer technology. These factors have formed barriers to parental involvement in the education of the learners. Since parents have so much trust in the educators, it is the duty of the educators to make it crystal clear to the parents that chances of successful learner performance and staff effectiveness probably diminishes if parents and community leaders and organizations are not supportive.

In the light of this argument, it is not surprising that only 54% of the educators agrees that they

are involved with parents in educating the learners, and only 21% agrees strongly (Table 5 (iii)). This means that parental involvement in educating the learners is adversely lacking. Educators should, therefore, take conscious steps with dedication to instill in the parents the understanding that their contribution is necessary and highly desirable if the educational objectives of the schools are to be accomplished. The educators should use their skills to help parents overcome the barriers discussed above. It is their duty to remedy the situation in the schools.

#### **5.4.4. TRANSFORMATION**

Educators have to take it upon themselves to acquire the new knowledge and skills necessary to capacitate them to be able to cope effectively with the prevalent changes in the education system of the country. They can do this by enrolling in tertiary institutions for proper professional training. In this way they can develop themselves professionally and thus keep abreast with the latest trends and developments in education, and this includes computer technology which educators have to master on their own. They may do their studies on part-time basis or through distance education.

In addition to that, the echelons of the transformation of the education system must learn to understand that the changes in the education system are implemented through the educators. The educators need to be thoroughly trained, and thus be adequately capacitated for the transformation. Capacity building workshops are a compulsory pre-requisite for successful

implementation of the educational changes. Mdingi (1996:61) is of the view that it is necessary to have regular staff development programmes to keep the educators abreast of the changes that are taking place.

‘Failure to cope with transformation’ is one of the other ways in which educators inhibit the development of a healthy classroom culture. This came up as one of the themes in table 4(xxvii). It is noted that it has the second highest frequency of 13%, with ‘autocracy’ as a theme having the highest frequency of 17%. All the educators must take the matter very seriously by facing it and living up to the challenge.

#### **5.5. THE NEED FOR FURTHER STUDY**

One of the issues that came up in this study is the issue of physical resources. It is without any doubt that they (physical resources) have an overwhelming effect on classroom culture. It is one of the key factors in the creation, development, and sustenance of classroom culture. According to Chisholm and Vally (996) physical resources make an incalculable difference to the climate of teaching and learning in schools. This study has not covered this subject adequately as it is outside its scope. This means that the subject ‘physical resources’ could provide fertile grounds for further research.

## 5.6. CONCLUSION

This chapter aimed at summarizing the data that were gathered, and then draw conclusions, and finally make recommendations. The following issues were dealt with:

- Educator preparedness
- Classroom management.
- Parental involvement.
- Transformation.

One cannot help but hope that this survey will be edifying and meaningful, and will thus lead to more improvements and further research. The researcher hopes that it will be a meaningful contribution to knowledge about education and practices in education. This is in line with the assertion by McMillan and Schumacher (1993:4) that educational research makes contributions to knowledge about education and educational practices. The impact of educational research on schools and policy makers seeking to improve educational practices may be seen as a process, which is a process to develop educational knowledge to improve practices.

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An address by the Minister of Education and Culture.

APPENDEX A

Simelane Bheki Timothy  
P.O. Box 2381  
Pongola  
3170  
09 September 2005

The Circuit Manager  
The Department of Education Pongola  
Circuit  
Private Bag X 0044  
Pongola  
3170

Dear Sir/Madam

Re: **PERMISSION TO CONDUCT RESEARCH IN THE CIRCUIT IS SOUGHT**

I wish to request for permission to conduct a research project in some schools within the Circuit. This research is towards my Master of Education (Education Management) degree with the University of Zululand (main campus), under the supervision of Dr M. S Ntuli.

The research topic is: "The Role of High School Educators in Creating Classroom Culture in the Pongola Circuit".

It is an exercise that will call for the development and the administration of questionnaires to high school educators within the Circuit. I guarantee that information gathered during the research exercise will be treated as confidential and as anonymous as required.

Thanking you in advance in anticipation for your most valued assistance.

Yours Sincerely

Simelane Bheki Timothy (Mr.)

APPENDEX

B



PROVINCE OF KWAZULU-NATAL  
ISIFUNDAZWE SAKWAZULU-NATALI  
PROVINSIE KWAZULU-NATAL

DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION  
UMNYANGO WEMFUNDO  
DEPARTEMENT VAN ONDERWYS

Telephone: (034) 4131 229/  
4131 632

Fax: (034) 4131 996

Private Bag X 0044  
Pongola  
3170

Suite NO.9, New Republic Str.  
Pongola, 3170

Enquiries:  
Imibuzo: V.R MANZINI  
Alavrae:

Reference:  
Inlwmba:  
Verwysing:

Date:  
Usuku: 13/09/2005  
Datum

TO: SIMELANE BHEKI TIMOTHY

SUBJECT: PERMISSION TO CONDUCT RESEARCH IN PONGOLA CIRCUIT

The subject above has reference.

The permission to conduct research in the Pongola Circuit is granted provided.

1. You do not disturb teaching and learning in our school.
2. The schools targeted (your random sampling) is forwarded to our office for filing purpose, so that the Ward Managers are informed accordingly. I am sure and confident that information gathered will be treated confidentially.
3. The office must be given a copy of your theses so that it can mirror itself and improve its weakness for the betterment of the education management of the Circuit.

Wishing you all the best in your academic project. May God provide you with strength you require to pass within the record time.

Yours faithfully

3.

V.R MANZINI: CES  
PONGOLA CIRCUIT

DEPT. VAN ONDERWYS  
2005-09-13  
PONGOLA  
PRIVATE BAG

**APPENDIX C**



**QUESTIONNAIRE**

**ON**

**THE ROLE OF  
HIGH SCHOOL EDUCATORS  
IN CREATING  
CLASSROOM CULTURE:  
PONGOLA CIRCUIT**

In this questionnaire an effort is made to determine the role of high school educators in the creation of a classroom culture and promoting it. Please read through each statement carefully and with good understanding; and then indicate your view by putting a cross (x) in the block that best represents your view, among the five blocks provided.

Consider the example below:

1. All learners must do Maths when it comes to FET.

| AGREE | STRONGLY<br>AGREE | DISAGREE | STRONGLY<br>DISAGREE | UNCERTAIN |
|-------|-------------------|----------|----------------------|-----------|
|       |                   |          |                      | X         |

## QUESTIONNAIRE

### 1. EDUCATORS PREPAREDNESS

- 1.1 Educators prepare adequately for lessons.

| AGREE | STRONGLY<br>AGREE | DISAGREE | STRONGLY<br>DISAGREE | UNCERTAIN |
|-------|-------------------|----------|----------------------|-----------|
|       | X                 |          |                      |           |

- 1.2 The educators lessons are interactive with learners.

| AGREE | STRONGLY<br>AGREE | DISAGREE | STRONGLY<br>DISAGREE | UNCERTAIN |
|-------|-------------------|----------|----------------------|-----------|
|       | X                 |          |                      |           |

- 1.3 Educators provide themselves a role-models to learner

| AGREE | STRONGLY<br>AGREE | DISAGREE | STRONGLY<br>DISAGREE | UNCERTAIN |
|-------|-------------------|----------|----------------------|-----------|
|       | X                 |          |                      |           |

- 1.4 Educators exemplify the norms and values of the school.

| AGREE | STRONGLY<br>AGREE | DISAGREE | STRONGLY<br>DISAGREE | UNCERTAIN |
|-------|-------------------|----------|----------------------|-----------|
|       | X                 |          |                      |           |

1.5 Educators keep adequately approachable to learners.

| AGREE | STRONGLY AGREE | DISAGREE | STRONGLY DISAGREE | UNCERTAIN |
|-------|----------------|----------|-------------------|-----------|
|       | x              |          |                   |           |

1.6 Educators exercise authority over learners.

| AGREE | STRONGLY AGREE | DISAGREE | STRONGLY DISAGREE | UNCERTAIN |
|-------|----------------|----------|-------------------|-----------|
|       | x              |          |                   |           |

1.7 Educators keep learners fully informed about the vision of the school.

| AGREE | STRONGLY AGREE | DISAGREE | STRONGLY DISAGREE | UNCERTAIN |
|-------|----------------|----------|-------------------|-----------|
|       |                | x        |                   |           |

1.8 Educators treat learners with the due respect and dignity.

| AGREE | STRONGLY AGREE | DISAGREE | STRONGLY DISAGREE | UNCERTAIN |
|-------|----------------|----------|-------------------|-----------|
| x     |                |          |                   |           |

1.9 The educator / learner relationship is well stable.

| AGREE | STRONGLY AGREE | DISAGREE | STRONGLY DISAGREE | UNCERTAIN |
|-------|----------------|----------|-------------------|-----------|
| x     |                |          |                   |           |

1.10 Educators conduct lessons in a professional manner.

| AGREE | STRONGLY AGREE | DISAGREE | STRONGLY DISAGREE | UNCERTAIN |
|-------|----------------|----------|-------------------|-----------|
| x     |                |          |                   |           |

## 2. CLASSROOM MANAGEMENT

2.1 Educators teach learners to fully take responsibility for their learning.

| AGREE | STRONGLY AGREE | DISAGREE | STRONGLY DISAGREE | UNCERTAIN |
|-------|----------------|----------|-------------------|-----------|
|       | x              |          |                   |           |

2.2 Educators provide adequate support to learners in their educational needs.

| AGREE | STRONGLY AGREE | DISAGREE | STRONGLY DISAGREE | UNCERTAIN |
|-------|----------------|----------|-------------------|-----------|
|       |                | ✓        |                   |           |

2.3 Educators facilitate team activity among learners.

| AGREE | STRONGLY AGREE | DISAGREE | STRONGLY DISAGREE | UNCERTAIN |
|-------|----------------|----------|-------------------|-----------|
| ✓     |                |          |                   |           |

2.4 Educators engage in creating a classroom culture, conducive to teaching and learning.

| AGREE | STRONGLY AGREE | DISAGREE | STRONGLY DISAGREE | UNCERTAIN |
|-------|----------------|----------|-------------------|-----------|
| ✓     |                |          |                   |           |

2.5 Educators have realistic expectations of learners.

| AGREE | STRONGLY AGREE | DISAGREE | STRONGLY DISAGREE | UNCERTAIN |
|-------|----------------|----------|-------------------|-----------|
| ✓     |                |          |                   |           |

2.6 Educators create an environment which learners feel safe and secure.

| AGREE | STRONGLY AGREE | DISAGREE | STRONGLY DISAGREE | UNCERTAIN |
|-------|----------------|----------|-------------------|-----------|
| ✓     |                |          |                   |           |

2.7 Educators facilitate the sharing of problems with learners.

| AGREE | STRONGLY AGREE | DISAGREE | STRONGLY DISAGREE | UNCERTAIN |
|-------|----------------|----------|-------------------|-----------|
| ✓     |                |          |                   |           |

2.8 Educators set, and adequately communicate to learners, clear and achievable objectives for each lesson.

| AGREE | STRONGLY AGREE | DISAGREE | STRONGLY DISAGREE | UNCERTAIN |
|-------|----------------|----------|-------------------|-----------|
| ✓     |                |          |                   |           |

2.9 Educators provide prompt and meaning feedback to learners after lesson activities.

| AGREE | STRONGLY AGREE | DISAGREE | STRONGLY DISAGREE | UNCERTAIN |
|-------|----------------|----------|-------------------|-----------|
|       |                | X        |                   |           |

2.10 Educators do not permit behaviour that will disrupt and disturb their lessons.

| AGREE | STRONGLY AGREE | DISAGREE | STRONGLY DISAGREE | UNCERTAIN |
|-------|----------------|----------|-------------------|-----------|
|       | X              |          |                   |           |

### 3. PARENTAL INVOLVEMENT

3.1 Parents are involved in the process of decision-making in the school.

| AGREE | STRONGLY AGREE | DISAGREE | STRONGLY DISAGREE | UNCERTAIN |
|-------|----------------|----------|-------------------|-----------|
|       | X              |          |                   |           |

3.2 Parents are involved in curriculum choices for their children.

| AGREE | STRONGLY AGREE | DISAGREE | STRONGLY DISAGREE | UNCERTAIN |
|-------|----------------|----------|-------------------|-----------|
|       |                | X        |                   |           |

3.3 Parents show adequate appreciation for their children's achievements.

| AGREE | STRONGLY AGREE | DISAGREE | STRONGLY DISAGREE | UNCERTAIN |
|-------|----------------|----------|-------------------|-----------|
|       |                |          |                   | X         |

3.4 Educators and parents communicate about the individual learner's academic progress.

| AGREE | STRONGLY AGREE | DISAGREE | STRONGLY DISAGREE | UNCERTAIN |
|-------|----------------|----------|-------------------|-----------|
|       |                | X        |                   |           |

3.5 The relationship between parents and educators is positive and healthy at all times.

| AGREE | STRONGLY AGREE | DISAGREE | STRONGLY DISAGREE | UNCERTAIN |
|-------|----------------|----------|-------------------|-----------|
| X     |                |          |                   |           |

4. Other ways in which educators contribute to classroom culture: \_\_\_\_\_

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5. Ways in which educators inhibit the development of classroom culture: \_\_\_\_\_

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6. The precious time and effort you have spent, dealing with this questionnaire, is noted with the greatest appreciation and gratitude.

Thank you, God bless you !!