

**PARTICIPATIVE MANAGEMENT AND
THE IMPLEMENTATION OF
SELECTED EDUCATION POLICY DOCUMENTS
IN KWAZULU NATAL SCHOOLS**

1998

KISTAMAH CHETTY

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IN KWAZULU NATAL SCHOOLS**

BY

KISTAMAH CHETTY

B.A. (UNISA) H.D.E. (WESTVILLE) B.ED. (UNIZUL)

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(iv)

D E C L A R A T I O N

I hereby declare that:

**PARTICIPATIVE MANAGEMENT AND THE IMPLEMENTATION
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represents my own work both in conception and execution and that all sources that are used or quoted have been acknowledged by means of complete references.

A handwritten signature in cursive script, appearing to read 'K. Chetty', is written over a horizontal dashed line.

K. CHETTY

December 1998

ABSTRACT

This study was influenced by the post-democratic ideals for a radical transformation of education systems in South Africa. The various policy documents such as the South African Schools Act (1996), the Labour Relations Act (1995) and the Bill of Rights (1996) that mandate transformation in education systems, aroused interest in the workability and success of implementing these policies in schools.

The empirical study, conducted in the Scottburgh District of KwaZulu Natal, attempts to identify gaps between transformatory *policy directives* that call for stakeholder participation, and management and governance *practices* within schools. Data was solicited from a sample population of teachers by means of questionnaires. Both open and close-ended questions were used. The open-ended questions were aimed at verifying the findings that emanated from the quantitative data.

The observations made by teachers of school management practices, are reported. An analysis is also made of the relationship between the principal *and* the pupils, the teachers and the governing body. The following are reflected as key findings which emanated from the empirical study:

- * There is a general lack of knowledge by educators and parents about both new education *policy documents* that are emerging such as the South African Schools Act (1996), and *local school policies* that are to be implemented within specific schools.
- * While the South African Schools' Act of 1996 calls participation of parents in policy decisions, more than 20% of the educators indicated that parents do not participate in decisions about, among others, the school's constitution, the learners' code of conduct, the admission policy and the school's budget.

- * Findings from responses to various questions indicate that there is no adequate information-flow between school governing bodies and the staff members.

From the findings, it can be concluded that although it cannot be categorically stated that schools are implementing policies participatively by involving parents, learners and educators in the decision-making processes, a significant percentage of schools are incorporating relevant stakeholders in the management and governance of schools.

The study concludes with a consideration recommendations which could lead to an improvement of stakeholder participation in the management and governance of schools.

S A M E V A T T I N G

Hierdie studie is gemotiveer deur die post-demokratiese ideale vir 'n radikale transformasie van onderrig sisteme in Suid-Afrika. Die heidige beleidsdokumente soos die Suid-Afrikaanse Skole wet (1996), die Suid-Afrikaanse Arbeidsverhoudinge Wet (1995) en die Handves van Menseregte (1996) wat die transformasie van onderrig onderlê, het belangstelling geprikkel in die werkbaarheid en sukses van implementering van beleid in skole.

'n Empiriese studie is in die Scottburgh distrik van KwaZulu-Natal onderneem om die gapings tussen transformasie beleid en die implementering daarvan in die praktyk bloot te lê. Daar word veral klem gelê op belanghebbende deelname en bestuur en beheer meganismes binne skole. Data is deur middel van vraelyste ingesamel vanuit 'n proefgroep van onderwysers en ander deelnemers in die onderrigproses. Beide geslote en oopvra word ingesluit in die vraelys. Die oopvra is gebruik ten einde die bevindings van die ondersoek te kontroleer.

Die hoofbevindings van die studie toon dat:

- * Daar algemene gebrek aan kennis is, by beide onderwysers en ouers, oor die nasionale onderwysbeleidsdokumente soos die Suid-Afrikaanse skool wet, wat nou te verskyn kom en plaaslike onderwysbeleid wat spesifiek in skole geïmplementeer moet word, soos die opstel van 'n skoolkonstitusie.
- * Terwyl onderwysbeleid ouerdeelname vereis in beleidsformulering en -implementering, toon meer as 20% van die onderwysers in die ondersoek dat ouers nie deelneem in besluite soos die opstel van 'n skoolkonstitusie, kode vir leerdergedrag, skooltoegangsbeleid en die skool se begroting nie.
- * Daar is nie doeltreffende en effektiewe inligtinguitruil is tussen die skoolbestuursliggaam en skoolpersonele nie.

Al kan daar nie kategorieë verklaar word dat skole onderrigsbeleid volgens inklusiewe deelname beginsels implementeer nie is daar tekens dat 'n groot persentasie van skole wel beleid probeer implementeer .

Die studie word gesluit met voorstelle wat kan lei tot 'n verbetering in belanghebbende deelname in die bestuur en beheer van skole.

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CHAPTER ONE: ORIENTATION

1.1 INTRODUCTION

Recent education policy documents, in South Africa, have announced various systemic transformations in the education sector. The *Education White Paper 2* (1996) issued by the Department of Education and Culture, indicates transformation in the organisation, governance and funding of schools. The Minister of Education, Professor S.M.E. Bengu, states in the introduction to this document that education in the past was *...a legacy of the apartheid system, and must be transformed in accordance with democratic values and practice, and the requirements of the Constitution*¹ (1996: 2). In his introduction, Professor Bengu highlights *...the development of capacity for school leadership and governance throughout the country.*"

¹The recent crisis in education, enunciated in wide-scale media reports, has been fuelled by, *inter alia*, a perception in schools that they lack the resources, both human and material, to implement policy directives effectively. Retrenchment and retirement packages offered to senior teachers, resulted in the loss of many of the effective leaders and experts required to facilitate transformation in schools. Capacity building programmes to replenish the loss of leadership and expertise appear inadequate to meet the current demands. Wide-scale media reports indicate that provinces are not coping with implementing educational transformation. In one such report, namely, *The Teacher*, Ratshitanga (1997: 2) reflects on the lack of capacity by provinces to implement transformative policies.

The White Paper (1996: 1.4) acknowledges the urgent need for capacity-building for school management and governing bodies. It further proposes a National Education Management Training Institute within a year:

¹ See media reports, for example, in the January 1998 editions of *The Mercury* on 'Parent and Union Opposition to The KwaZulu Natal Education Department's New Management Plan' and articles in *The Teacher*, Volume 3, Number 1 January 1988: 'Chaos and Confusion' and 'Parents up in Arms.'

'The preparatory work for the establishment of a National Education Management Training Institute is under way. The Council of Education Ministers has endorsed the project, to service national, provincial and sub-provincial management and governance needs. The new institute is intended to become the centrepiece in a national strategy to raise the quality of leadership in public schools and in the support services provided to schools by provincial education departments, especially at district level. It would be a mistake, however, to allow the institute project to deflect attention from the immediate need for capacity-building for school management's and governing bodies.'

There is no evidence that this institute has however, materialized. This study empirically investigates management and governance practices in selected primary schools in KwaZulu Natal by means of the research questionnaire instrument (*cf.* Appendix A). Participative management will be used as a theoretical framework in interpreting and evaluating current school management practice and governance. This theoretical framework will also be used to draw conclusions and make recommendations based on the research findings of the empirical study.

1.2 BACKGROUND OF THE STUDY

In order to contextualise this particular study, it becomes critical to understand the history of educational management structures in South African society and how these are shaped by socio-political policies and practices. Furthermore, to understand properly how formal schooling served to help maintain the highly hierarchical social system in South Africa and concurrently sought to acculturate subordinate groups into acquiescence, it becomes necessary to provide information on the entrenchment of inequality in education.

1.2.1. Pre-democratic education management policies, structures and functions

Robertson (1973: ii), in his study entitled *Education in South Africa: A study in the influence of ideology on educational practice*, exposes the pre-democratic South African government as:

'a regime of totalitarian right which is [was] methodically fashioning South African society in terms of an ideology comprising two basic, interrelated elements - apartheid (segregation) and baasskap (white domination).''

Robertson's research shows that education in South Africa was predominantly shaped by policies developed exclusively by government officials and education agents of the status quo.² The exclusive government responsibility for policy directives are confirmed and exposed by apartheid critics in a variety of literary sources. While education policy formulation may be a challenge for developing countries, it was a feature that propagated apartheid education in South Africa.

Porter and Hicks (1995: 12) argue that because, in developing countries generally, public officials are much more influential than other stakeholders in policy formation, respective policies tend to be informed predominantly by expertise contained in governmental circles. This means that policy communities are largely made up of government technocrats together with researchers based in public sector institutions such as universities, training institutions, schools etc. ✓

Pampallis (1993: 2) concurs with this view and argues that the state has an advantage in any negotiations to restructure a new education system. The reason for this, he elaborates, is that it controls the education system and is in a position to make changes which will promote the type of education system that it wants to create in the future. It is generally accepted that the quality of an institution does not exist independently of the wider system in which it is located. Predictably, therefore, the system inevitably contributes to the type of institutions which comprise it.

According to Roberts (*ibid*), in South Africa, the government maintained '*a position of complete political and economic dominance.*' It thus made use of the advantage of its dominant status by engaging in what is often referred to as a 'unilateral restructuring' - so called because the government undertook it without consulting key educational stakeholders. It is no surprise, therefore, that the South African education system comprised of fifteen separate departments of

² Christie, in *The Right to Learn* (1985) provides an indepth, critical analysis of the apartheid education system in South Africa.

education, linked through weak co-operative arrangements and separated by marked imbalances in resource provision (Christie, 1985; Dekker & Lemmer, 1994).

According to the National Education Policy Investigation (NEPI, 1993: 13), these inequalities coincide with the ethnically fragmented structures of control centred on 'own affairs' departments of education answerable to the White, Indian, and Coloured chambers of the tricameral parliament, while African education fell under the Department of Education and Training (DET) and a further ten departments responsible for education in 'homelands'. The Department of National Education (DNE) played an overall co-ordination role.

The form of education governance in South Africa, according to the National Education Policy Investigation (1993: 210), can be described as *a system of systems*, differentiated on the basis of the racial, ethnic, and regional divisions of South African society. Evidence, provided in the NEPI report (1993: 13-24) indicate that the differentiation of the systems of governance affects the way they are managed. An examination of one of the education departments, namely, the Department of Education and Training (DET), is necessary to illustrate:

'how it has resulted in the destruction, distortion or neglect of the human potential of our country, with devastating consequences for social and economic development...and more importantly [how] apartheid education and its aftermath of resistance had destroyed the culture of learning within large sections of our communities, leading in the worst-affected areas to virtual breakdown of schooling and conditions of anarchy in relations between students, teachers, principals, and the education authorities.'

African National Congress (ANC) Draft Policy Framework
for Education and Training (1994: 2)

This backdrop, while not uniquely applicable to Bantu Education, will lend support for the need to reconceptualise educational management and governance in schools. The ANC policy framework (1994: 2) emphasises that:

'the challenge we face ... is to create an education and training system that will ensure that the human resources and potential in our society are developed to the full. It is the challenge posed by the vision of the Freedom Charter: to open the doors of learning and culture to all'.

1.2.1.1 The Bantu Education Act No. 47 of 1953

According to Christie (1985: 78), after the accession to power in 1948 of the National Party, education in South Africa was structured on apartheid ideologies. Robertson (1973) provides an account of state autonomy in terms of managing the systems of education in South Africa. Morrow (1990: 142) concurs that the state bureaucracy in South Africa had enormous power in the realm of schooling. He states that it shaped and controlled schooling with all the conviction of a righteous ruler. ³The state's autonomy was thus, legitimised through the adoption and implementation of the Bantu Education Act No. 47 of 1953.

Evidence given by Robertson (*ibid*) infer that education was consciously and explicitly used as an instrument for furthering the objectives enumerated in a document drafted by Afrikaner leaders in the forties, entitled Manifesto for Christian National Education. It was precisely this document that dominated educational theory and practice in South Africa. The Manifesto (Robertson, 1973: 115) stipulates the three principles below that were to be followed in the education of black people:

- * that the education must be of a 'special kind', adapted for the distinctive characteristics of the black people;
- * that it must be in the vernacular and;
- * that it must not be paid for at the expense of the whites.

³ *Rose and Tunmer (1975) provide useful documents in South African education relating particularly to the period 1910 to 1970. such as, the Bantu Education Act No. 47 of 1953.*

The National Education Policy Investigation (1992: 6), indicates that the objectives of the National Party were segregation, differentiation and unequal education for different racial groups, and political control over all education in the interests of Afrikaanerdom. According to Behr (1984: 165), the Bantu Education Act drew heavily on recommendations by the Eiselen Commission which began with the premise that a distinction should be drawn between White and Black education. Hence, government policy was compatible with the proposals made by the Eiselen Commission, as clearly spelt out by the words of Dr Hendrik Verwoerd in his infamous speech to the members of Parliament in 1953 whereby he pronounced the following:

'It is the policy of my Department that Bantu Education should have its roots entirely in Native areas and in the Native environment and in the Native community. Bantu education must be able to give itself complete expression, and there it will have to perform its real service. The Bantu must be guided to serve his own community in all aspects. There is no place for him in the European community above the level of certain forms of labour. Within his own community, however, all doors are open. For that reason it is of no avail for him to receive a training which has as its aim absorption into the European community, while he cannot and will not be absorbed there. Up till now he has been subjected to a school system which drew him away from his own community (referring to mission schools) and practically misled him by showing him the green pastures of the European but still did not allow him to graze there. This attitude is not only uneconomic because money is spent on education which has no specific aim but it is even dishonest to continue with it.'

(Behr, 1984: 36)

These words reflect that a covert policy of disempowerment and dehumanization of a certain sector of the South African people, namely Blacks, was to be entrenched. Clearly, members from different racial groups were prevented, by means of government policies, from working together to manage the education system in South Africa. Nkomo (1992: 2) avers that Bantu Education was the prelude to the gross disparities in our present educational system and highly successful in achieving its nihilistic objectives, namely:

- * to produce a semi-skilled black labour force to minister to the needs of the capitalist economy at the lowest possible cost, and earlier on, especially after the introduction of the Bantu Education Act, the Coloured Peoples' Act, the Indian Peoples' Act, it was intended to prevent competition with white workers;
- * to condition black students so that they can accept the social relations of apartheid as natural, that is, to accept the supposed superiority of whites and their own 'inferiority';
- * to create a consciousness and identity accompanied by a sense of 'superiority' among whites;
- * to promote the acceptance of racial or ethnic separation as the 'natural order of things', or as an arrangement better suited to 'South Africa's complex problems of national minorities that can only be solved through the separation of the races or ethnic groups';
- * to promote black intellectual under-development by minimizing the allocation of educational resources for blacks while maximising them for whites.

The above objectives were successfully achieved because as Behr (1984: 167) argues, there had never been any active participation of Blacks in the control, inspection and supervision of substantive school issues. Teachers, pupils and parents were alienated from meaningful participation in the management and governance of their schools. Behr (*ibid*) proffers that quasi-participative structures were prescribed to create the illusion of stakeholder participation. Some of these structures are discussed below.

(a) School Boards

To ensure 'active participation' of parents in matters affecting the education of their children, Bantu local authorities such as School Boards and School Committees had to be created. The transfer of control of schools to these School Boards and Committees, according to Behr (1971: 397) was subject to 'the threefold test of cash, competence and consent' which implied that they

were able to collect school fees, capable of administrating schools and they were acceptable to the local inhabitants. Behr and MacMillan (1966: 47) cite some of the functions of the School Board as follows:

- * the appointment of principals and teachers - no appointment could however, be finalised without the approval of the Secretary of the Department as a whole;
- * the maintenance and control of schools under its jurisdiction;
- * the allocation, control and maintenance of school equipment;
- * the investigation of complaints and the supervision of the finances of school committees;
- * the control and giving of advice on future building programmes;
- * in the event that there were insufficient schools in an area which warranted the establishment, the board could set up one.

(b) School Committees

The Bantu Education Act also provided for the establishment of School Committees in accordance with government policy which emphasized that since the school was an integral part of the community, its control had to be entrusted to Black people at all levels. According to Behr. (1971: 407), the school committee was, *inter alia*, responsible for:

- * instituting and controlling school funds;
- * maintaining school buildings and grounds;
- * erecting new buildings if deemed necessary;

- * giving advice to the school board on the functioning of the school or schools under its aegis;
- * the appointment of efficient teachers;
- * expelling pupils when necessary.

On close examination of the above management responsibilities, it becomes evident that there was a neglect of opportunities for meaningful stakeholder participation in institutional management and governance of schools. Christie, (1985: 128) claims that the strategy of national (the department), regional (school boards) and local (school committees) levels of management allude to a top-down, prescriptive mode of educational control, thereby, enabling the government to keep tight control over the entire educational system. Hence, power and control of education were vested in the hands of government bureaucrats.

1.2.1.2 Mechanisms for the implementation of Bantu Education

(a) Hierarchical management structure

Notwithstanding the fact that the Department of Bantu Education neglected to define policy in relation to the principal's managerial role, the protracted success of institutionalizing the Bantu Education Act depended upon, among others, the extent of the institutional managers' co-operation, loyalty and commitment to government enactments. Together with his deputy and heads of department, they made up the school management team which was responsible for the organisation, supervision, conduct, control and reputation of the school.

*It must be emphasised that the pronoun 'him' is used deliberately here, to allude to traditional education policies which placed men on the top of its priority list for senior management posts.

⁴ *The rest of the study will use the pronoun 'him' for the purpose of discursive convenience and 'him' will therefore refer to both sexes.*

This policy was not necessarily limited to Bantu Education. With reference to this androcentric policy, Dekker and Lemmer (1994: 22) claim that although 70% of all black and white teachers are women, they are under-represented in positions of educational management, such as principals, senior teachers and inspectors.

The philosophy of Bantu Education as expressed by the then Prime Minister Mr B.J. Voster was that *'Native education should be controlled in such a way that it should be in accordance with the policy of the state'* (Robertson, 1973: 159). It became the principal's duty to ensure that the policies of the state were successfully implemented. In terms of this, Christie (1985: 136) argues, that the principal was placed in a contradictory position which made his choice of management style more difficult and confusing. She describes this double position as follows:

- * On the one hand, they are the employees of the government. They are responsible for carrying out the government's education policy.
- * On the other hand, teachers (as well as principals) are also workers and members of the society. They have to struggle for better pay and working conditions. Many of them are against the apartheid system, and want social change.

Recorded debates of the House of Assembly (1959: 8319-9) reflect that:

'The Bantu teacher must be integrated as an active agent in the process of the development of the Bantu community. He must learn not to feel above his community with a consequent desire to become integrated into the life of the European community.'

Hence, strict control over the environment, through the employment of an autocratic management style became the norm in order to ensure conformity by teachers and pupils, to rules and regulations prescribed by various enactments. Inevitably, the hierarchical structures of the ruler and the ruled evolved. The complexity of this top-down chain of command should not be underestimated because the undercurrent, as scripted by Christie (1985), of tension, despise, non-compliance, and manipulation, etcetera, within the institutions made management more

problematic.

Evidence from the 'Principals' Handbook indicate that corporal punishment was to be used as a mechanism for control. Thus, all rules and regulations laid down by the principal had to be strictly adhered to. Inevitably, the consequence of breaking a rule, was discipline from without. Dekker & Lemmer (1994: 22) cite Morrel (1992) who acknowledges, for example, that in white schools girls were exempt from corporal punishment, however, black schoolgirls were beaten regularly.

The morality of implementing these disciplinary policies was seldom an issue for open discussion at meetings because the teachers themselves used corporal punishment as a mechanism for ensuring student obedience and discipline. Ledwaba (Sunday Times: 1998), a principal of a school in Northern Province for example, admits that teachers have used and are still using corporal punishment. While he acknowledges that *'corporal punishment is barbaric'*, in the same breath he confirms that *'teachers are not trained to deal with discipline without it.'*

Parents rarely intervened on such occasions because ⁶regulations, prior to 1994, allowed teachers to administer corporal punishment. Although the policies indicate that punishment must be reasonable, the lack of departmental policies to protect children from the abuse of harsh physical punishment by educators made it difficult for parental intervention in this regard.

(b) Classroom management

The teacher's role as manager within the school, was marginal since teachers were excluded from decisions about policy at national, provincial and school levels. The Daily News (February: 1971) reports that the then Director of Education acknowledging that parent-teacher association do exist in a few areas but are not permitted to participate in any way in departmental affairs. He is reported to having emphasised that it is not proper that teachers should sit on committees that

⁵ DET Schools received these Principals' Handbooks as a departmental guideline for school management.

⁶ See Government Notice R704 of March 1990 as further evidence in this regard.

deal with the department and the administration concerning matters sometimes affecting the very school at which they teach.

Teachers however, assumed leadership roles in the didactic situation where their main focus of attention was on daily lesson preparation, the dissemination of chunks of prescribed syllabi, sound record-keeping and the management of the classroom environment for developing pupil conformity and discipline. In *New Nation* (1969) for example, it is noted that:

'the schools... are obsessed with examinations and qualifications...pupils are crammed with everything they can be crammed with. There is no time for argument, discussion, concern with intellectual growth. Teachers who have an affection and regard for their subjects and believe in their deeper educational values can become rapidly disillusioned...parents and authorities only really demand one thing - good examination results.'

Hence, teachers played a significant role in creating a culture of formality and acquiescence in schools. Success or failure, as perceived by the *authoritarian inspectorate* was primarily measured by the teacher's diligence at record keeping, maintaining pupil discipline and the pass rate of their pupils at the end of the year. The same report above indicated that:

'Authoritarian inspectors visit the schools and demand conformity to what are usually narrowly conceived teaching methods and approaches. Their attitude strips away whatever vestiges of professional dignity and independence might remain. They are the agents, appointed by society, to see to it that there is conformity.'

The dominant view was that education is concerned essentially with subject instruction and therefore pupils had to be attuned to examinations. School level management incorporated regular inspections of lesson preparation, mark books and so forth, by the principal to ensure teacher accountability, not to the pupils or community, but to the principal. Hence, teachers adopted the technicist approach to classroom management whereby pupil participation became limited to conformity with rules and regulations. According to the NEPI report (1993: 25), departmental

inspection in black education has been closely identified with the enforcement of a rejected curriculum.

(c) Teaching content and methodology

One of the first steps taken after the passing of the Bantu Education Act, was the introduction of the vernacular Bantu languages as the medium of instruction despite the strongest opposition from parents and teachers. Although there were several reasons for the insistence on mother-tongue education in the Department of Education and Training (DET) schools, Robertson (1973: 165) identifies the three most significant as follows:

- * The projection of the Afrikaner's anxieties for his own language, which he sees as being intimately bound with his nationalism.
- * The desire to incarcerate the blacks within their tribal culture, ostensibly because the culture is presumed to have great intrinsic merit, in fact because the "unwesternized", tribalized black man is no real threat to Afrikaner hegemony.
- * The desire to divide the black population into a series of 'nations' - each with a volk on its own, with its own proud culture. A divided black population, lacking the lingua franca of English and the consciousness of its common condition, is more easily ruled.

Clearly, the implementation of the above policies bear testimony to the alienation of recipients of education, from decisions about curriculum matters. According to Kallaway (1984: 89), the school syllabi stressed obedience, communal loyalty, ethnic and national diversity accepted of allocated social roles, piety, and identification with rural culture. Education became a tool to impose a particular epistemology on a society that had no bargaining power with the state. In support of this, evidence from the terms of reference to the ⁷Eiselen Commission indicate that:

⁷ *When the Nationalist Party took office, the Eiselen Commission was appointed in January 1949 to report on the re-organisation of black education.*

'... the training of Native teachers should be modified in respect of the content and proposed principles and aims, and to prepare Natives more effectively for their future roles.'

According to the NEPI report (1993: 76), teacher education under apartheid, focused on fundamental pedagogics and its part disciplines and played a divisive and hegemonic purpose. It became the professional duty of teachers, to familiarize themselves with the contents of the syllabi in order to ensure that the correct information is passed on to the pupils. The prescribed textbooks were used as a mechanism to ensure that schools were delivering the proper messages to the pupils. In a newsletter of a teacher union, namely, the National Education Union of South Africa (NUEUSA), the following is stated:

'Education plays a large role in the process through which people come to accept the value of the current social order. South African history is largely taught from the white perspective, for example, students of Geography are taught that racial differentiation of residential areas is natural.'

Christie, 1985: 135

It is evident that a unidirectional teaching method was the dominant mode of classroom activity. With reference to the 'hidden curriculum' as described by Christie (1985: 123-155), it can be stated that pupils were not given the opportunity to manage their own learning in terms of what they perceived as relevant and relative to their lifeworlds. Parents too, as indicated above, were denied the opportunity to influence the curriculum.⁸ An educationist, namely Jantjes (1998: 15) reminisces about her 42 years of teaching in South Africa in the following way:

'The concept of teaching ... was to simply convey knowledge to the learners in the classes I taught. I, the teacher, talked while the learners listened. I was the possessor of knowledge and my passive learners were the recipients of that knowledge - subject matter which I was told their "empty" minds needed to be filled with in order to pass their examinations at school.'

⁸ Jantjes's 'concept of teaching' is reflective of the type of teaching that was adopted to implement Bantu Education.

Pupils thus, became totally dependent on the teachers for educational information. The 'chalk and talk' strategy of teaching gave support to the prescribed text-books and became the pedagogical means of promoting a one-sided view of reality.

The failure to implement a balanced curriculum that regards all types of education (subjects) as equally important, is a failure to provide what the primary pupils go to school for: a general formative education. As indicated above, teachers were required to use methods consistent with the view that education is about the accumulation of knowledge (information) found in specific text books. Such methods of teaching prevent the learners from interacting with each other and impairs independent participation in the learning environment. Hence, schools become in Illich's words:

'repressive institutions which indoctrinate pupils, smother creativity and imagination, induce conformity and stupefy students into accepting the interest of the powerful.. The pupil has little or no control over what he learns or how he learns it. He is simply instructed by an authoritarian teaching regime and, to be successful must conform to its rules.'

Haralambos, (1987: 187)

The pupils tend to believe that their roles are a natural consequence of the minority status ascribed to them in the school milieu. In Kelly's (1995) view, claims for certainty of knowledge in any sphere, are impossible to substantiate and are politically dangerous and life threatening to democracy. Such claims in the realm of human values, he argues, offer dangers that are immeasurably greater.

This situation supports what can be conceptualized in Postman and Weingartner's (1971: 82) words as a 'vaccination theory' of education which regards a subject as something you 'take' and when you have taken it, you have 'had' it and if you have had it, you are immune to it and need not take it again. This theory prevents children from questioning. Above all, children do not think. The message is communicated quietly, insidiously, relentlessly and effectively through the structure of the classroom. Pupils are thus reduced into objects of manipulation who are socialised

into marginalised roles of passivity and silence.

Since the syllabus was designed by a specific minority who denied stakeholder participation in its conception, the subject matter failed to reflect the cultural background of those for whom it was designed. It expounded on topics completely alien to the existential experiences of the pupils and played a key role in distorting reality in order to conceal the truth. Freire (1972) regards such a conception of education as suffering from a 'narrative sickness'. He objects to such education and regards it as 'dehumanising' and 'enslaving' education that attempts to control thinking and action. Bindman (1988) and Christie (1985) concur that the Bantu Education Act of 1953 was designed to equip black children for the menial role which the apartheid system assigned to them.

(d) The prefect system

It may be argued, that the prefect system gave pupils recognition beyond the said minority status mentioned above. This may be true, but on closer analysis, it is revealed that the prefect system was a strategy used by management to coerce pupils into conforming with the rules and regulations of the school at large. The following quotations from Christie (1985: 135) alludes to the dissatisfaction of the prefect system:

'The prefects in our school really take things too far. They just do the principal's dirty work - they are like his servants. If we don't come with proper school jerseys, they confiscate our jerseys. Sometimes, we never see them again.'

Alexandra student, 1983

It is obvious that there was a lack of pupil-participation with regard to decisions about the learners' code of conduct. No meaningful dialogue or discourse between the prefects and prefect masters appear to have taken place to allow pupils the opportunity to discuss, school attire, extra-curricular activities etcetera.

Furthermore, the non-democratic way in which prefects were selected created a sense of injustice and despondency among the other pupils. The following statement is a reflection of the undemocratic way in which prefects were selected:

'There's a big difference between prefects and SRCs. SRCs are elected by students. Prefects are chosen by the staff. So, I mean, SRCs are responsible to us, man. We can have some control over them. And they can organize and get things going, man.'

Cape Town student, 1983

The prefect system failed to give pupils the power to choose their own representatives. More often than not, they were selected by virtue of their academic achievements rather than by their leadership potential, panache or reppoire with the other pupils. The prefect system cannot be compared to a student representative council because duties were performed in the interests of the teachers and the principal and not for the interest of the school as a whole. Learners were not given a platform from which educational issues, involving the pupils directly or indirectly, could be discussed.

(e) Lack of parent participation

It is no coincidence that the parent is placed last for discussion on implementation of Bantu Education. Research indicates that parents had very little say in what happens in schools. The NEPI report (1992: 164), for example, indicates that the education governance system failed to accommodate parents, teacher, students and other key social forces in the governance process. Contact between educators and parents was limited because structures to incorporate parent participation in the education of the child was almost non-existent. The school's functional task of educating the pupil as well as its administrative task with regards to plans, budgets and policies were, thus, beyond the jurisdiction of the parent component. The NEPI (1993: 182-183) reports, confirm that *'parents have had little say in what happens in schools... and the disenfranchised majority have had no parliamentary representation through which to respond to the presentations of education bills.'*

Principals and teachers had unopposing authority to manage school affairs. Community wants and needs with regard to education were thus ignored. The acceptance, by parents, of their non-participatory role in the education sphere stems from two factors.⁹ Firstly, black parents were themselves recipients of apartheid education which predisposed them to believe in the authenticity of the teacher's authority. This perspective made them more receptive to what the professional has to say about how, when and where children learn. Secondly, because of the teachers' professional training, they were respected as very powerful figures who possess a reservoir of expert knowledge and the 'know-how' as far as the teaching methods are concerned.

Hence, the skills and expertise of the child's primary educators, viz. the parents, become inconsequential, not only to the educational fraternity, but also to the parents and their children as well. The cycle of disempowerment therefore, continued when the recipients of apartheid education became passive parents who were socialized into believing that they have nothing to contribute to the education of their children.

(f) Unequal and inadequate resources

In 1945, the National government assumed full responsibility for financing black education. However, it became Nationalist dogma that the fixed grant from general government revenue was not on any account to be increased and that all or any further increases in expenditure on black education should come from the black people themselves through the poll tax.

In the Star (March: 1972) the deputy Minister, namely Dr Piet Koornhof announced that

'The Bantu must to an increasing extent contribute towards his own education...The principle is that the Bantu should, in the main, accept responsibility for their own education services.'

⁹ Statistics taken from the South African Institute for Race Relations, as cited by Christie (1985: 112), indicate that the greatest percentages of illiterate people are Africans.

No other population group was burdened with the requirement to make its own contribution to education through special taxation. Education for whites was free and compulsory but education for blacks was entirely voluntary and organised on a fee-paying basis. Thus, the poorest section of the community was obliged to make the greatest sacrifices for what has become the very worst education system in the country. The racial hierarchy of unequal provisions are illustrated in the table below:

COMPARATIVE EDUCATION STATISTICS 1989	White education	Indian education	Coloured education	African education (DET)
Pupil-teacher ratios	1:19	1:22	1:23	1:41
Under-qualified teachers (less than Std 10 plus a 3-year teacher's certificate)	0%	2%	45%	52%
Per capita expenditure including capital expenditure	R3082,00	R2227,01	R1359,78	R764,73
Std 10 pass rate	96%	93,6%	72,7%	40,7%

Kallaway, *et al.* (1997: 85)

It is covertly evident from the table above that different spatial, political, social and educational paths were carved for the four major 'race' groups (Black, White, Coloured and Indian) as categorized in the Population Registration Act of 1950. The unprecedented spate of demands for equity in educational provision for all South Africans emanate generally from the discriminatory apartheid policies and specifically from the Bantu Education Act of 1953.

1.2.1.3 Grappling with policy alternatives

The wide-scale rejection of apartheid education triggered off a number of education reform initiatives by various education authorities in South Africa. These reform initiatives will be discussed in the ensuing paragraphs.

(a) The De Lange Commission: 1981

In 1981 the government set up the De Lange Commission to conduct an in-depth investigation into education and to make recommendations for an alternative education policy for South Africa. The De Lange Report (1981) recommended a single ministry of education for all, education of equal quality for all, and a changed schooling structure (Christie, 1985: 56).

According to the NEPI Report (1992: 21) on human resource development, the commissioners' views concerning the curriculum were essentially anti-academic. They stressed the irrelevance of academic curricula and argued that vocational education was a more appropriate preparation, particularly for black students, many of whom were destined for self-employment. In particular, it was recommended that black pupils from '*environmentally deprived communities*' be given a more practical learning paradigm which could assist in their '*cultural transition to the modern technological world*'. Parallels can be drawn between these recommendations and the words uttered by proponents of apartheid education who state that:

'We should not give the natives an academic education, as some people are too prone to do. If we do this we shall be burdened with a number of academically trained Europeans and non-Europeans, and who will do the manual labour in this country. I am in thorough agreement with the view that we should so conduct our schools that the native who attends them will know that to a great extent he must be the labourer in this country.'

(House of Assembly Debates, 1953).

According the HSRC (1981), the De Lange Report called for a reduction of differences in the quality of education between communities and that in striving towards equality education, both the elimination of backlogs and the current needs are dealt with. However, the policy of separate but equal was to remain. Dekker and Lemmer (1994: 51) point out that the failure of the '*separate but equal*' policy lies in the gap between policy and practice. The education principles embodied in education policies regarding the equal provision of education to all groups are not implemented in practice.

Dekker and Lemmer (*ibid*), claim that a system evolved which is riddled with inequalities and fails to provide equal educational opportunities. They cite Pillay (1990), who claims that inequalities are evident in the provision and distribution of financial resources, allocation of physical resources, pupil-teacher ratios, high drop-out rates among disadvantaged groups, poor quality of education and access. Inferior qualifications of black teachers, overcrowded classrooms, understaffed schools and equipment shortages have all contributed to growing inequalities.

Despite the apparent overtones of material and academic deprivation, including racial discrimination, the views and recommendations of the De Lange Commission strongly influenced education policy-makers during the 1980's as alluded to in the Government's White Paper on Education in 1983. The task of policy formulation remained in the hands of the dominant minority, thereby preventing meaningful changes in educational structures.

In response to the De Lange Report, the Government drew up, as pointed out above, The White Paper (1983) on education in which it acknowledges the disparities in educational provision. However, Behr (1984: 302) enumerates the bias stance of the government as follows:

- * That the Christian and broad national character of education be maintained in regard to the white population.
- * That although mother tongue education was pedagogically sound, it appreciated that the language teaching medium posed problems to certain population groups.
- * The principle of freedom of choice for the individual and for parents in educational matters and in the choice of a career was acceptable although within the framework of separate schools for each population group.

This stance reiterated the insipid policy of 'divide and rule'. Predictably, the implementation of such policies would not have enjoyed support from grassroots communities because the perpetuation of discriminatory practices, in the sphere of education, becomes the inevitable outcome.

(b) ¹⁰People's Education: 1985

The extent of stakeholder participation in the educational matters since the inception of Bantu Education was limited to actions of mass resistance, boycotts and protests. Meaningful participation for the promotion of academic endeavours and self-actualization was non-existent because more pressing issues, which focused on 'liberation now, education later', took precedence. Hence, the mobilization for the rejection of Bantu Education was largely student-centred and protest-based prior to 1985.

¹¹The dissemination of the concept 'people's education for people's power' in 1985 was the result of the awareness of the importance of education for establishing a liberatory pedagogy in order to emancipate the oppressed sector of the community. According to Lushakuzi (1993), education was the most important tool for total human oppression and underdevelopment in Africa, so it is by using the same education that total human liberation and development can be brought forth. The slogan therefore changed from "*liberation now, education later*" to "*peoples' education for peoples' power*".

The slogan was widely supported because it culminated from the ¹²National Education Coordinating Committee (NECC) in 1986 which consisted of a group of parents and community leaders who came together to address the severe crisis in black education. The NECC identified the need to deconstruct the old hierarchical school boards and school committees mentioned above and to replace it with Parent-Teacher-Student Associations in order to award some degree of democratic control to the local, micro-level.

¹⁰ *There is no consensus in the definition of 'peoples education'. However, suffice it to say that "peoples education" was seen as an alternative education that represented a radical departure from Bantu Education and it further served as a beacon of hope for educational transformation to those who were disenchanted with apartheid education.*

¹¹ *See Ashley (1989) for a detailed discussion on Peoples' Education.*

¹² *The NECC changed its identity from a 'crisis' committee to a 'co-ordinating' committee as a strategy to inculcate grassroots (students, teachers and parents) solidarity in the struggle against state policy.*

The establishment of the NECC was an attempt to persuade the government to change their education policy and to involve the parents and the community in decision-making. Together with the Parent' Crisis Committees (PCC), the NECC examined the problems in education and came to the conclusion that the struggle for people's education was to be conducted within the educational institutions, thus, supporting the view that all stakeholders should actively engage in transforming the education system - unlike the 1976-77 school boycotts in which students took the initiative which excluded parents and teachers from the process of resistance. Ashley (1989: 48-58) indicates that *People's Education*:

- * will enable the oppressed to understand the evils of apartheid and prepares them for participation in a non-racial, democratic system;
- * eliminate capitalist norms of competition, individualism and stunted intellectual development and encourages collective input and active participation by all, as well as stimulating critical thinking;
- * will help to achieve people's power by:
 - the democratisation of education, involving the community in decisions on the content and quality of education;
 - making education relevant to the democratic struggles of the people;
 - the development of a critical mind that becomes aware of the world;
 - the bridging of the gap between theoretical knowledge and practical life;
 - the closing of the gap between natural science and the humanities, mental and manual labour, with emphasis on worker education and the importance of production.

On close examination of the goals above, it becomes clear that the demands were for an alternate education which would support the needs of the community it serves. The racial policy of a 'separate, but equal education' system was totally unacceptable and therefore rejected by educational activists. Thus, a transformation *in toto*, as opposed to a reformation, of all facets of education structures was requested. Dekker and Lemmer (1994: 440) emphasise that democratic participation, of all stakeholders, is critical in the struggle to build a new South Africa. The main thrust of people's education therefore, aimed to serve the majority of the black people of South Africa by focusing on the empowerment of the disempowered.

The dichotomy between the objectives of Bantu Education and People's Education highlights the imperative for transforming management policies to affirm wide-scale stakeholder participation for the purpose of eradicating discrimination in education policies and practice. Education theorists such as, Luthuli (1985) and Walters (1989) argue that education in the hands of the people, becomes a weapon for liberation. Arguably, it can be stated that for education to serve the majority, people must participate in its conception, formulation and implementation.

(c) ¹³The Education Renewal Strategy (ERS): 1991

For the purpose of a comparative analysis, a brief discussion of the ERS will be done. This document came under scrutiny by the National Education Policy Initiative team which exposed it to be a strategy planned exclusively by government bureaucrats for the purpose of protecting the privileged minority through the policy of decentralization.

According to the NEPI report (1992: 20), the ERS espouses the view that the 'new education model must emphasise oneness or commonality', whilst on the other the case for 'diversity' is made. Furthermore, the report states that although decentralization is encouraged on its technical merits, the political objectives of such a move are also spelt out as the need to '*accommodate ideological differences and particular needs and preferences of communities more satisfactorily.*'

¹³ The ERS Discussion Document was released by the Department of National Education under the auspices of the Committee of Heads of Education Department in June 1991.

NEPI (1992: 19) makes the following observations with regard to the ERS proposals:

- * Heavy stress is placed on cost-effectiveness, decentralization, and efficiency.
- * Considerable importance is given to securing meaningful power at the level of the regional departments, and to devolution of authority to individual institutions, although it is not clear that the proposed mechanisms would necessarily achieve this in all communities.
- * Very little emphasis is placed on democratization beyond proposals to pass on costs to 'clients', and a role for parents and perhaps students in the governing bodies.
- * There is no discussion whatsoever of the issue of equality beyond mentioning it as a 'principle', and little attention is paid to redress of historical inequality and disadvantage.
- * There is no provision in the document for explicitly addressing the issues of non-racist and non-sexist education beyond the statement of principle.

(d) The National Education Policy Investigation (NEPI): 1993

The National Education Policy Investigation, which was a project of the National Education Co-ordination Committee, comprised of twelve education research reports such as, *inter alia*, human resource development, governance and administration, teacher education, curriculum and language. According to the Framework Report (NEPI, 1993: 6-7) the key principles that should underpin educational objectives are:

- * non-racism;
- * non-sexism;
- * democracy;
- * equality;
- * a unitary system and
- * redress.

A concerted effort was to be made both at the macro and micro-educational levels in order to implement such principles because it requires a redistribution of capital investments, a revision of and renewal of the curriculum, including a dramatic shifting of group dynamics. The challenges that such changes have on leadership is vast and complex. It requires the development of innovative management skills to promote successful and effective education institutions. Since all of the above principles have been incorporated in contemporary policy documents, an indepth analysis, relating to the implementation of some of the principle which influenced policies, will be done in the next chapter.

1.2.2 Post-democracy (1994) developments in educational management policies, structures and functions

Post-1994 election developments in South African education have seen the formulation of a single integrated National Education System. Effectively, this means an end to an education system based on race distinctions and the subsequent inequitable resource distribution. The transformation of the South African Education system is a systemic one both at the levels of structural transformation and curriculum reform. At the level of curriculum reform, South Africa has adopted an Outcomes Based Education System that is programme driven. Traditional subject distinctions have been replaced by learning areas. This approach aims to facilitate holistic learning, integrate training and education and promote life-long learning. The education system is based on democratic principles as outlined in the new National Constitution.

At the structural level, a National Qualifications Framework (1996) has been set up which allows for multiple entrants and exit levels in education and a redefined qualification structure. School and other educational institutions have been restructured in terms of new guidelines for organisation, funding and governance. In terms of these new guidelines, schools have to be accountable not only to the government but to the public as well. The nature of organisational interaction has also been redefined in accordance with the democratic principles of the National Constitution. This has significant implications for school management which is the focus of this study. This study then investigates the ways in which schools have responded to these demands

Participative management will be used as a yardstick to measure and evaluate the effectiveness of the schools response to transformation of management and governance practices.

1.3 STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

Despite the ideals of the transformational documents such as the Reconstruction and Development Programme (1994), The White Papers 1 and 2 on Education and Training (1995-1996), the South African Schools' Act (1996), The Constitution of the Republic of South Africa (1996), it appears that many schools are still plagued by dictatorship, authoritarianism and power struggles. These are largely a legacy of the former education administrative system in which hierarchical structures and authoritarian values were the status quo.

Currently, the relatively new stakeholders in management and governance, that is, participants that have now gained significant visibility and power in management structures, are often not informed of both their roles and functions in management systems today. Governing bodies, for example, who find themselves legally accountable for policy decisions made in governing the school, often do not have adequate information or skills to effectively negotiate school management systems.

Fluidity in role differentiation has also led to significant problems in effectively managing schools. Another problem manifests itself in the form of information dissemination. The channel of information dissemination often rests on the traditional hierarchical structures. At school level, information dissemination is most often reliant on the principal and heads of departments.

Programme and curriculum materials are often channeled through subject advisors. Governing bodies do not have direct access to national policy documents. When there is a lack of participation and/or information flow among the members of a school, transformation in educational management is inhibited.

1.4 OPERATIONAL DEFINITIONS

1.4.1 Governance, management and participative management

The *Education White Paper 2* (1996: paragraph 3.7) makes a useful distinction between *governance* and *management*. *Governance* is seen as the responsibility of the governing bodies. Governing bodies determine policy, in which the democratic participation of the schools' stakeholders is essential. *Management* refers to the day-to-day organisation of teaching and learning, and the activities which support teaching and learning. Teachers and the school principal are responsible for these activities. The link between governance and management is emphasised in the Education White Paper (1996: 4.5):

'These spheres (governance and management) overlap, and the distinctions in roles between principals and their staff, district education authorities, and school governing bodies, need to be agreed with the provincial education departments. This would permit considerable diversity in governance and management roles, depending on the circumstances of each school, within national and provincial policies.'

Participative management spans three levels of management, namely, systems management, school management and classroom management. According to McLagan and Nel (1995: x), participation is a system of governance that requires all elements of an organization to be redesigned in a common direction. Whereas educational *administration* places emphasis on routine daily tasks that are basically reactive, *participative management* is action-orientated, purposeful and proactive. The philosophical basis of a participatory management structure is built on the principles of empowerment, co-operation, shared information, accountability, transparency and tolerance.

Keith and Girling (1991: 17) claim that, '*participative management is highly consistent with the current quest for substantial qualitative improvements in educational commitment of teachers, parents and administrators to work together to resolve problems and articulate educational goals*'. Furthermore, they argue, it is likely to be the most effective managerial vehicle for implementing sustained reform. The term *participative management* is used in this study as an

umbrella term for both governance and management as referred to above.

1.4.2 Implementation

The concept *implementation* refers to a process of putting policy into practice. Policy can only be *implemented* if it is acceptable, legitimate and negotiated by all stakeholders. McLaughlin (1987: 171) asserts that implementation is not about automatic transmission, but is a process of bargaining and negotiation between the various local and national actors. Where policies are viewed as unacceptable, illegitimate and have not been negotiated by all stakeholders, but are forced into practice by authoritarian managers, these policies are *adopted* rather than implemented.

1.4.3 Policy documents

According to Caldwell and Spinks (1988: 41), a policy consists of a statement of purpose and one or more broad guidelines as to how that purpose is to be achieved, which, taken together, provide a framework for the operation of the school or programme. A policy may allow discretion in its implementation, with the basis for that discretion after stated as part of the policy. DeClercq (in Kallaway; Kruss; Fataar and Donn (1997: 145) state that policies generally refer to statements of intent, decisions, courses of action and/or resource allocations designed to achieve a particular goal or resolve a particular problem. Government has the responsibility and authority to formulate public policies which are enforced on all the citizens. This dissertation will focus on educational policies formulated by government and circularized as educational *policy documents* for implementation at schools.

1.4.4 Schools

According to the South African Schools Act (1996: 10), '*school*' means a public school or an independent school which enrolls learners in one or more grades between grade zero and grade twelve. Public schools are categorized in terms of ordinary public schools and public school for learners with special education needs. School, in this study, will refer to ordinary public schools which enrol learners in one or more grades between grade zero and grade seven.

1.5 RESEARCH QUESTIONS AND AIMS OF THE RESEARCH

The peripheral aim of this dissertation is to identify traditional management systems, within the South African context, which are incompatible with the current demand for a more inclusive and participatory form of educational management. The central aim is to determine whether schools are implementing policy documents that call for participation of stakeholders in the management and governance of schools. Participative management, will be provided with a theoretical framework, by identifying traditional and contemporary management theories, which will provide a contrastive and a compatible framework respectively. The foundations, principles and features of participative management will provide a template which will be applied to selected education policies and management practices in order to evaluate whether they fit.

Questions which the research will explore in order to unpack the concept of participative management will include:

- * What are the values and principles which inform current policy directives and how do these policies influence transformation in management practice?
- * What role does school leadership play in implementing the principles of participative management.
- * What are the functions and duties of stakeholders in their representative constituencies and what are the means and methods required for building on and improving their capacities in order for them to partake in the management and governance of education systems?
- * Are School Governing Bodies (SGBs) representing the essence of participation, and are they supporting and promoting its continuation?
- * What are the gaps, if any, between policy directives and current management practices in schools?

This dissertation raises questions about the implementation possibilities of education policy in schools. In the empirical study, an attempt is made to extract information from education practitioners in real school contexts about current management and governance practices within schools. It is a further aim of this study to determine how much knowledge do educational practitioners have on current transformational policies. Conclusions and recommendations drawn from the empirical research conducted in this study, will offer a useful if limited register of capacity building programmes on school management and governance. These findings can also serve as a database of regional expertise that may be shared across schools in the sample area.

1.6 HYPOTHESIS

The research hypothesis of this study is formulated as follows:

Hypothesis 1: (H₁)

Management practices in schools by principals are inconsistent with the policy of stakeholder participation as enunciated in current education policy documents.

Hypothesis 2: (H₂)

Management practices in schools by principals are neither consistent nor inconsistent with the policy of stakeholder participation as enunciated in current education policy documents.

Hypothesis 3: (H₃)

Management practices in schools by principals are consistent with the policy of stakeholder participation as enunciated in current education policy document.

1.7 PARAMETERS OF STUDY

The study will be limited to a sample of five primary schools in each of the six circuits within the Scottburgh District in the Port Shepstone Region of KwaZulu Natal. The sample population will be limited to educators in schools randomly selected. The respondents will be required to answer questions on other stakeholder involvement in the management and governance of schools. The research questions will elicit responses which comment on management and governance. The aim then is to test the responses against the participative management theory and selected education policy documents to evaluate management practices and policy implementation at schools.

1.8 LIMITATION OF EMPIRICAL INVESTIGATION

It is acknowledged that the empirical investigation is constrained by a number of factors. Firstly, the study focuses on only one delineated aspect of a larger research problem. Although the scope of this investigation was limited to six circuits in the Scottburgh district, this scope was further limited by conditions beyond the control of the researcher. The Dududu circuit was inaccessible at the time of this investigation due to widespread unrest. As a result, schools were officially closed and educators were seconded to schools in other circuits. De Vos (1998:156) acknowledges that there are practical factors which can obstruct the fieldwork or even make it impossible to execute, such as political unrest and an unsuitable social environment.

Although the study was targeted at a cross-section of historically advantaged and disadvantaged schools in rural and urban areas, it concentrated only on primary schools. At the time of this investigation there were 100 such schools in the 6 circuits within the Scottburgh District. It would thus have been an extremely difficult task to visit all the schools.

The targeted subjects themselves are restricted to primary school teachers and excludes stakeholders like parents, learners and the principal. Being in the leadership position, principals were not asked to complete the questionnaire which encompassed questions concerning the role of leadership in the management and governance of schools. Parents were also excluded from the targeted subjects due to their relatively novel positions in the sphere of school governance.

Their lack of experience in educational management and governance and in some instances, illiterate and semi-literate parents would have influenced the reliability of the results. Learners were also excluded from the sample population due to fear of the following:

- * misreading of questions/instructions;
- * misinterpretation of the questions;
- * inexperience to respond to question items;
- * misunderstanding of the questionnaire.

In order to overcome the limitation of having excluded important education stakeholders, such as the principal, the parents and the learners, provisions were made in the research instrument to incorporate questions relating to the excluded stakeholders. These questions were reasonable enough to elicit honest answers which the teacher-respondents could provide.

1.9 STRUCTURE OF THE RESEARCH

The brief orientation in this chapter is followed by a theoretical discussion and literature review on participative management (chapter two). Chapter three offers an overview of education policy documents with specific emphasis on those policy documents which call for a participative management structure. The implications of these policy directives for management and governance of schools are analysed. In chapter four, the methodology and parameters of the empirical research are discussed and this is followed in chapter five by an analysis of the collected data. Chapter six offers conclusions and recommendations for bridging the gap between policy and practice.

1.9 CONCLUSION

This chapter provides an introduction which includes the background of the study. The background serves as a mechanism to identify and evaluate management practices that are inconsistent with the current call for a participative mode of education management and governance. Concepts which are of significance to this study are provided with operational definitions for clarity of use and purpose. The research questions and aims of the research homes in on the essentials and value of this study. The hypothesis is also provided in the orientation chapter. It is acknowledged that no research is all encompassing and therefore, the parameters are also stated so that the significance of this study is given greater contextual focus. The structure of the research provides the reader with what to expect in the ensuing chapters.

CHAPTER 2

PARTICIPATIVE MANAGEMENT: THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK AND LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter reviews divergent theories of educational management so as to provide a conceptual background within which participative management can be framed. The rationale, for the inclusion of a specific theory of educational management for discussion, is twofold. Firstly a theory (for example, the Scientific Management Theory) is reviewed primarily because its assumptions or principles are inconsistent with the participative management theory. Secondly, a management theory (example, the Human Relations Theory) is selected for inclusion in this chapter because it has certain principles or assumptions similar to that of the participative management theory.

By reviewing dichotomous theories of management, a contrastive framework is provided as a yardstick to evaluate whether a paradigm shift in school management is indeed needed. A review of both national and international literature will be done, in an attempt to provide a multi-dimensional discourse in terms of the values and limitations of diverse management theories which may have impacted or contributed to a paradigm shift in educational management.

Participative management, as a theoretical framework, draws essentially on two seemingly contradictory theories of management: systems theory and human relations theory. These theories will be discussed briefly in order to establish the philosophical foundations on which participative management is formulated. Participative management attempts to find a balance between a view of the school as part of a larger, unified socio-cultural, economic and political entity with specific emphasis on governance, *and* emphasising the individual in relation to management.

The scientific theory of management will be discussed as a contrastive frame of reference for the discussion on participative management. The rest of the chapter will focus on a review of the principles, foundations and features of participative management. The chapter will conclude with

a literature review of the benefits of participative management.

2.2. THEORIES OF MANAGEMENT

Contemporary writers such as Keith and Girling (1991), Caldwell and Spinks (1993) and McLagan and Nel (1995) argue that management theories have to be compatible with current democratic values in order to impact positively on the success of an organization. Poster and Day (1988: 1) demonstrate that educationalists in England and Wales, for example, far from being trapped in outmoded methods and content, have actively engaged with trainers from industry and commerce and have adapted some of their methods to meet the particular needs of the school. They acknowledge, however, the need for continued improvement in management within a context that is rapidly and radically changing.

Gray (1982: 2) provides an overview of various systems of education management. In the United States the school system is decentralized into School Boards, separately elected, and the primary management concern is with the administration of the local system as a whole. In the UK, school systems are a part of the local government system and the education department is a unit of local government. Schools in the UK tend to be more independent of politics and the heads have been, almost autonomous in the management of their institutions.

Gray (*ibid*) goes on to elaborate that in other parts of the world, educational systems tend to follow a pattern copied from one of the European systems, even where there was no colonialism, simply because nineteenth and twentieth century history was dominated by the European powers. At any rate, African and Asian systems tend to be centrally administered, highly structured, authoritarian and paternal and greatly vulnerable to economic and political change and influence. As a consequence, Gray (*ibid*) claims, many African and Asian educators are looking for a theory of universal application to administration rather than, like the English, a theory which helps the head run a school. Below is a review of selected management theories.

2.2.1 Scientific Management Theory

According to Roe and Drake (1980: 55), the theory of scientific management was first spelt out in detail by Taylor (1911), known as the 'Father of Scientific Management'. His recurring theme was that management was a true science based on clearly defined principles and laws. Keith and Girling (1991: 12) aver that management was thus concerned with improving the efficiency of the work process. Taylor (1911), espoused the belief that there is 'one best way' of performing any work task (Haralambos, 1987: 311). The job of management was to discover this way by applying scientific principles to the design of work procedures. The chief concern was to find efficient ways to maximise productivity.

Research (Miles, 1975; Haralambos, 1989, 1991) indicates that the scientific management theory begins with the assumption that man's primary motivation for work is economic and he will thus respond positively to financial incentives. According to Miles (1975: 36), Taylorism draws, first of all, on writings of nineteenth-century philosophers and their popular interpreters. The Social Darwinists', particularly Spencer (1911), argued strongly that with man, as with other species, not only do the fittest survive but they *should* survive. On the other hand, those who failed to succeed gave evidence either of their basic lack of ability or their unwillingness to apply it vigorously.

The theory of scientific management, according to Keith and Girling (*ibid*) spread rapidly in the early twentieth century and played a fundamental role in influencing education administrators in countries like America and New Zealand for example. Smyth (1993: 160) points out that one of the manifestations, of the cult of efficiency, as described by Callahan (1962), which is worth noting for its contemporary significance, was the fanatical preoccupation with recording and reporting. Smyth (*ibid*), commenting on American schools, elaborates that:

'Efficiency had to be not only done, but it had to be seen to be done. Efficiency was to be continually demonstrated through the incessant production of records and reports. Educational cost accounting became the order of the day. Teachers were required to keep records, accounting for every hour and every day of the week. Administrators were

forever occupied in writing reports and policy statements... there was less and less time for teaching, and schools became places of tedium, ritualistic order and bland routine. Ironically, they became less and less 'efficient' in an educational sense.'

Smyth (1993: 160)

Hence, in the American education system, teaching was approached as a management problem involving the drawing up of lesson plans, constructing materials and evaluating according to predetermined objectives derived from the behaviourist psychology. Keith *et al.* (1991: 13) argues that by focusing exclusively on improving the techniques of work, scientific management neglects other important dimensions of management. These were recognized by other management theories such as the systems theory of management and the human relations theory, which will be discussed later.

The concepts embedded in scientific management theory were developed in the industrial and commercial sectors of the economy during the early part of the twentieth century and were indiscriminately applied in educational institutions. According to Haralambos (1987: 323) schools were likened to factories in which children were regarded as raw materials to be fashioned into products to meet the demands of society and life. Those who organized and managed schools according to the scientific management theory yielded to the indiscriminate application of these business concepts rather than develop approaches that fit the unique characteristics of individuals engaged in teaching and learning (*ibid*).

The scientific rationale that greater efficiency results in greater productivity, resulted in three noteworthy principles, namely the principle of reward and punishment (Paisey, 1992: 155), the principle of co-operation (Ross & Mahlick, 1990: 68), and the personal selection principle (Hoyle & McMahon, 1986: 233).

Paisey (1992: 155) argues that in order to promote *efficiency*, Taylor hoped to capture the 'initiative' of employees, which consists of their goodwill and acceptance of management, their willingness to work hard, and the placement of their ingenuity in the services of management

through highly individualized rewards. Hence, the principle of reward and punishment was introduced. Extra bonus received by workers, therefore, became a vital aspect of scientific management in that, by this means, workers came to accept the rights of management to manage while being conditioned to carrying out orders.

Drawing on the scientific principle of reward and punishment, Miles (1975: 144) argues that extrinsic motivational techniques, are adopted to improve organisational effectiveness and efficiency. Progress at the lower level of the management hierarchy is verified through inspection (in the case of pupils - testing) , ensuring that the plan of action is being followed, providing for corrective action when necessary, and keeping others at the top level of the hierarchy informed.

Communication remains within a unidirectional framework. Dictation rather than dialogue remains the operative communicative mechanism and reproach as opposed to approach remains the social managerial stance. Reflecting on the scientific management theory, Miles (1975: 102) claims that communications flowing downward is primarily made up of orders, directives, and instructions. This top-down approach to managing educational institutions alienates administrative personnel from the practitioners and thus, creates an ethos of disharmony and hegemony which ultimately affects the culture of teaching and learning.

According to Ross & Mahlck (1990: 68), the cooperation principle of scientific management infers that workers should cooperate with managers to ensure that work is done in accordance with the principles dictating how it should be. Thus, duties are allocated so that managers assume responsibility for the key tasks of *planning, preparation and supervision*. Haralambos (1987: 312) claims that work, therefore, becomes dehumanized as workers, constrained by management directives, simply 'function as cogs and levers'.

Miles (1975: 52) identifies similar management trends when he states that the manager or his staff assistants are responsible for determining not only the precise duties for each job, but also for establishing standard procedure and methods for carrying them out. Hence, the organizational structure reflects a division of labour wherein each member is assigned specific tasks and given directions to carry out their duties accordingly.

According to Hoyle and McMahon (1985: 233), the personnel selection principle of the scientific management theory espouses the view that once the specific job requirements have been analysed, the manager can scientifically select and train workers appropriately to do the job. Consequently, control of organizational members is embodied in the organization's structure and accountability is channelled through this, using job-specific criteria for evaluating effectiveness. According to Haralambos (1987), Ross & Mahlek (1990), Keith and Girling, (1991), managers know their location within the power hierarchy and chain of command, and their job specifications define as much what they cannot do as what they can do. Thus, the hierarchy of control is maintained simultaneously through formal structures and task definitions and through informal but visible signs of status and stratification

Applying the scientific management theory to schools, implies that rules and regulations, within schools, had to be followed with regimental rigidity. Neither the teachers nor the pupils question the curriculum content but cooperate with curriculum designers through implementation (by teachers) and passive acceptance (by pupils) of the status quo. This mode of education management finds expression in the passive model of human behaviour. This passive model of human behaviour limits the teacher's role to that of a mere 'technician' whose main task is to transmit knowledge formulated by 'experts' to patient, listening objects. Education thus becomes an act of depositing, in which the students are the depositories. Freire (1982: 47) calls this the 'banking concept' of education which regards men as adaptable, manageable beings.

The personnel selection principle discussed above, when applied to the school context has a significant impact on promotions and selection of principals, including heads of department. A teacher's promotion, for example, is determined by the extent of his or her academic and professional qualifications and by members seated on the uppermost level of the management hierarchy. Haralambos (1987: 175) states that a student's opportunity in the economy is based on the educational institutions meritocratic policies. Their conduct is assessed against the yardstick of the school rules which have to be adhered to at all times and status is achieved on the basis of merit. Schools foster the value of differential rewards for differential achievements (*ibid*). The educational system therefore, serves as an important mechanism for the selection of individuals for their future role in society. The management of the above educational policies are

enforced with minimal stakeholder participation and maximum bureaucratic influence and direction.

Although the scientific management approach influenced management styles until the early 1930, it had recognizable limitations. Keith and Girling (1991: 13) claim that with the focus on efficiency and productivity, the scientific management theory was more suited to a factory-type organization rather than to a school with complex functions to carry out and provide multiple services according to individual and community needs. More importantly however, was the limited focus of scientific management on the factors that actually affect both the efficiency and overall effectiveness of an organization (*ibid*).

Wilkinson and Cave (1987: 12) argue that scientific management seriously underplays the human element in organisational life. By focussing exclusively on improving the techniques of work, scientific management neglects other important dimensions of management. The assumptions encompassed in the scientific management theory reflects the view that managers can observe, gather data and scientifically measure the needs of a given job to determine the one best way that it should be performed. The adoption of this theory of management in the school context is indeed contrary to the principles of inclusivity and collaborative decision-making (as manifested in current policy documentation for educational transformation). It provides a rigid structure of authority (evident in Bantu Education) through which work can be defined and coordinated to implement the manager's plan.

The bureaucratic structure of schools is directly responsible for the domination of one social group over another (Dekker *et al.*, 1994: 400). Being in a position to impose its set of values as the only valid one, the dominant group effectively perpetuates and maintains its domination over the subordinates. Harling (1984: 9) is of the opinion that a bureaucratic approach fails to recognize the effects of the presence of personnel with 'professional' tendencies and orientations on the process of leadership and decision-making in education.

According to Smyth (1993 : 12), advocates of school-based management have long argued that in education systems which have been characterised by highly centralized bureaucracies, schools

should be granted a significant level of autonomy in making decisions about such matters as curriculum, finances and resources, staffing and school policy. A measure of authority should be appropriately devolved from central administration to the school level. The bureaucracy, according to the argument, would then become more responsive to the needs of schools and their communities, and would facilitate the realization of school-determined priorities rather than impose centrally mandated ones.

2.2.2 Systems Theory

According to Keith and Girling (1991: 15), the systems theory of management advocates that the manager views the organization as a unified system. In terms of this theory, the school as an organization is like an organism composed of a variety of subsystems, all of which are interrelated. Moreover, a change in one subsystem is likely to result in changes in other subsystems. Two types of systems may occur, namely open and closed systems. Key characteristics of an open system are identified by Roe and Drake (1980: 33) as follows:

- * The system seeks to accomplish agreed goals
- * The system operates as a collection of interdependent parts.
- * The parts maintain a strong state of equilibrium with each other by means of standard modes of operation.
- * The system responds to feedback from the environment on outcomes.

Open systems are responsive to changes from the environment. They are permeable and flexible and are influenced by the demands to adjust to external needs. Thus, feedback from the outside is an important component of the systems theory. This presupposes the systems accountability to respond to environmental influences. Roe and Drake (1980: 27) are of the opinion that when we look at schools as open systems, we see that inputs of energy feed the central teaching and learning process leading to desired outputs which in turn contribute to further energetic inputs

maintaining a cyclical transaction between the school and its environment. The Systems Theory suggests that interacting people, structures and processes all should serve the purposes of the total school. The school in turn interrelates with its environment and resides within the larger educational system.

Hargreaves & Hopkins (1994: 57) reaffirms this by stating that schools are only one component part of education systems. The performance of schools is dependent upon the support and the materials that are delivered to them by other parts of the system. Schools are responsible for the performance of individual programmes and policies within the resource constraints and support that is provided. According to Haralambos, (1987: 99), value consensus is essential for the survival of the social system. From shared values derive collective goals, that is goals shared by all members of society.

Closed systems, on the other hand, are inflexible and less immune to external pressures. Both closed and open systems may simultaneously exist within the school. Hence, if adopted, the Systems Theory may be used by school managers as an analytical tool with which to analyse, evaluate and interpret the interaction among various sub-systems within the school. Wilkinson and Cave (1987:25) postulate the view that this theory provides a metaphor and framework which illustrate the complexity of the school which comprises of a variety of sub-systems.

Roe and Drake (1980: 58) suggest that the most obvious subsystems are visible in the formal aspects of the school, namely, its structures, arrangements, planned relationships, and other durable features which have been created. The resources available within the school could also be regarded as a subsystem, including people, plant, equipment, finance, ideas and expertise. However, they emphasise that there are significant but less evident subsystems which have considerable impact on the activities of the school. Here, reference is made to the social subsystem which is created by the informal networks, the shared norms and values, and the unique characteristics, goals and strategies.

According to Roe and Drake (*ibid*) the interaction of these subsystems constitutes the technology through which the school seeks to achieve its purposes and objectives. This interaction is based

on value consensus. In view of this interaction, managers need good interpersonal skills to facilitate and consolidate dialogue and negotiations among various sub-systems. Furthermore, in pursuit of the objectives of the system, some form of control is necessary so that whilst each sub-system retains control of its own activities, together they contribute to the development and growth of the entire system.

Keith and Girling (1991: 15) advocate that the Systems Theory presents a holistic perspective on the organisation, encourages managers to view their work from this vantage point, and focuses on organizational relationships. However, they argue, it lacks perspective on the individual with the organization. While the Systems Theory has been a powerful movement in management thinking, its emphasis on the system as opposed to the individual, is a major shortcoming in modern society. This theme is taken up in the Human Relation Theory below.

2.2.3 Human Relations Theory

Everard (1986: 110) claims that the Human Relations theory, is characterized by respect for the individual and other human values, job breadth, consultation, consensus, decentralization, loose project organization, flexible procedures, multidirectional communication, management by objectives and a participative approach. Thus, the manager is encouraged to allow his subordinates greater involvement so that they will be more diligent in effecting and increasing productivity and also more willing to cooperate in carrying out his directives. Silver (1983: 126) asserts, that systems orientation incorporates actions that are intended to clarify roles of the participants, establish patterns of interaction among the participants, specify and delineate the tasks to be accomplished, and focus participants' energies in the direction of organizational goals.

This theory appears to be a good deal more attractive to schools, particularly because, according to Miles (1975: 39), recognition is given to individual needs, wants and desires. Involvement and participation are concepts which offer a positive management morale. Wilkinson *et al.* (1987: 13), referring to this theory claim, that democracy and participative decision-making became the watchwords. A strong support for open forms of management developed, based on the belief that if staff perceived that there is honest communication and their views were fully considered when

decision were made, they would have greater commitment.. Raymond (1984: 43) however, argues that because participation is conceptualized, by the Human Relations Theory, primarily as a means of promoting *feelings* of belonging and importance, involvement is limited to issues of concern about department members but not necessarily central to actual work tasks.

Miles, (1975), regards the scientific and the systems theories of management as *traditional* theories which directs the manager's behaviour towards a systems-orientated approach in order to fulfil and accomplish the tasks of the social system or organization. Paisey (1992: 132) is of the opinion that a great deal of the misunderstanding in education arises because people think of management as being concerned *only* with the objective - with measuring output and being accountable on the basis of measurable results. In an attempt to emphasise this point, he quotes the following passage from the International Labour Office in Geneva:

'Because management deals with human beings, it can never be completely scientific, and must be regarded partly as an art. The reason for this is that while scientific techniques are applied to materials governed by known physical laws, the techniques of management are applied to people and must rely on people to ensure that they are properly applied. They can only be successfully applied by someone who has learned to understand people by experience of dealing with them.'

It would appear from the discussion above, that the scientific theory requires the manager to do the thinking and the worker to do the 'doing'. In the human relations theory 'doing' is limited to creating an environment for better social relations and more efficient organizations. Both the scientific management and the human relations theory have been strongly attacked for what has been regarded as *pro-management* bias. With reference to these two theories, Haralambos, (1987: 232) states:

'...critics have argued that its priorities are those of management, that the problems it seeks to solve are those for which managers require solutions. Thus the managerial tradition has been concerned with increasing organizational efficiency and raising productivity... when workers needs have been considered, it has been in terms of these priorities'

Participative management is viewed as an extension of the human relations theory. Both the manager and the managed are required to do the thinking and the 'doing'. However, unlike the human relations theory, the type of thinking and doing in participative management is significant in influencing the most fundamental assumptions that guide the organization and help to determine the values, goals, and strategies. Participation therefore, has the purpose of personal, individual development and growth which in turn results in development and growth of the system. The individual becomes part-owner of the system rather than remain a guardian of the system.

2.3 PARTICIPATIVE MANAGEMENT AS A THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK: FOUNDATIONS, PRINCIPLES AND FEATURES

Although no literature has been found on participative management as a specific theoretical framework, this study attempts to place participative management within a theoretical framework by drawing essentially from other theories of management such as the human relations theory, the human resource theory and the systems theory. This is further developed by reflecting on participative management processes adopted in self-managing schools (Caldwell & Spinks: 1988; 1993), self-developing schools (Bayne-Jardine & Holly: 1994) and site-based management (Leithwood, Begley & Cousins: 1992 34)

The main thrust, however, places emphasis on *democratic* participation, especially at the level of school management and governance, through mechanism such as co-operation, networking and the articulation of the needs and interests of education stakeholders. Kelly (1995: xv) argues that:

'democracy as a political concept is not confined simply to issues of control and decision-making. It is not merely a mechanism for the election of governments (school councils). Far beyond that, it is also a moral concept; it encapsulates a system of moral values which set the parameters within which control must be exercised and determine the kinds of decisions that can and cannot be made.'

Paisey (1992: 122) subscribes to the view that democracy is concerned with ends in that the actual decision made should result only from a decision-making process which is shared by all those who

are to be affected by those decisions. Thus, the primary factors in democracy are participation and consent. Kelly (1995: 141) warns that Plato's hostility to democracy, cannot be overlooked as it is prompted by his view that the management of a (school) society is too complex a task to be left to people who lack the knowledge and the skills to carry it out effectively. It is logical to identify with Plato's hostility, especially in the context where transformation is problematic particularly because of the lack of experience, knowledge and skills of those caught in novel positions of governing contemporary schools. It is argued though, that it becomes necessary to transcend such hostility in pursuit of democratic transformation.

The *system of moral values* which Kelly (*ibid*) refers to, is incorporated in the foundations of participative management. The foundation is further built on the assumptions of the human resources model that there is, according to Miles (1975:42), an abundance rather than a scarcity in the area of human capabilities, which in turn indicates that the manager's role is not so much one of controlling organisation members as it is of facilitating their performance. If most people, whatever their level of current ability, have untapped resources, the manager's task becomes that of tapping these in the interest of organisational effectiveness and efficiency.

While the human resources theory holds that the purpose for allowing organization members to participate in decisions related to their work is to achieve direct improvements in organizational performance, participative management places emphasis on individual empowerment through participation in organisational decisions and activities. It is further based on the principles of democracy and greatly influenced by considerations deriving from moral and political philosophy

Kelly (1995: xi) argues that there can be no democracy and, indeed, no freedom in a context where the most important aspects of life, and of education, namely those values which underpin both, are treated as given, as non-problematic and as not themselves subjects of the continuing debate, nor, as a consequence, open to modification and change. Hence, the principles and features of participative management focuses on phenomena relative to the South African context, for example, affirmative action, decentralization and transformation.

The *foundations* of participative management are built on the basic assumptions that managers

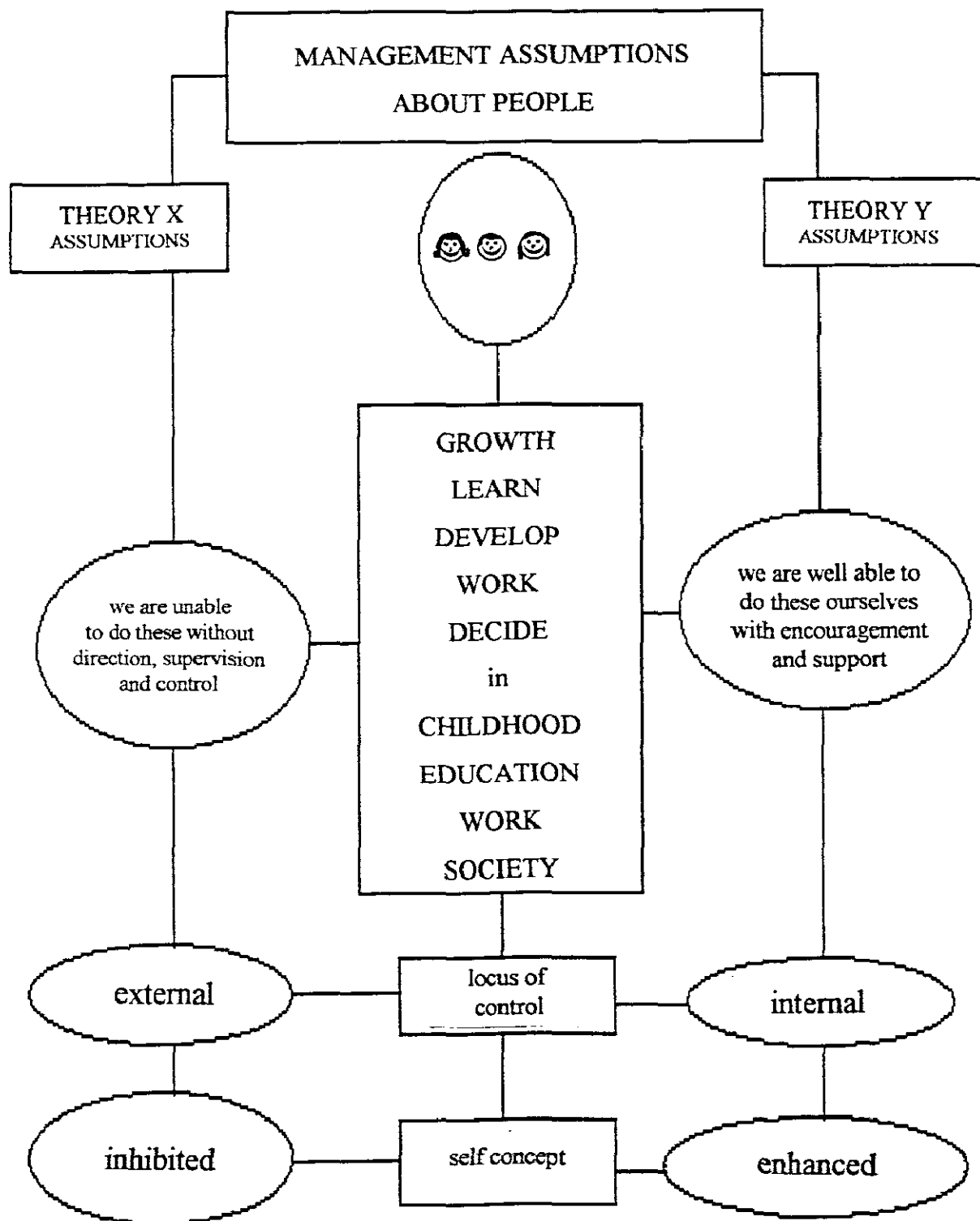
have of people within the organisation. These assumptions influence the way in which managers go about their management tasks. MacGregor (1960) highlighted the powerful effect that assumptions about personhood can have on work and motivation (Whitaker, 1993: 30). MacGregor (*ibid*) posed two contrasting sets of assumptions about people in organizations, referred to Theory X and Theory Y which are discussed below. The *principles* of participative management, will identify the essential components of democratic forms of social organisation. The *features* of participative management will focus on mechanisms required to operationalise a participative mode of management within the education system. These will include multiculturalism, affirmative action and decentralisation.

2.3.1 Foundations of participative management

The foundations of participative management endorses Paisey's (1992: 143) view that since management is concerned in the final analysis with what organization members *are* doing, what they *might* be doing and what they *should* be doing, it is axiomatic that the basis (foundation) of management begins with a set of general assumptions about people in organizations.

2.3.1.1 Management assumptions about people

The diagram below provides an overview of management assumptions about people which have been codified by MacGregor (1967) under two heads, namely Theory X and Theory Y:



Whitaker (1993: 30) state that managers and leaders proceeding from a Theory X position will tend to build management structures and systems designed to: *direct the efforts of staff; control their actions; modify their behaviour to fit organizational needs*. They will also adopt interpersonal behaviour towards staff that is characterized by persuasion, reward or punishment, instruction and command. Similar trends are identified in the Scientific Management theory. On the contrary, managers who espouse Theory Y assumptions will tend to build management structures and systems designed to: *make it possible for people to develop, seek responsibility, take risks, set ambitious targets and challenges*. The above are two polarized views of people and work.

According to Theory X, people dislike work and try to avoid it. They have to be bribed, coerced and controlled and even threatened with punishment to perform adequately. Keith and Girling (1991: 20) concur that Theory X, which is based on Taylorism and the traditional hierarchical organizational structure, assumes that the average person does not like to work and will avoid doing so if possible. Therefore, people must be coerced with rewards and punishments and carefully supervised and directed by authority figures in the work setting. In such a situation, external motivation plays an important part in increasing productivity. Managers subscribing to Theory X thus, assume that most people lack ambition, prefer to be led and wish to avoid responsibility.

Paisey (1992: 143) argues that Theory X is pessimistic in tone. Those who take a Theory X position, expect little from the generality of people in terms of creative capacity and ability. He further claims that one of the manifestations of Theory X is seen in the autocratic behaviour of the individual who enforces his own pre-determined decisions by manipulative means which compel alienative or calculative responses in others. A technicist approach to management is thus adopted, which may be argued, is contradictory to participative management.

According to Theory Y, Whitaker (1993: 31) argues, people do like work and do not have to be threatened. If allowed to pursue objectives to which they are committed, most people will work hard and not only accept responsibility, but actively seek it. Hence, people have a natural ability to change and adapt accordingly. Keith and Girling (1991: 21) claim that Theory Y asserts that

people are anxious to do a good job, seek learning opportunities and stimulation in the workplace, and want to assume increasing amounts of responsibility.

Keith (*ibid*) subscribes to the view that to harness these impulses, the organization of work itself, along with the work environment, need to stimulate the expression and use of imagination by all employees. Therefore, the management style associated with Theory Y should be open, involve employees in identifying as well as solving problems, and give employees the opportunity to make decision that directly affect their work.

Paisey (1992: 143) sees Theory Y as optimistic in tone. For this reason, he believes that those who take a 'Theory Y' position expect much from others, believing in their creative capacity, participative willingness and potential reliability and application to work, given the right contextual conditions in the organisation. He sees the manifestation of Theory Y in the practice of genuine delegation to appropriate sub-groups whose majority decisions are accepted and implemented. The person with the power to delegate simply identifies the problem for the appropriate group and then participates personally in free discussion until a consensus or majority opinion is established. The foundations of participative management, leans heavily on the Theory Y continuum of management assumptions about people.

Therefore, what undergirds participative management, is the assumption that in order for an organization to produce successful outcomes, its members need to be sufficiently empowered. Slaughter (1989: 265) is of the opinion that this is a process which enables organisational members to feel deeply involved in the process of cultural reconstruction and renewal. The processes involved in the management of organisations, however, need to be performed in a manner that develops and stimulates all four of the following unique characteristics of the human being:

- *homo loquens* - talking man
- *homo sapiens* - thinking man
- *homo faber* - creating man
- *homo ludens* - playing man

Van der Stoep en Louw (1983: 61)

2.3.1.2 Valuing human beings

Southworth and Yeomans (1989: 49) in their study of relationships in the primary school, share the belief that '*every individual should be perceived and treated as unique and valuable*'. According to Whitaker (1993:114), a proper respect for individualism is a characteristic of an effective management culture and the leadership challenge is thus all about the harnessing of different patterns of knowledge, skills and qualities in pursuit of organizational goals. The multi-faceted data collection from diverse individuals, enhances the quality of information required for management practices and policy implementation.

Freier (1972: 48) supports this view in his claim that '*man's ontological vocation is humanization. However, man is living in an age when machines have demonstrated their ability to perform many tasks better than their creators.*' Therefore, it remains for managers to maximize the human beings own strongest forte, that is, his humanity. Furthermore, Du Plooy, Griessel and Oberholzer (1991: 106) convincingly argue that those who feel called to aid the young in becoming aware of, and equipping themselves for the obligations of future adulthood, must treat their charges as human beings, realizing that their pupils are not tools being shaped for a specific end, but animate beings who are acquiring awareness of their responsibility. In the current climate of transformation, this philosophy cannot be limited to policy programmes and practice at the level of classroom management only, but should permeate every level of educational management and governance.

The existential perception which emerged in the nineteenth century, that '*existence precedes essence*' reinforces the view that education managers need to create variant opportunities to allow for the full development of the full potential of members at every level of governance (Kelly 1995). It is only when the individual realises his potential through active participation in crucial educational matters, does his *essence* as a human being become fully actualized.

Kelly (1995: 64) promotes the imperative that each person must be defined as an individual and not as a mere representative of some larger group, and each individual must be encouraged to define him or herself in this way. This is the significance of Sartre's (1952) assertion, as cited by

Kelly (*ibid*), that existence precedes essence: the individual first exists as an individual. What he or she becomes is his or her own responsibility and choice. While collectivity, partnership and networking are important concepts in the participative management paradigm, the implication of Sarte's assertion for participative management, is that opportunities must be made available for the promotion of individualism.

This then, arguably, becomes the foundation on which the building blocks for a partnership, in managing education systems, can evolve. Support for this view is found in Poster and Day's (1988: 201) acknowledgement that both the individual as well as the system have needs which are often found to be in conflict. However, they claim that in-service educators bring the needs of the system and those of the individual closer together. It is within the system that opportunities for growth and development of individuals can be created. Poster *et. al.* (*ibid*) thus, maintain that in addition to helping teachers develop ways of changing the system, in-service educators must also assist the system to find ways of actively helping its teachers to develop.

Wyn and Guditus (1984:10) warn that mechanistic organisations, with their precisely defined limits of self-contained job responsibility and rigid interaction-influence systems, fail to tap their own abundant reservoir of talent. This view is echoed by Paisey (1992: 124) who claims that such management structures articulate fixed positions and prescribed subordinate-superordinate relations and do not provide for change. Subsequently, asymmetrical relations and dysfunctional organisations evolve. Jenkins (1991: 165) insists that machiavellian and manipulative techniques be abandoned by school leaders. They have to be replaced by open collaboration and negotiation because management, in Jenkins's view, is mainly about, among others, valuing human beings and making their strengths effective and their weaknesses irrelevant.

2.3.1.3 Developing productive skills

According to Theory Y man, as *homo loquens* (talking man), cannot be regarded as passive recipients of directives and dictates by managers who reduce them to objects of manipulation. Manipulative management practices creates what Perry (1966), as cited by Schoefield (1980: 179), describes as an 'irresistible spell' (prominent within the realms of autocratic organizations)

which binds the minds of the indoctrinated and reduces them to a state of 'hypnotic fixation'. Schoefield (*ibid*) claims that a particular way of thinking is inculcated, and this in turn manifests itself in a total way of life. A 'tunnel vision' is hereby developed in the individual and this results in what Marx (Haralambos, 1987: 42) calls 'false consciousness'. This means that a false picture is created of the nature of the relationship between the manager and the managed. People are thus turned into automatons - the very negation of their ontological vocation to be more fully human. Their subservient status within the organisation is regarded as natural. Subsequently, the dichotomous relationship between the manager and the subordinate is entrenched and sustained.

Hargreaves & Hopkins (1994: 133) cite Barth (1990) who states that what is dangerous and self-defeating about the gap between the manager and the managed, is the mind-set that informs it. One directs and dictates and the other listens and follows. It is an approach paralleling Theory X, which encourages someone to do something to someone else: it is about control rather than development and growth. This leads to what Paisey (1992: 55) calls the 'top-down' strategy which is essentially *prescriptive* in nature. Objectives in this case emanate from a single individual: characteristically the head of school - or a very small group of senior staff. By a hard process of telling and directives or the softer process of selling and consultations, each sub-group and finally each individual is obliged or is persuaded to adopt them. This approach to management is in direct contradiction to the participative taxonomy of management.

Freire (1972) emphatically resonates that to alienate people from their own decision making is to change them into objects. He implores that to be fully human is to be a subject, a decision-maker and not an object. This view was also expressed by one of the most outstanding educationist of the seventeenth century, namely Comenius (1592-1670), who argued that '*man is not a block of wood from which you carve a statue which is completely subject to your will, he is a living image, shaping, misshaping and reshaping itself*'. Despite the rejection of rigid control mechanism in school management, such control mechanisms are evident in organisations where the scientific theory of management is adopted. Hence, a dysfunctional and counter-productive organisation evolves because it stunts the development and growth of personhood.

A strong for a 'bottom-up' approach to education management is made by Poster and Day

(1988). According to them, objectives in the bottom-up approach to management are articulated and refined by a process which begins with the personal objectives of individual members. It continues at the levels of persuasion and compromise when working groups within the organization, such as teams or departments in schools arrive at a collective view. All such views are then synthesized and negotiated to form a set of shared objectives for the organization as a whole.

This strategy, therefore, formally takes account of the interests of everyone and seeks to express objectives in terms of the wishes and perceptions of the current membership of the organization. Poster *et. al.* (*ibid*) firmly believe that partnership grows when the partners are willing to cede some of their autonomy by encouraging and harnessing widescale *participation*. Leithwood, Begley and Cousins (1992: 142) warn that without the school leader's willingness to equitably distribute power for decision-making among members of the school (and teachers willingness to accept the power thus offered), true collaboration seems unlikely.

Participative management endorses Comenius's (*ibid*) philosophy of what man is not and serves to provide opportunities for the development of productive skills through dialectical discourse. Organizational members can thereby assess and expose the truth by discussion and disputation. Democratic principles of freedom of expression are therefore regarded as essential to participative management. This view is expressed by various contemporary writers such as Whitaker (1993), Hargreaves and Hopkins (1994) and McLagan and Nel (1995).

2.3.1.4 Developing receptive skills

Continuous discussion and disputation results in stimulating Van der Stoep and Louw's (*ibid*) second characteristic of man, namely man as *homo sapiens* (thinking man). Descartes's (1920) famous philosophical aphorism '*I think, therefore I am*' is an urgent appeal to mankind to engage in metacognition, which according to Plato (1974) and Socrates (1954), is a kind of 'pondering reflection'. Freire (1972) incarnates a rediscovery of the humanizing vocation of the intellectual, and demonstrates the power of thought, to negate accepted limits and open the way to a new future. In participative organisations, the managed becomes critical co-investigators in dialogue

with the manager. The importance of thinking is also highlighted by Socrate's maieutic method (Barrow, 1983: 21). He used this method to teach his contemporaries how to think for themselves with the purpose of liberating the mind from mental fixation.

Participative management endorses this method because in a democracy, it becomes important to urge contemporary society to think about the principles that govern their lives. This view is supported by Kelly (1995: 112) who claims that the development of the capacity for autonomous thinking is a major part of the process of individual empowerment which is also seen to be a crucial function of education in a democratic context.

Gordon (1994: 45) warns managers about the consequences of the lack of thought when he states that in a democracy where there is little thinking, the bureaucrats begin to reign uncontested since the cliches that guide their work will never be challenged. He therefore insists that, when democracy tends towards facism, participative management should play a subversive role in educating people on how not to support such trends, how to reject them and how to disobey those who promote them. The development of receptive skills therefore have an important function in the management and governance of schools.

2.3.1.5 Developing inquiry skills

The stimulation of a response against oppression (non-participation) requires the *homo faber* (creating man) to emerge. Man needs to create innovative ways in which to subvert the psychology of fatalism manifested in autocratic institutions so as to liberate the self. Existentialists, such as Buber (1958), are in agreement with this view when they state that '*freedom is neither a goal nor an ideal. It is the potential for action.*' The development of inquiry skills become critical to ensure that education stakeholders are not complacent in the performance of their duties and functions. They need to take an active role in seeking information and questioning processes and policies which are questionable. The philosophical assumption of existentialism namely, '*I am what I do*' suggests that the individual is responsible for shaping his own world. Schools therefore need to adopt management modes that provides opportunities for active participation in policy decisions.

An individual who feel subordinate within an organization, would have to assume full responsibility for his oppression because of his failure to actively participate in transcending his diminutive status. Therefore, participative management embraces Sarte (1952) assumption that *'to be is to act and to cease to be is to cease to act'*. People in participative organizations are required to act on the environment to effect change, rather than expect to fit in.

2.3.1.6 Developing flexible attitudes

Participative management requires the traditional manager to step down from, what Fullan (1991) calls, his 'ivory tower' of authoritarianism in order to embrace the principles of democracy. The result would be a humbling experience that serves to reduce egocentricism which is so pronounced in the scientific model of management. As difficult as it may sound, it is the writer's considered opinion, that any manager, even those who espouse aristocratic attitudes of superiority, is capable of successfully achieving this because of the innate characteristic of man as *homo ludens* (playing man).

By acknowledging and exploiting this characteristic, harmonious and more manageable environments can be created. Morphet, Roe and Reller (1982), Wynn and Guditus (1984), and Jenkins (1991), are all in agreement that organizational success depends upon the effectiveness of all its members, working in harmony. The participative mode of management seeks to reduce the anguish, stress and strain of everyday life in the workplace by acknowledging what Van der Stoep and Louw (*ibid*) call *homo ludens* as a stress-reducing characteristic of man.

In their study, Dekker and Lemmer (1994: 424) offer another perspective when they state that humour often empowers one to distance oneself from one's own certainties, to question one's own position and to reconsider a particular stance. When such an attitude prevails, it releases creative thinking and often creates new possibilities. A sense of humour is a valuable resource for any manager to have because, according to Dekker and Lemmer (*ibid*), it can assist, to a certain extent, to ease the tension that may build up in complex organizations.

In their study of staff relationships in three primary schools, Nias, Southworth and Yeomans

(1989: 85-87) observed that humour was actively used by principals and teachers to create and maintain a sense of belonging by making work and interaction with colleagues pleasurable fun. Their research revealed that humour also encourages people to admit openly to their own failings and so avoid the tensions and frictions which could arise from defensiveness. The *homo ludens* of man serves as a contributory factor in achieving sound human relations during the day-to-day management of an organisation. It becomes imperative therefore, for managers to develop flexible attitudes so that they are able to deal with different situations in the most appropriate manner

Management and governance practices, that aim to suppress any or all of the above characteristic of a human being, are in effect a violation of an individual's basic human rights. It contributes to a degenerative rather than a progressive organization. Participative organisations aim to develop the whole person, and enhances the overall climate and atmosphere of the school which can be seen as invaluable crucibles for the personal efficacy of all those who work and learn there. Hence, the organisation is built around the contribution of skill of people, not on fixed roles (Jenkins 1991: 151)

2.3.2 Principles of participative management

2.3.2.1 Leadership

It would be a misrepresentation of participative management to suggest that only school principals are leaders in the school and everyone else merely follows and adapts according to his or her principal's leadership style. A review of literature on leadership will be done, with particular emphasis on the school principal. The following discussion will be done with special emphasis on the principal as a leader.

(a) Leader as catalyst for transformation

Evidence of leadership provided by various authors such as Sergiovanni (1984), Caldwell and Spinks (1993), Bennis and Nanus (1985), and Bayne-Jardine and Holly (1994) reveal that leadership is one of the most important features in the management of educational institutions. In

Caldwell and Spinks's (1988; 1993) view, it is the leader who serves as *catalyst* to the implementation of transformation.

It must be emphasised the principal's *role* as a leader extends beyond the implementation of transformatory policies to effect participative management. Here, the focus is not on duty that results from his *role*, but on his role which results from specific tasks for which he is primarily responsible. In other words role in general, is not a static designation but becomes a dynamic entity which shifts in relation to primary tasks performed at any given moment.

(b) Leader as co-partner

Once the policies are in place, the school principal becomes a *co-partner* in collaborative decision-making and governance. Wynn and Guditus (1984: 33) provide a useful perspective of leadership and participation. They perceptively state that:

'Sharing the decision-making in an organization does not imply abdication of the leadership responsibilities of the administrator. What it does require is a different attitude toward management and a heavier reliance on conceptual and interpersonal skills. Leadership in a participatively managed organization is not finding out in which direction the crowd is going and then running to get to the head of it. It is, among other things, being able to redefine effectively the institution's mission and being able to take a philosophically sound stand on major issues that confront the organization. It involves collective leadership that is designed to promote the growth of each member of the group.'

In the South African context where greater pressure is placed on school leaders as a result of, among other, increased power granted to learners, educators and parents, it becomes important to reiterate Wynn and Guditus's statement that *'sharing the decision making ... does not imply abdication of the leadership responsibilities of the administrator'*. On the contrary, *'what it does require is a different attitude toward management and a heavier reliance on conceptual and interpersonal skills'*. This view is acknowledged by a number of contemporary writers on school leadership as discussed in this study.

(c) Leader as participative manager

Gray (1982: 103) states that the key attribute of the effective principal, is the skill he displays in personal relationships and the effectiveness of his human relations. Thus, the capacity to work with and through others, assumes paramount importance. His role is thus, transformed from exclusive leader to co-partner by developing mechanisms to broaden participation in management processes. This is contrary to the management style displayed by the traditional, or as Keith (1991: 62) calls it, the *heroic* leader who adopted the technicist mode of controlling the system. Of significance is that the leader's role as a *participative manager* is weighed with additional *functions* in the sense that it extends beyond the functions, tasks and duties afforded to the co-partners of the school.

(d) Leader as mediator

It is acknowledged that schools consist of individuals with divergent views and interests. Conflict situation are inevitable as co-partners engage in negotiations, discussion and disputation. To promote the principle of impartiality, the principal has to be a *mediator* rather than take a bias position.¹⁴ Hence, the school leader should take cognisance of Leithwood, Begley and Cousins's (1992: 89-90) views about how, what they regard as, expert leaders of future schools solve problems. Whilst they provide a number of suggestions in respect of collaborative problem solving skills, two dichotomous concepts are noteworthy, namely 'cognitive flexibility' and 'cognitive errors'. In their study on *Developing Expert Leaders for Future Schools*, 'cognitive flexibility' emerged as a noteworthy feature in how experts solved problems both individually and in groups. Leithwood *et al.* (*ibid*) provide three definitions of this concept, but of particular significance to school managers in the current South African climate is the operational example that (1992: 91-92):

'cognitive flexibility is the ability to exercise control over one's own thought processes and feelings, the ability to detect that one has gone down a blind alley and the

¹⁴ See Leithwood, Begley and Cousins (1992) for a table of comparison between expert school leaders' and typical school leaders' problem solving processes.

willingness to back up and consider other alternatives. Cognitive flexibility also means being open to the views of others, not being held hostage by one's own previous experience (eg. not seeing every new problem as just a version of an old problem) and being able to change one's interpretation of a problem when confronted with new information.

It is also important to heed Leithwood's, *et al.* warning that cognitive flexibility never involves what Bolman and Deal (1984) refer to as 'over-responsiveness' or 'spinelessness'. Evidence from research findings by Leithwood *et al. (ibid)*, indicate that typical (traditional) school leaders were inflexible and static in the management styles, as one principal stated: *'I was doing this exact same thing twenty years ago.'* According to the authors above, evidence among typical principals found the kind of cognitive 'errors' associated with inflexible thinking in other fields of activity. Such principals, for example, were prone to set priorities for problem-solving based solely on how emotionally vivid or immediately pressing the problems seemed to be. Keith and Girling (1991: 121) espouse the view that collective problem solving and collaborative decision-making are at the heart of school management. In support of a negotiated settlement, the school principal needs to facilitate consensus among partners. He, therefore, serves as mediator during conflict situations among different interest groups

(e) Leader as initiator of participation

It is the view of many authors (Poster and Day, 1988; Jenkins, 1991 and Paisey, 1992) that it is the leader who should promote a participative ethos. Hence, the leader is assumed to be the **initiator** of participative management who initiates a move towards shared organisational goals. In the participative context, the role of the principal is an all-encompassing one that cannot be defined by means of specific duties and functions. He, therefore, needs to be flexible in his approach to people and to the manner in which he manages the system.

(f) Leader as visionary

Notwithstanding the individual within the school as co-partner, the leader becomes a **visionary**

who identifies and acknowledges the capabilities and expertise of individual partners and matches these with relevant tasks. In this way he allocates the best resources to the relevant areas of need and makes an invaluable contribution to a culture of teaching and learning. The importance of being a visionary is strongly supported by Bennis and Nanus (1985: 174) who claim that it enhances the effectiveness of leadership and provides the leader with insight into a realistic, credible and attractive future for the school.

Leithwood, *et al.* (1992 : 30-31) express the view, that no matter what type of organisation or the conception of leadership, a vision or picture of what the organization ought to be, seems to be vital to the success, especially during turbulent times. Leithwood *et al.* refer to Steven's (1986) study of the visions held by elementary principals and found that principals with more effective patterns or styles of practice had more extensive, detailed, and integrated visions than did principals with less effective styles. It becomes necessary to emphasise that a vision should not be imposed on others who are then coerced into implementing it. It may be initiated by the leader and thereafter, communicated to members of the organisation so that opportunity is created for widescale input. The vision may thereby be enhanced and refined and finally accepted as a result of participation in developing the vision.

Note must be taken, that the above does not mean that it is the leader who articulates a vision for the school which becomes shared by other school members, as revealed by Smyth's (1993: 26-27) critique of Caldwell and Spinks's (1993) perspective. This perspective indicates, that the leader articulates a vision for the school which becomes shared by other school members. Not only is there a lack of appreciation of the importance and complexity of cultural politics, as suggested by Smyth (*ibid*), but also there is a taken-for-granted assumption that the appropriate cultural expectations of those associated with a school will be embodied in the particular values and vision of the leader. He argues that the elitist implication of this view is that not only are leaders more visionary than anyone else, but also they are more trustworthy. This approach seems totally consistent with the traditional management profiles which have attempted to secure the consent of subordinates and build it into otherwise unchanged forms of management control.

The participative management approach adopts Bayne-Jardine and Holly's (1994: 24) view that

'visioning is an effective method of not only climate setting but also uniting the staff as it sets out on the first stages of its developmental journey.' Hence, both the system as well as the individuals within the system are beneficiaries of school leaders who are *visionaries*.

(g) Leader of facilitator of capacity building

In response to the need for staff development programmes, the leader needs to *facilitate* capacity building opportunities. Such opportunities are made available to enhance individual skills and expertise. This view is advocated by Wynn and Guditus (1984: 35) who argue that the strength of a participative approach lies in its potential for developing the leadership abilities of individuals and for creating factors that could act as substitutes for leadership. Participative management, they claim, promotes the latter by helping to bring about, among members of the group, a closer identification with the mission and goals of the institution. This commitment serves to promote group cohesiveness. Keith and Girling (1991: 73) adopt a similar view when they state that identifying and building on the expertise of others, is a salient characteristic of participative leaders.

(h) Leader as critical monitor

The awareness of the current demand for accountability necessitates the leader to become a *critical monitor* of the education system. This is done through constant and critical appraisals, evaluation and reflection on change, current school policies and practices in view of quality assurances. The leader needs to actively collect information on all relevant educational issues (including curriculum reform, innovative methodological advances, new teaching materials and policy directives). Poster *et al.* (1988: 91) concur that the school leader who understands how the system works can have considerable power to influence it.

(I) Leader as information manager

Kelly (1995: 142) argues that leaders may indeed feel that the decision concerning the direction in which things should go, ought to be taken democratically. It is important however, that such decisions are reached on the basis of maximum information and understanding. Information about

the system also needs to be effectively disseminated to all relevant stakeholders (including parents, pupils and sponsors) in response to the current call for transparency. The school leader, therefore, serves as an *information manager*.

(j) Leader as innovator

Working in a climate where finances are depleted, skills and knowledge are lacking, resources are minimal and pupil intake are maximised, the leader has to be an *innovator* who is capable of getting exceptional results from unexceptional resources. Paisey and Paisey (1987: 4) call this effective management - especially when carried out in unpropitious circumstances. Put differently, Gray (1982: 105) claims that it becomes a possibility that the manager who departs from an expected profile (traditional role of the authoritarian) in a positive way, makes more creative use of his opportunities than the manager who appears to be unnecessarily constrained by factors within his environment or by the intentions of those with whom he regularly works.

In support of the dynamic role in which the school leader finds himself, Jenkins (1991: 163) convincingly argues that a school leader is no longer the controller and director, but the transforming leader. Jenkins (*ibid*) claims that if we see in schools the beginning of the end of hierarchy and bureaucracy, an emphasis on empowerment, responsiveness to the customer, alliance with stakeholding, a 'learning organisation' constantly changing and adapting, and 'control' arising from a concern with quality, then we can see the school leader as, *inter alia*:

- * envisioner
- * empowerer
- * team builder
- * bureaucracy-buster
- * freer of information
- * carer and valuer of staff (pupils and governors)
- * demander of integrity
- * culture-builder

Writers such as McLagan and Nel (1995) acknowledge that school leaders are faced with major challenges. The biggest challenge is, however, being effective as a leader especially in the early years of transformation. As a visionary, a leader not only projects images for transformation, but also acts in a democratic manner to facilitate transformation and growth. The concluding appeal in Bennis and Nanus's book on *Leaders* (1985: 228-9) is appropriate to reaffirm the need for participatory leadership:

'Without leadership of the kind we've been calling for, it is hard to see how we can shape a more desirable future for this nation or the world. The absence or ineffectiveness of leadership implies the absence of vision, a dreamless society, and this will result, at best, in the maintenance of the status quo, or at worst, in the disintegration of our society because of lack of purpose and cohesion. We must raise the search for new leadership to a national priority. We desperately need women and men who can take charge, and we hope that you, the reader, will be among them. What can be more consequential and inspiring?'

2.3.2.2 Shared organisational goals

One of the key principles of participative management is that organisational goals must be negotiated by the relevant education stakeholders. According to Keith and Girling (1991: 41), the following steps are critical to ensure involvement in management:

- * Develop a set of written values that summarise the organization's commitment of participative management.
- * Get the personal commitment of those at the highest level.
- * Train teachers (stakeholders) to develop the necessary skills so that they may participate in key management processes and decisions.
- * Confirm that information flows up and down the organisation.

- * Begin with broad involvement in the planning process.

Long (1986: 2) however, perceptively argues that peripheral involvement, of parents for example, like checking on homework and involvement in fund-raising campaigns are necessary but it fails to incorporate parents as active partners in the promotion of educational ventures. It is widely accepted that sharing and collectively deciding on organisational goals promote a partnership ethos. Therefore, in order for a system to function smoothly, proper co-ordination and careful planning is necessary to prioritize needs and objectives.

According to Poster and Day (1988: 201) all interest groups must form part of the planning process because the education system does not exist in a vacuum: it forms part of the community and should respond to the needs of the community. Priorities must be made in consultation with input from grassroots level.

To ensure quality assurances, sessions for regular analysis and evaluation is necessary. Participation in such processes eliminates conflict and suspicion. A joint effort in setting targets and working towards its goals, create a sense of ownership of decisions and adds value to the quality of the goals. It is through negotiating objectives relevant to a specific context, that consensus among members can be reached. Hence, the success of the system becomes a possibility because the various sub-systems (stakeholders) work harmoniously towards the achievement of shared (organisational) goals. In pursuit of the same argument, Morphet, Roe and Reller (1982), Wynn (1984) and Jenkins (1991) all agree that success of the system depends upon the effectiveness of all administrators, governors and staff members working in harmony. Of particular importance is that a sense of shared values is created through the participation of members within the school community.

Bayne-Jardine and Holly (1994:77) provides a valuable argument for the acceptance of 'shared values' to the point that staff loyalty becomes an obvious feature of the school. This, they state, may involve recognition of staff opinion irrespective of position or status; it may be developed through social activities, mutual support or more formalised line management systems; it may hinge on the interpretation of the vision of the school or simply on institutional loyalty, and it may

be related to an indefinable group chemistry which binds a group together adapting over time but still concerned with 'the way we do things here'. Bayne-Jardine *et al.* (*ibid*) make the point that where the team is strong, the objectives of the school are accepted by all, and fair dealing is known to exist. Difficult decisions can therefore be palatable.

2.3.2.3 Accountability

According to Dennison and Shenton (1987: 95), every educational institution is accountable in a number of ways to parents, to children, to governors, to the education committee, and to the community at large. Often the demand for change arises in response to the recognition of accountability. However, when this does happen, they argue, the existing organisation and the curriculum must be maintained at a satisfactory level at the same time as plans for responses to anticipated future development are being considered, developed and finally implemented.

Caldwell and Spinks (1993: 141) provide the following six important purposes of accountability, as they have emerged in the 1990s. These, they state, may be expressed in terms of the intended target and the nature of information to be provided. Each implies a 'right to know' as far as that target is concerned:

- * accountability of the school to the student and parent, with regular reports of student progress and achievement during each year of schooling;
- * accountability of the school to parents and the local community, with reports of a general nature being furnished from time to time in relation to the achievement of expectations;
- * accountability of the school to the school system, with reports of varying specificity on the achievement of goals, priorities and standards, including the manner in which resources have been deployed;
- * accountability of the national government to provincial governments, as provincial

strategies for educational reform have emerged, with reports on the extent to which school systems have attained targets or standards which have been mutually agreed or are a condition of funding (the writer has substituted the concepts *national* and *provincial* for *state* and *national* respectively, because the substituted concepts are relevant and relative to the South African context);

- * accountability of government and systems of education to the community, especially in respect to the extent to which resources have been provided to enable schools to achieve expectations which have been set for them.

Hargreaves and Hopkins (1994: 3) warn that if accountability is used as the major instrument for promoting school effectiveness by undermining the *processes* of planning, which involve delicate human relationships, then it could lose all its potential as a means of school improvement. There must be a balance between accountability for the development of personal growth and that of systems development. Hence, each person is simultaneously accountable for self-improvement and environmental transformation. Members within the school system, therefore, should not expect merely to fit into their environment, but are accountable to act on (manage) it for the purpose for transformation and growth. All education stakeholders, whilst individually accountable for their own personal growth, are collectively responsible for the nature and character of educational planning, provision and the quality of educational outcomes.

A school's development plan has to consider both the process and the product if it is to be empowering. This view is expressed by Hargreaves and Hopkins (*ibid*) who state that if principal's use the school's development plan in a managerial, bureaucratic and unduly rigid way as a basis for accountability, this may subvert the more collegial, participative and pragmatic approach which they are convinced is necessary if development planning is to be empowering. At its best, development planning draws the school staff and the school's partners together in the creation and implementation of whole-school policies and planning. In this way planning helps a school to shape its values, mission and culture, and to do so in a more self-conscious and explicit way that improves morale, communication and commitment to the fundamental purposes of better teaching and learning.

2.3.2.4 Transparency and reciprocal trust

Before April 1994, schools, as symbols of the destructive education system, were soft targets for attack from disillusioned and disgruntled parents, pupils, and teachers. Attitudinal changes are required so that schools can become monuments of pride and progress. However, community support for the school and its concomitant management team, is vital in the current atmosphere of transformation. Jones (1980: 170) develops this point further by stating that if a principal builds an atmosphere of trust in which he recognises his own as well as the student's and staff's (including school governors') strengths and limitations, they will be more able to help each other and build a more genuine and realistic sense of co-operation.

Keith and Girling (1991: 72) cite and McDonough, (1985) who see trust as the fundamental cement that binds an organization together, facilitating good communication, rectifying badly timed actions, making goal attainment possible, and creating the conditions for organizational success. Trust and honesty in management and governance practices are invaluable features for community support. In order to win the support of parents, all management and governance duties and functions need to be performed in an open and transparent manner.

Transparency fosters mutual trust among all stakeholders and creates a system where every member is treated with respect and dignity. Long (1986: 2) states that Woolfendale (1982), Deer (1980) and Woodhead (1981) claim that any involvement with parents at the level of partnership must demonstrate the cardinal principle of reciprocity: mutual involvement, mutual accountability, mutual gain and mutual trust. The closer the parent to the education of the learner, the greater the impact on the learner's educational development and achievement.

2.3.2.5 Open information systems

It is important in the light of a society in transition, that information about changes are explicit and open. This view is supported by Leonard (1989: 24) who claims that under present day conditions, information has to be shared much more widely. In the context of the school, changes with regard to national and provincial policy documents, the schools procedures, role and

resource allocation, etcetera are all aspects of change which need to be communicated to the necessary constituencies. This may be done through regular meetings, workshops, rotation of policy documents to members of staff and the school's governing body. These are important procedures to enhance open communicative systems where people can express their thoughts and feelings freely. By working together in this way, the principles of transparency, accountability and trust are promoted.

Nias, Southworth and Yeomans (1989: 70), in their study of staff relationships in primary schools observed that working together involves an acceptance that everyone in the school has feelings, and is making an emotional as well as a professional investment. They observed that direct expression of views or feelings were valued for its therapeutic effect and interpersonal communication. Experienced staff saw that it also enabled people to learn from one another in enjoyable ways. The free exchange of work-related information and ideas contributed both to the professional development of the whole staff and its social cohesion, that is, it simultaneously built up the team and developed the group.

2.3.2.6 Impartiality and tolerance

Smyth (1993: 168) argues that professional educators, whether they be involved in policy-making, administration or teaching, are inevitable in the business of judging and deciding what ought to be done. This, he claims, is a moral enterprise. Education is about values. Whether they are determining ends or means, educators cannot escape a commitment to values such as open-mindedness, tolerance and cultural sensitivity.

A culture of tolerance is thus necessary during the phase of integration when people from diverse educational backgrounds are required to work together. As a result of differences in educational and management experiences, understanding and time are required to allow the inexperienced to grow in stature through participation and involvement in management and governance opportunities. Impartiality of treatment is a prerequisite for the development of self-confidence and self-esteem which subsequently promotes the quality of communication and interaction.

2.3.2.7 Participative decision-making and synergy in management

Synergy in management is identified by Caldwell and Spinks (1993: 75) as one of the fundamentals in the culture of self-management. They claim that synergy is generally understood to mean, in simple organisational terms, that a group working together can achieve more than individuals working separately. According to Whitaker (1993: 138), when people come together to serve aims and purposes to which they are mutually committed then synergy seems to be created. The idea of synergy in management is an interesting one as it narrows the gap between the leader and the follower. The reconciliation between the two seemingly dichotomous roles in management, makes their respective positions more acceptable to both parties in the management and governance equation. In terms of synergy, the entire education system is subsequently directed towards enabling the school, with its board of management striving together, to attain optimum outcomes.

It is argued that through involvement and participation, it is possible to maximize human resources and skills. It also influences commitment and energy to create a potent and astronomical power base for transformation, reconciliation and success. Wilkinson and Cave (1987: 120) offer an interesting fourfold clarification of participation in which they distinguish between 'one man rule', consultation, delegation and participation. The first category suggests that decision-making resides with the head allowing no opportunity for other staff to become involved. Consultation entails seeking the views and opinions of others although they may not necessarily be reflected in the decisions made. Delegation refers to the head's authorization for members of staff to act on his or her behalf.

Participation implies joint decision-making in that stakeholders share responsibility and engage in genuine partnership. When decisions do not directly affect stakeholders and is of minimum importance, leaders may adopt the first two modes of decision-making. When delegating duties, circumspection is necessary, because appropriateness to assume the duty must be considered. However, when a decision requires consensus, then the participative mode becomes imperative.

Wilkinson and Cave (1987: 117) cite the following advantages of participative decision making:

- * more inputs to alternatives and their evaluation;
- * individual bias is reduced;
- * increase in understanding by members;
- * increase in acceptance by members;
- * broader range of values and interests.

Roe and Drake (1980: 106) however, warn that participation and sharing of power does not mean a faculty needs to get together every time a decision is made. This in itself, they believe, would be poor leadership! The main objective in participative decision-making is to reach consensus. According to Caldwell and Spinks (1988: 197), two criteria must be satisfied in achieving consensus:

- * the decision or outcome must be high in quality, that, is, it must be effective in terms of solving the problem or achieving the goal, and
- * the decision or outcome must be acceptable to those who must implement it or who will be affected by it. In all approaches to decision-making, quality and acceptance should be the goals.

Participative decision-making therefore entails a preparedness to incorporate all school participants in an active and inclusive process of questioning, challenging and theorizing about the social, political and cultural nature of the work of schools (Jenkins, 1991: 190). According to Wynn (1987: 112), group decisions are almost always superior to individual decisions when:

- * the problem is not easily conceptualized;
- * the problem requires reasoning through a series of interdependent stages; and
- * the problem requires continued coordination and interaction of a number of persons for effective implementation.

Participative decision-making develops critical thought processes and enhances inquiry skills. Such processes improves understanding and knowledge of policy documents. It is also an effective mechanism for exposing exploitative management modes that may hamper participation and stunt development and growth.

2.3.2.8 Empowerment and capacity building

According to McLagan and Nel, (1995: 92) both leaders and followers have colluded in coercive and dependent relationships for so long that the dependency and subordination of followers, and the supremacy of leaders have become unquestioned principles. Management hegemony becomes the norm and the undermining of human potential becomes the practice. The challenge to subvert such a situation is great, but not impossible. Empowerment and capacity building are important principles of participative management, especially in the light of the changes taking place in all spheres of life.

Biott and Nias (1988: 133) provide a model of change which suggests that it is a personal process involving an act of cognition. They warn that to neglect the person within the change is to see the individual as passive and unable to shape events. When individuals are so perceived, change is a form of bereavement so that it is experienced as a deep sense of loss. This sense of loss promotes disempowerment for the individual who feels that events are out of his or her control.

The principles of empowerment and capacity building presupposes successful interaction with the environment (system). Keith and Girling (1991: 38) cite Carpinter (1971) who sees empowerment as having two dimensions: structural and psycho-social (*ibid*). Structural changes can affect the positional power and increase employee satisfaction. Flat, as opposed to hierarchical organizations appear to increase satisfaction, especially when there is greater opportunity to exercise authority by all members of the organization. There is thus a paradigm shift away from leadership acquired through positional power, towards leadership as an enabling characteristic of person power.

Capacity building and empowerment are essential principles to support programmes for the development of an enabling management team in education systems. It adds value and quality to the practices of school management and governance. The possibility (through capacity building and empowerment) of participating on the education board of management, contributes to a greater sense of mastery and self-esteem. Keith, *et al.* (*ibid*) believe that when employees at the lower levels of the organizational hierarchy have a chance to share in power from above, they feel

greater fulfilment of their psychological needs, experience greater team identity, and are more cooperative.

Community participation in educational affairs breeds psychological and social satisfaction among its individuals because as Freire (1972: 114) says, men are fulfilled only to the extent that they create their world (which is a human world), and create it with their transforming labour. Such fulfilment is an empowering necessity to develop a liberatory pedagogy to which the community at large is the beneficiary. In other words, once individuals are sufficiently empowered, they will be capable of making sound judgements about the development, utilisation and management of resources.

However, when a bottom-up approach to management is instituted, the complexity of the interaction is not to be underestimated. Long standing leaders within the organisation need to be understanding and tolerant of teething problems that may come to the fore when new-comers are given governance portfolio's. Well co-ordinated capacity- building programmes to empower such new-comers need to be planned for.

2.3.2.9 Equity

This principle refers to both equity in terms of opportunity and equity in terms of provision. What underpins this principle, especially in the South African context, is a need to redress past inequalities in education provision and also to create equal opportunities for education stakeholders who were previously excluded from decisions about education policies and processes. Caldwell *et al.* (1992: 69-70) make a convincing argument in support of equity which is worth noting. They claim that:

'The strength of a school's culture may be illustrated with reference to equity; that is, the belief that all students ought to receive an education which enables their full potential to be realised, taking account of particular individual circumstances. A strong culture which reflects this belief would see all members of the school community committed to this value, with verbal manifestations in aims and objectives which make

clear that the educational needs of all will be addressed and which specify targets for achievements where possible and appropriate; a curriculum which shows the particular ways in which this will be done; the use of language which recognises all children rather than marginalising or excluding some, metaphors which focus attention on the value of equity; organisational stories which highlight the success of the school in meeting a particular challenge in the past; organisational heroes, including students who have, for example, been successful in overcoming some particular disadvantage, and teachers who have contributed in outstanding fashion along the way; and organisational structures and processes which ensure that needs can be identified, priorities set and resources allocated.'

It becomes clear from the above that equity requires co-operation, tolerance and understanding as interactive processes for opportunity and space to develop and advance interpersonal growth and systems development. Adams (1993: 29) however warns, that if any equity programme, such as employment equity, is to be functional in both social and economic terms, then its primary objective must be the advancement of equality. Equalization of opportunity and not the grant of favours to the disadvantaged should be the leitmotive. Human resource development, and education and training in particular, then become the intermediate priorities.

In order to redress the imbalances in education provision, needs must be identified and resources distributed to those areas most affected by discriminatory education policies and practices. This is an important step towards the transformation of a society divided by, among others, education and economic deprivation, racial tension and gender discrimination. It is evident from the above, that attempts are necessary to reconcile the gap between administrative personnel and other individuals. The plan for participation as proposed by Keith *et al.* (*ibid*), should avoid clear and distinct role specification as this limits the individuals knowledge and skills in such a way that their participation in other areas of school management is hampered. Hence, skills and tasks are matched so that role differentiation does not undermine effective task completion.

2.3.4 Features of participative management

2.3.3.1 Decentralization and horizontal power relations

The global call for the decentralization of education systems, makes decentralization an important principle for the discussion of participative management. Caldwell *et. al.* (1993: vii-viii) reveal that the most centralised of state education systems in Australia in New South Wales, for example, is being transformed, with a learner central arrangement directing and supporting schools which are moving toward self-management. In the United States self-management, or school-based management as it is called in that country, is emerging as a major element in a series of related reforms in a comprehensive restructuring of education.

In these countries and others, the central authority, wherever located, retains a powerful but more focused role, determining broad goals, setting priorities and building frameworks for accountability. At the same time, appearing paradoxical at times, major responsibilities are being shifted to the school level. There is thus simultaneous centralisation and decentralisation.

Caldwell *et. al* (1993:4) claim that decentralization is administrative rather than political, with decisions at the school level being made within a framework of local, state or national policies and guidelines. The school remains accountable to a central authority for the manner in which resources are allocated. Given the historical background of the educational system in South Africa, participative management advocates an administrative as well as a political dimension to the principle of decentralization.

It is suggested that centralisation of power for education policy decisions and management of schools is tantamount to the atrocious 'divide and rule' dictum. Dennison and Shenton (1987: 103) argue that the more centralised and formalised schools, tend to produce teachers with less loyalty both to their senior colleagues and to the institutions as a whole. Such 'depersonalisation', in the bureaucratic sense, can place the school climate at the exploitive/authoritarian end of the continuum in which, under threat or pressure, interpersonal relationships are characterised by mistrust, lack of confidence and supportive behaviour, leading eventually to hostility.

By contrast, they argue, participation systems tend to create warmer atmospheres in which supportive senior staff and well-motivated teachers share the responsibility for development and a high goal achievement. Some formalisation must, however, be present so that teachers' attitudes remain focused on the task-based aspects of the school. Decentralisation of power allows for participation and promotes (cultivates) greater commitment and a shared sense of belonging. Gray (1982: 63) is of the opinion that unless responsibilities and power are shared among the members, the organization will lack creativity and adaptability.

By involving members, they feel valued because their views and opinions are regarded as important. Horizontal decision-making nurtures feelings of progress and cultivates the unification of diverse interest groups onto a common platform for negotiations. The shift of power from a central locus to a plethora of stakeholders allows for a sharing of power across barriers of race, gender, class and religion. Decentralization secures a balance of power and a sense of shared accomplishments. Consensus-seeking thus become the watchwords. Caution must be given that, whilst one may have views and freely confess them, one should not insist that others espouse them. Stated differently, Paisey (1992: 122) insists that an important corollary is the right to disagree. Recognition must therefore, be given to the principle of dissent.

2.3.4.2 Affirmative action

As a result of the past political paradigm in South Africa (*cf.* 1.2), affirmative action has become an inevitable feature of participative management. This feature supports the principle of representativity. Affirmative action, according to Adams (1993: 1), can mean many things. It may refer to preferential financial assistance by business to institutions of those communities which have been traditionally disadvantaged. It could mean the redistribution of resources and opportunities. It may also refer to 'racial preferential treatment for good reasons'.

Adams (*ibid*) is emphatic about the need for positive and constructive measures to redress the imbalance of racial discrimination in general and apartheid in particular. He claims that justice cannot be restored by the mere adoption of a just constitution. Thus, he suggests that deliberate and practical steps will have to be implemented to eliminate inequalities which were created by

deliberate design. Sikhosana (1993: 1-6), Dekker and Lemmer (1994: 63-34) and Claassen, (1995: 150-152) provide the following forms of affirmative action that management may consider:

- * Reserved promotion posts for targeted groups such as non-whites and females;
- * Enrolment quotas for target learners;
- * Enforced integration, for example on school governing bodies;
- * Support programmes:
 - Academic and capacity building programmes aimed at redressing past academic backlogs which may retard the progress of the disadvantaged, such as, special tuition in medium of instruction, mathematics and science and support programmes to facilitate individual growth and development in the sphere of management.
 - Financial support may entail indirect financial assistance to the disadvantaged, exemption from educational fees and from purchasing of stationery. General support may include nutritional provision for under-privileged learners.

In the South African context, affirmative action is imperative to ensure that schools are managed and governed in a manner that incorporates members across race, gender and class groups. Affirmative action, is an important feature of participative management and plays a major role in the elimination of discriminatory management and governance practices in schools.

2.3.4.3 Multiculturalism

Multiculturalism in our unique socio-political context, has an important role to play in transforming stereotypical attitudes, processes and behaviour. The shift from closed to open schools in South Africa has resulted in schools becoming multicultural.. This refers to a the new heterogeneous character of schools which incorporate learners from diverse cultures into one

common place for teaching and learning to take place. Hence, multicultural education becomes an important facet of education. Grant (1992: 222-223) refers to Sleeter's approaches to multicultural teaching which provides another way of examining policies and practices that focuses more on the curriculum. These approaches, which are summarized below, provide a framework for examining five different teaching approaches that address human diversity - race, ethnicity, gender, social class and disability.

- * Teaching the exceptional and culturally different' addresses how to help students who do not succeed in the existing classroom or societal mainstream. [It] builds bridges between the capabilities of the student and the demands of the school and wider society, so that the student can learn to function successfully in these contexts.
- * Human relations' is concerned with helping students to get along with one another better by appreciating each other and themselves. This approach concentrates on building positive feelings among people.
- * Single-group studies' focus on groups that tend to be left out of the existing curricula. This approach teaches student about such groups as women, blacks... and the disabled.
- * Multicultural education combines much of the first three approaches. It suggests changes to most existing school practices for all students so that the school and classroom may become more concerned with human diversity, choice, and equal opportunity.
- * Education that is multicultural and social reconstructionist' addresses social inequalities among groups in society at large as well as in students' own experiences.

Grant (1992: 222-223)

School managers should consider these approaches as relevant in their pursuit towards redress and equity. Lemmer & Squelch (1993: 12) state that traditionally, teachers have been primarily responsible for transmitting the values, norms and heritage of the dominant group with a view to

assimilation microcultures into the dominant group and establishing cultural homogeneity, thereby preserving the dominant culture at the expense of microcultures. Nowadays this is no longer accepted since it is inadequate for meeting the demands of a culturally diverse society and the needs of children from diverse cultural backgrounds.

2.4 BENEFITS OF PARTICIPATIVE MANAGEMENT

Keith and Garling. (1991: 45), including Wynn and Guditus's (1984: 114) are of the opinion that, if successfully pursued, a participative management process can avoid a number of administrative problems by providing the following vital ingredients to an educational institution or system:

- * Clarity of purpose
- * Greater commitment to and coordination of decisions
- * Effective conflict resolution
- * Ability to adapt to changing circumstances
- * Renewal (schools become dynamic and not static institutions)
- * Better teamwork
- * Deeper sense of mutual interdependence among participants
- * Greater satisfaction among participants with management and with the organisation

2.5 CONCLUSION

This chapter provides a contrastive literature review of management theories and attempts to place participative management within a theoretical framework. The principles of participative management placed emphasis on school-based management and governance. These principles form a democratic and participative framework for implementation of policy directives. It is acknowledged that there is an overlap between the principles of participative management and the general broader democratic principles that inform national education policy documents. However principles of participative management tends to focus more narrowly on the individuals as participants in school management and governance as a system, while the broader democratic principles that inform education focuses on the ideology that underlies a democratic society.

CHAPTER THREE: POST-DEMOCRATIC POLICY DIRECTIVES FOR TRANSFORMATION OF SCHOOL GOVERNANCE AND MANAGEMENT IN SOUTH AFRICA

3.1 INTRODUCTION

Post-apartheid policy documents such as *The White Paper on Reconstruction and Development* (1994), *The White Paper on Education and Training* (1995), *The South African Schools Act* (1996), *National Qualification Framework* (1996) focus primarily on deconstructing discriminatory policies which deny people the right of entry into certain schools; equal access to education resources; opportunities for academic growth and economic advancement etcetera. These policy documents provide an open, democratic and equitable framework, to restructure national education systems.

Policy directives from educational policy documents, are relevant to management and governance structures on two distinct levels. Some policy directives are aimed at the restructuring of management and governance structures according to democratic principles. Other policy directives need to be taken cognisance of by management and governance in order to facilitate transformation in other sectors of the educational environment. For example, section 23 of The South African Schools Act (1996: 18), namely, 'Membership of Governing Body of ordinary public schools' incorporates policy directives aimed particularly at restructuring of management and governance structures of a school, while section 21 (1996: 16), namely, 'Allocated functions of governing bodies' aims at policy directives to facilitate transformation in education.

To illustrate this distinction, one may consider a policy directive aimed at drawing pupils and parents into governance structures such as the formation of the governing body and a policy directive, namely, Outcomes Based Education (OBE) aimed at implementing curriculum reform in schools. The former refers to a '*transformation of the governing structure of management*', whilst the latter refers to a policy directive which needs to be '*implemented by governing structures*.' This distinction is supported by The White Paper on Education and Training, (1996: 12) which distinguishes two kinds of policy positions.

'The first includes decisions on a new structure for school organisation, including a framework of school categories, proposals concerning school ownership and governance, and observations on school funding. The second comprises decisions on processes of negotiation to bring the new structure into existence, and processes of capacity-building which must occur if the full scope of the Ministry's proposals on governance is to be realised.'

Policy directives aimed at restructuring governance and management structures are clearly relevant to this study. However, policy directives which need to be implemented by governing and management structures indirectly have relevance to this study by virtue of the fact that these policy directives transform the interaction between management and governance structures and other sectors in education. This chapter will begin with a discussion of the principles that inform current policy documents. The principles will be used as a template to identify and discuss selected education policy documents that fit the foundations, principles and features of participative management as discussed in Chapter 2 (*cf.* 2.3). These principles will further be used as the criteria to evaluate mechanism needed to implement policy directives that call to transformation.

3.2 VALUES AND PRINCIPLES THAT UNDERLIE POLICY DECISIONS

In March 1995, the White Paper on Education and Training (1995: 21-22) published 23 values and principles as a framework for a new system of education and training. These values and principles are consistent with the democratic principles enumerated in the Bill of Rights of the new National Constitution (1996: 6-24) and lay particular emphasis on the transformation of education policies as well as the processes of management and governance in schools. These values and principles include, *inter alia*, that:

- * Education and training are basic human rights. The state has an obligation to protect and advance these rights, so that all citizens irrespective of race, class, gender, creed or age, have the opportunity to develop their capacities and potential, and make their full contribution to society;

- * Parents or guardians have the primary responsibility for the education of their children, and have the right to be consulted by the state authorities with respect to the form that education should take and to take part in its governance. Parents have an inalienable right to choose the form of education which is best for their children, particularly in the early years of schooling, whether provided by the state or not, subject to reasonable safeguards which may be required by law;
- * The system must increasingly open access to education and training opportunity of good quality, to all children, youth and adults, and provide the means for learners to move easily from one learning context to another, so that the possibilities for lifelong learning are enhanced;
- * There must be special emphasis on the redress of educational inequalities;
- * A national qualification framework will be the scaffolding on which new levels of the quality will be built;
- * The rehabilitation of the schools and colleges must go hand in hand with the restoration of the ownership of these institutions to their communities through the establishment and empowerment of legitimate, representative governance bodies.
- * The principle of democratic governance should increasingly be reflected in every level of the system, by the involvement in consultation and appropriate forms of decision-making of elected representatives of the main stakeholders, interest groups and role players.
- * The restoration of the culture of teaching, learning and management involves the creation of a culture of accountability;
- * The curriculum, teaching methods and textbooks at all levels and in all programmes of education and training, should encourage independent and critical thought, the capacity to question, enquire, reason, weigh evidence and form judgements, achieve understanding,

recognise the provisional and incomplete nature of the most human knowledge, and communicate clearly.

Many of the principles enumerated above are synonymous with the principles of participative management (*cf.* 2.3.2). While all of the values and principles must be taken cognisance of by management and governance teams, particular emphasis will be placed on some of the values and principles that influence education policy documents.

3.2.1 Education and training as basic human rights

The key principle underlying new educational policy documents is that education is a basic human right for all citizens. Kelly (1995: 111) persuasively argues that one of the principles of democratic (participative) educational planning is that the human rights, and the entitlement that goes with it are at the root a right and an entitlement to individual autonomy and empowerment. In support of this view, Leithwood, Begley and Cousins (1992: 32) insist that the respect for the rights of individuals reinforces the legitimacy of equity as an educational goal, especially regarding equal access to knowledge, not just educational resources. It is clear that in managing schools, this principle cannot be ignored. The White Paper (1995: 21) reaffirms that:

'... education and training are basic human rights. The state has an obligation to protect and advance these rights, so that all citizens irrespective of race, class, gender, creed or age, have the opportunity to develop their capacities and potential, and make their full contribution to the society.'

School managers are to take cognisance of this principle in formulating and implementing policies. Fundamental to education as a basic human right is the abolition of policies that discriminate between, for example gender and race. Various policies (example, open school policy, curriculum and language policies) to incorporate systems and school-wide participation, have been influenced by this principle.

This principle is consistent with the foundations of participative management as it lays particular emphasis on human rights. Every individual is seen to possess capacities and *potential* which are

to be developed (cf. 2.3.1). It thus becomes the duty of school managers to acknowledge this right which cannot be limited to a specific sector of society, but includes every human being. In order to ensure that every individual has the same opportunity for academic development and growth, economic advancement and the enhancement of personal skills, it is imperative to acknowledge and embrace the principle as legitimised in the National Constitution (1996: 14[1])

Everyone has the right -

- a) to a basic education, including adult basic education; and*
- b) to further education, which the state, through reasonable measures, must make progressively available and accessible*

The principle of human rights made a significant contribution to transforming traditional policies which differentiated schools on the basis of, among others, the medium of instruction, race denominations and the three models of school organisation. Having acknowledged the principle of education as a basic human right, the Constitution in section 9 (1996: 7) also makes provision for the protection and advancement of that basic right by means of legislating quality and non-discriminatory education:

'Equality includes the full and equal enjoyment of all rights and freedoms. To promote the achievement of equality, legislative and other measures designed to protect or advance persons, or categories of persons, disadvantaged by unfair discrimination may be taken'.

Education is now a national concern which emphasises increased access to education and highlights various modes of articulation through the education system. The acknowledgement of lifelong and experiential learning, the focus on multiple entrance and exit levels within the various bands of the educational sector and the emphases and acknowledgement on alternative modes of teaching and learning, reinforces the basic human right to education.

¹⁵Within the schooling bands, one may see this in the parallel structures to formal schooling that exist. A learner may for instance obtain a General Education and Training certificate by enrolling and successfully completing an Adult Basic Education and Training (ABET) programme or may receive home schooling. Trade unions and other non-governmental organisations which were formally regarded as non-formal educational sectors are now legitimised by new policies which integrate the formal and non-formal sectors of education. There is thus, a merger between education and training. The White Paper (1995: 4) refers to this principle of integration as follows:

'An integrated approach implies a view of learning which rejects a rigid division between 'academic' and 'applied', 'theory' and 'practice', 'knowledge' and 'skills', 'head' and 'hands'. Such divisions have characterised the organisation of curricula and the distribution of educational opportunity in many countries of the world, including South Africa. They have grown out, and helped to reproduce, very old occupational and class distinctions.'

Hence, the traditional distinction of knowledge into skills and academic content as separate entities collapses. It thus, becomes incumbent on school managers to ensure that the school curriculum incorporate both an academic as well as a practical aspect of learning. This principle, namely, education as a basic human right, directly influenced the policy of open schools in order to counter traditional discriminatory policies that denied certain learners access to education. It also has indirect implications for school management in that schools are legally compelled to promote and sustain positive race relations among parents, learners and educators. It is therefore, stated that *'South Africans need to try to understand each other's history, culture, values and aspirations, not turn away from them, if we are to make the best of our common future'* (Department: 1995: 17).

¹⁵ See *Understanding the National Qualifications Framework: A Guide to Lifelong Learning* (Department, 1996: 24)

3.2.2 Freedom of choice

Past education policies which disallowed pupils and parents in certain sectors of the South African community the freedom of educational choice, necessitated the need to provide *all* interest groups with the freedom to choose the *mode*, *educational institution* and *quality* of education they prefer.

This *mode* of education refers primarily to the methodological processes used in teaching and learning. Self-study, face-to-face teaching and learning, distance learning, correspondence learning, mixed-mode learning and teaching, and home schooling represent various ways in which learners can participate in education. The processes involved in such learning must be consistent with the democratic principles which are concerned with transforming the educational sector and empowering individuals. Personal involvement and collaboration maximizes human resources and skills, commitment and energy to create a potent and catalytic mix for success, change and development (Whitaker, 1993: 138). Formal and non-formal educational sites provide activities and teaching and learning methods which enhance freedom of expression, critical thought processes and reflective thinking thereby promoting the development and growth of the whole person (*cf.* 2.3.1).

Freedom to choose the *educational institution* (*albeit* learning site) is linked to the stakeholder's decision to select the school (or learning site) which best provides for their educational needs and the *quality* of education sought after. With regard to primary schooling, a wide selection of options become available to the individual. Flowing from the principle of freedom of choice is their rights to analyse the *quality* of school education by regularly evaluating the quality of educational provisions, teaching processes and learning outcomes. In support of this, the Ministry of Education proposes, in the White Paper (1996: 1.7), that the new structure of school organisation, governance and funding must aim to:

'enable a disciplined and purposeful school environment to be established, dedicated to a visible and measurable improvement in the quality of the learning process and learning outcomes throughout the system.'

Freedom of choice leads to greater parental control of education. Their right of choice will help raise standards by giving them a greater influence over education. ¹⁶Paradoxically the freedom to choose may lead to academic and social selection with oversubscribed schools being able to pick and choose which pupils they wanted to admit.

3.2.3 Accountability and transparency

So as not to repeat the mistakes of the past where education policies were determined centrally, public awareness, consultation and recommendations in the drafting and enactments of education policies were undertaken in South Africa after the April 1994 elections, in order to ensure that there is a high level of consensus on the public school system by all the people of South Africa. This strategy is built on the principles of accountability and transparency which need to be manifested on every level of education management and governance. The White Paper (1995: 22) states that:

'The restoration of the culture of teaching, learning and management involves the creation of a culture of accountability. This means the development of a common purpose or mission among students, teachers, principals and governing bodies, with clear, mutually agreed and understood responsibilities, and lines of cooperation and accountability.'

Adams (1993: 131) is of the opinion that openness and the free flow of relevant information, at all levels of governance, are key ingredients of the principle of accountability. The national, integrated system of education requires a commitment from *national, provincial, regional, including district and circuit levels* of governance to assume collective responsibility for the transformation of schools within an agreed governance and management framework. Each level of governance is accountable to the other and must ensure open communicative channels and fair administrative structures in support of the principle of transparency. Although each level of management and governance has a degree of power to perform certain functions and duties

¹⁶ *Evidence of oversubscribed schools turning away pupils, can be found in various media reports. See, for example, The Mercury (January 22: 1998).*

autonomously, they are collectively accountable to ensure that their actions are co-ordinated and synchronised in order to reach national education goals.

On the *national level* the government is accountable to the public sector for the provision and delivery of a fair, just and equitable education system. It is the Government's constitutional obligation to protect the rights of every individual. Since education is a basic right, the government is accountable to ensure that all stakeholders are involved in the protection and advancement of this right. Hence, the government's commitment to upholding these rights has been translated into policies. Open school policies provide learners access to educational institutions, the Labour Relations Act, 1995 protects educators from unfair labour policies and practices, the policy to establish school governing bodies give parents a legal right to participate in decision about school policies. Hence, the White Paper (1995: 21) asserts that:

'the state has an obligation to protect and advance these rights, so that all citizens irrespective of race, class, gender, creed or age, have the opportunity to develop their capacities and potential, and make their full contribution to the society'.

The above assertion is consistent with the underlying features of participative management which sees every individual as a having the *potential* to contribute to society. Schools are, thus, accountable to exploit the potential of every individual, so that he or she is provided with a true education. Open deliberations and negotiations enhance the quality of policy directives and perpetuates the principle of transparency. New national policies have thus evolved to legitimise the participation of interest groups on all levels of education management and governance which enhances accountability from the national level of education governance. To protect the rights of all interest groups, various legal bodies have evolved such as the Labour Relations Councils (LRC), the Schools Governing Bodies (SGBs), the Students Representative Council (SRC).

On the *provincial and regional levels*, the provincial ministries and the regional education authorities respectively, are accountable to check on how its education systems are working, provide advice about how they might be improved and indicate the steps necessary to accomplish that improvement. Provincial and regional education departments are nationally accountable to

ensure that policies devised at these levels are consistent with the principle of transparency. This means that policies cannot be devised exclusively by education departments because these departments have a constitutional obligation to involve all interest groups in decisions about policy directives. The *district and circuit* levels of management and governance are responsible for taking education to the people and are thus, accountable for policy implementation and the subsequent educational outcomes.

The various levels of governance serve as invaluable formal structures to facilitate the reconstruction and development programme in order to bring about a common system of school organization and governance. By enhancing accountability in this way, systemic performance levels are also enhanced.

On the personal level, individuals are accountable to themselves for the growth and development of personal skills and knowledge in order to attain self-actualisation. The introduction of outcomes-based education is based on the principles of critical thinking and social responsibility. It attempts to assist with individual development for personal accountability. Educators are personally accountable to their pupils and collectively accountable to their profession. This implies that they adopt a mode, pace and style of teaching that supports the Bill of Rights (1996) and the SASA (1996). They have a further obligation to ensure that they are fully updated about current policy directives that inform their daily teaching and learning procedures. It therefore, becomes the personal responsibility of the educators to be fully aware of changes they need to make with regard to content, method and processes of classroom management.

The school, as a pedagogical centre, is accountable to society for the provision of qualitative education. In its legal capacity, it assumes the responsibility to address pervasive issues that may hamper the progress to develop and sustain a culture of teaching and learning. Sound mechanisms need to be set in place to promote the quality of teaching and learning through, among others, cost-effective methods. The school is responsible for the establishment of a network of professionals and non-professional resources to address the demands for education transformation.

In the current climate of transformation, schools are accountable to their governing bodies and through their governing bodies, to their communities. Dennison and Shenton (1987: 63) concur that the governing body is often regarded as providing a means by which the accountability of the school to communities is maintained. Successful outcomes of organisational goals, however, is no longer the sole responsibility of the school managers *per se*, but becomes the joint responsibility (as implied in current transformatory policy directives) of every individual, who has an interest in the educational objectives, processes and outcomes of the school.

3.2.4 Empowerment and capacity building

Empowerment and capacity building are two important principles that informed policy documents such as the South African Schools Act, 1996 and the National Qualification Framework, 1996. While these documents make provision for incidental empowerment and capacity building, strategic and planned programmes in support of these principles need to be implemented at institutional levels of management and governance.

Some critics argue that *empowerment* and *capacity building* become over-used concepts in the new democracy. They have subsequently become tokens of promises in various spheres of social, political and educational interaction. There is a tendency to assume that these principles may loose impetus in civil society and consequently deflate the hopes and visions of many, aspiring towards democratic transformation. Educational systems should be weary of negating these principles into mere cliches that govern political rhetoric.

The principles of empowerment and capacity building reinforces the principle of education as a basic human right. It seeks to reallocate the individual with the dignity and respect earned from self-actualisation through educational endeavours. Transformatory policies aimed at, for example, restructuring curriculum (OBE); school management and governance (SGBs); accreditation and certification (NQF) have all been influenced by the principles of empowerment and capacity building. Whilst these policies support the principles in theory, the realisation of the principles in practice, depends on the quality of policy implementation.

3.2.5 Representativity and inclusivity

The principle of representivity stems from the need to move away from the asymmetrical relations of power and domination which was prevalent in the management of schools before 1994. This principle is consistent with the participative management principles of transparency and accountability and serves as the interlocking variables that unite and consolidate the bond among partners in the educational institution. Representative *symbols* or *tokenism*, that involve stateholders for merely show-casing a physical presence of stakeholders, are contrary to the principle of representivity and serve as a smokescreen for democratic participation. Involvement by means of collective bargaining, negotiations, dialogue and decision-making to support and promote the interest of the community represented, is what underpins this principle.

Representivity and inclusivity are principle of fundamental value to reconciling the respective responsibilities of the government and the community. It is the basis for reconstructing the system of public education in a way that creates a partnership between the government and the community, *between the community and the school, and between the school and its stakeholders*. It further promotes a partnership relationship among the various members within each level of management and governance. According to Hargreaves and Hopkins (1993: 137), all educational reforms are doomed to failure unless there is a significant shift in power relationships

Hence, policies in South Africa that provide schools with increased autonomy for the purpose of bottom-up and site-based management and governance, were influenced by principles of *representivity and inclusivity*. Furthermore, each category of stakeholders, has been given legitimate authority to organise representative councils. These councils, are afforded the opportunity to represent their respective interests and to protect their rights in terms of the National Constitution. Organisations such as Students Representative Councils (SRCs), Principals of Port Shepstones (POPS), Education Labour Relations Councils (ELRCs) are examples of organisation and representatives councils that have evolved for the purpose of inclusive decision-making and democratic participation in education. There is an intrinsic link between these principles and the principles of participative management.

3.2.6 Redress and Equity

A primary objective of the national education department is to achieve an equitable distribution of education provision throughout the nation in such a way that the quality of provision in under-resources areas is raised, and reductions in public funding to better-resources schools are responsibly phased in. Hence, the White Paper (1995: 5) states the following:

'Effecting redress and equity in school funding with a view to progressively improving quality education, within a framework of greater efficiency in organising and providing education services, are matters of urgent priority for the Minister of Education'

Equity is taken to mean both that education opportunities should be fairly distributed and that the distribution of education entitlements should contribute to the reduction of poverty and the redistribution of income and welfare. The redress of racial, gender and provisional inequalities is implied by both of these aspects (NEPI, 1993: 50). These principles underly the transformatory policies of budgetary provisions, affirmative action, redeployment and structural redefinition so that equity in human and material provisions may be acquired. National focus on the principle of redress to facilitate equity is a result of past imbalances in material and human resources in educational institution.

It is, therefore argued, that the entire education system recognises and acknowledges *past injustices* with regard to poorer schools, so that participative principle of tolerance and understanding can evolve.

3.3 POLICY DIRECTIVES AND IMPLICATIONS FOR MANAGEMENT AND GOVERNANCE

The national plan for the transformation of the education and training system is reflected in policy document such as The South African Schools Act, 1996; Curriculum 2005; The National Qualifications Framework, 1996 and The Education Labour Relations Act, 1995. These policy documents are shaped by democratic principles underlying the National Constitution of South

Africa. Documents, such as those listed above, that call for participation of stakeholders, provide a legitimate mandate for the transformation of education institutions. Of specific importance to this study, are those aspects of policy that calls for participation of stakeholders in implementation of national policy documents.

Policy directives and the implications for management and governance will be discussed in terms of two categories, namely, those policies that aim at transforming management and governance structures such as the reorganisation of school categories, redeployment and rationalisation, and those policy directives (example, the school constitution; the learners' code of conduct; the language policy etc.) that management and governance need to be aware of, in order to facilitate transformation in other sectors of the educational environment.

3.3.1 Reorganisation of school categories

The South African Schools Act which came into effect on 1 January 1997 creates a single national school system with only two categories of schools: public and independent schools. The White Paper (1996: 22) states that:

'The public schools category will comprise all schools which are currently known as community schools, farm schools, state schools, and state-aided schools (including church schools, Model C schools, mine schools, and others). Collectively, these comprise just over 98 per cent of the country's primary and secondary schools, and almost 99 per cent of school enrolments.'

The independent schools' category comprise of all schools previously known as private or independent schools. The merging of the various categories of schools into only two categories, is significant in perpetuating the principle of equality of opportunity.

Support systems across provincial boundaries are required to eliminate the unequal distribution of educational expertise and skills in the management and governance of schools. The reorganisation of schools into two broad types warrants a transformation in educational

management provisions. Emphasis is placed on providing schools that were previously under-resourced in terms of skills and expertise with competent management personnel. A network of partners is to be created, by means of policies such as redeployment, in order to compatibly link the past, differential schooling into a unified educational system.

The policy of the reorganisation of schools, indirectly affects management and governance structures in that personnel no longer merely has its locus in specific schools. For example, the cascade model for OBE capacity building programmes involves trainers from various levels of governance. School based educators are trained to become district facilitators of OBE. Their locus of teaching therefore, cannot be regarded as a fixed venue in a particular classroom, within a particular school. They become district trainers who form a partnership bond among all educators with similar objectives. It is obvious that such activities cannot materialise, if school managers do not acknowledge and support the capacity building programmes by, for example, releasing staff to attend workshops, etcetera.

It therefore, becomes necessary for principals to be aware of the outstanding skills and knowledge of educators and the extent of their commitment to upgrading education systems. Opportunities can be created for such individuals to assist other schools where a lack of such skills and knowledge are evident. Open communicative systems need to be created so that principals can discuss such possibilities.

A move towards a merger of the previously differentiated categories of schools, is a step closer to the establishment of a partnership within the education system in South Africa. Although managers and governors may have the necessary *competence* and *capacities* to successfully manage the transformation of their particular schools, a lack of the *will* to transform obsolete management styles may inhibit transformation.

3.3.2 Rationalisation and redeployment

In order to reduce the financial crisis experienced by the Department of Education and Culture, the policy of rationalisation has been adopted to minimize spending. This policy gradually put in

place a funding formula based on a teacher:pupil ratios of 1:40 in primary schools and 1:35 in secondary schools. According to Kallaway (1998: 45), this policy has meant that many of the better endowed Model C schools (for the most part formerly whites only schools in the middle class suburbs) have been facing dramatic reductions in their staffing complement - and with that a reduction in the variety of the curriculum and a drop in the perceived quality of education offered. Kallaway (*ibid*) is of the opinion that schools of the former Department of Education and Training (DET), which are predominantly African township schools, have inherited a much higher teacher/pupil ratios from the apartheid education dispensation in most cases, and therefore, they have so far been largely unaffected by these cuts.

Retrenchment and retirement packages offered to senior teachers, resulted in the loss of many of the leaders and experts required to facilitate transformation in schools. Capacity building programmes to replenish the loss of leadership and expertise seem needed. There is an urgent need for capacity-building for school management and governing bodies. This recommendation comes from the National Task Team on educational management. The White Paper (1996: 1.4) proposes a National Education Management Training Institute within a year:

'The preparatory work for the establishment of a National Education Management Training Institute is under way. The Council of Education Ministers has endorsed the project, to service national, provincial and sub-provincial management and governance needs. The new institute is intended to become the centrepiece in a national strategy to raise the quality of leadership in public schools and in the support services provided to schools by provincial education departments, especially at district level. It would be a mistake, however, to allow the institute project to deflect attention from the immediate need for capacity-building for school management's and governing bodies.'

The policy of redeployment is essential for the construction of a partnership network across various schools and also for a degree of equity to be reached with regard to expertise in schools. The principle of affirmative action must be applied when implementing policies of rationalisation and redeployment (*cf.* 2.3.3.2). In a recent circular, namely HRM 51/1998, (Department, 1998: 6) it is stated that *'in identifying educators in excess, the principle of affirmative action must be*

considered'. Some of the objectives of rationalisation and redeployment are listed in the HRM/51 circular as follows:

- * To provide a fair and transparent basis for the staffing of school in 1999.
- * To facilitate and expedite the redeployment of excess educators through a 'closed' vacancy list.
- * To achieve equity in educator staff provisioning.
- * To achieve curriculum redress in previously disadvantaged institutions.
- * To address affirmative action and representativity in the provision of educators.

The redeployment and rationalisation policies have direct implications for school management and governance, particularly because schools will have a more heterogeneous complex mix of staff members.

3.3.3 The South African Schools Act. (SASA) 1996

The state's intention to devolve substantial management powers to the school is reflected in the WPET and enacted in the South African Schools Act, 1996 (section 23) as mentioned above. This Act came into effect on 1 January 1997. In its endeavour to build a democratic education and training system, the state provides that *'all stakeholders and interest groups should have the opportunity to participate in policy formulation, monitoring and development in a way consistent with efficient educational management and administration'* (Karlsson, Pampallis & Sikhosana, 1994: 17). It creates a single national school system with only two categories of schools, namely, public and private. The Act makes every public school i.e. 98% of all schools, a juristic person in terms of section 15 with control over its own funds and assets. The basic aim of the Schools Act is set out in its preamble (Government, 1996: 2) which states that:

'this country requires a new national system for schools which will redress past injustices in education provision, provide an education of progressively high quality for all learners and in so doing lay a strong foundation for the development of all our people's talents and capabilities, advance the democratic transformation of society, combat racism and sexism and all other forms of unfair discrimination and intolerance, contribute to the eradication of poverty and the economic well-being of society, protect and advance our diverse cultures and languages, uphold the rights of all learners, parents and educators, and promote their acceptance of responsibility for the organisation, governance and funding of schools in partnership with the State.'

The positive unification of the past fragmented school structures alludes to an ideological transformation from an educational system of dictatorship and domination to one of democracy and participation. Key policy issues which directly affect all interest groups within educational institutions will be discussed below.

3.3.3.1 School Governing Bodies (SGBs)

A national policy directive to transform the structure of educational management and governance, is documented in the SASA. Every public school is legally compelled to implement policies outlined in this document which clearly stresses that *'every public school is a juristic person, with legal capacity to perform its functions in terms of this Act'* (1996: 12[15]). The constitution of SGBs, is aimed at transforming school management and governance structures and is in tandem with the decentralised decision-making principle of participative management. A schools constitution is to be influenced by the principles of representivity and inclusivity. It is imperative therefore that there is *the highest practicable level of representativity of members of the governing body* as implied in SASA (1996: 20[28]).

Members of the governing body, according to the SASA (1996: 18[23]) must be democratically elected, not by the education authorities, but by the very people whom they will represent on the SGB. Sutherland (1988: 79-80) states that education systems in other countries reveal that governing body 'elections' may reflect very little expression of public choice: in schools in some

parts of Britain, for example, general apathy may mean that any parent willing to accept nomination will be 'elected'. In some cases it is a matter of the school head or the local education authority 'persuading' certain parents to accept office. She indicates that the same problems arise for teacher representatives on such bodies and for pupil representatives. The acceptance and legitimacy of SGBs finds expression in the manner and procedure adopted during the election phase.

According to the SASA (1996: 16[2]), the '*governing body stands in a position of trust towards the school*'. Since the SGB will be responsible for developing policies on substantive issues (example, the code of conduct, the school's constitution, the mission statement, the budget etc.) those who accept a portfolio on the SGB, are legally committed to conduct themselves in a manner consistent with the principles of democracy.

In order to prevent the traditional asymmetrical relations of domination and subordination, the SASA accords a seat on the SGB to four major education interest groups. Each group is to have equal rights on the SGB and these rights are to be given full expression in decisions regarding education. Section 23 of the SASA (1996: 18) states that the elected members of the SGB shall comprise a member or members of each of the following categories:

- * The *parents* of learners at the school. They are to be elected, not by the educators or the principal, but by the parent body (community) at large;
- * the *educators* at the school are to be elected by the staff members they represent;
- * members of staff at school who are not educators are to be elected by the non-educator personnel of the school; and
- * *learners* in the eighth grade or higher at the school are to be elected by the representative council of learners themselves.

The election of representatives should be a reflection of the peoples' will in the composition of the SGB. If the governing councillors have not been democratically elected, then the SGB would be unconstitutional. According to the above policy, all stakeholders need to be active participants in the election process because they have a constitutional right to choose the candidate whom they deem will best represent them on the governing council.

(a) The parents

What is of specific significance to the management and governance structure of schools, is that the parent component of the SGB must, according to the SASA (1996: 18[23]), comprise one more than the combined total of other members of a governing who have voting rights. Such policies allow parents powers of educational control which they have never had before. Leonard (1989: 83) perceptively announces that such powers should be used with care and sensitivity.

Sutherland (1988: 83) argues that the proposals to bring parents to participate in the work of the schools undoubtedly cause uneasiness to many teachers. He suggests that to avoid hostility or misunderstandings, the circumstances of this participation and reasons for it should be thought about carefully. Arguing on the same point, Leonard (*ibid*) states that when it comes to decisions about teaching methods, teachers will consider that they are better able to decide than parents. These superiorities, he continues, do not mean that teachers should proceed on their chosen way without explaining to parents the reasons for their actions or decisions, but they do mean that teachers's professional knowledge and competence should be recognised in any school discussions with parents.

According to the SASA (1996), the definition of *parent* includes custodians of pupils who are not necessarily guardians appointed by law. These policy directives may seem insignificant in the day-to-day administration of the school, but they are of significant importance in defining the overall pattern of educational management and governance of schools.

Although the South African Schools Act does not provide specific directives for racial (and gender) representation on the SGB, it becomes imperative to take cognisance of the learner

component of the school population prior to the election or re-election of the SGB members (*cf.* 3.2.5). The parent component of the SGB should reflect the diverse racial groups of the learners within a school so that their diverse needs may be adequately addressed. The membership of a SGB can be justified and legitimised only if they are composed of elected representatives chosen in accordance with the will of the community it serves. Viewing transformation in the context of South African schools, the governing body has the obligation to prevent the restriction of nominations for governing councillors to specific sectors of a community. With reference to the participative management principles, it becomes imperative that democracy prevails during the election process (*cf.* 3.3.2.3-4).

Whilst it may be argued that nominations for SGB members from *other* sectors of the community may be absent during the election stage, it should also be remembered that *democratic representation* infers not only the four categories as referred to above, but also to a cross-section of the population it represents. In certain circumstances, it may become necessary to apply the principle of affirmative action to ensure that a SGB is truly representative of the communities it renders its services to (*cf.* 2.3.3.2).

The Act states in section 29(2) that *only a parent member of a governing body may serve as the chairperson of the governing body*. Depending on the locale of the SGB, this directive may have negative or positive implications because such policy places great responsibility on a person who may not have the necessary skills demanded from chairpersons. Chairpersons need skills in speaking, persuading, chairing meetings, assessing the strength of coalitions and demonstrating shrewd judgement (Dennison and Shenton, 1987: 159-162). These have to be added to those attributes already in demand - knowledge about education policies, integrity and patent dedication to the education of the children. School leaders can thus, play a key role in terms of capacity building (*cf.* 2.3.2.3 [g]). Cognisance must, however, be taken of ¹⁷ media reports, that claim :

¹⁷ The October edition of a national newspaper, the *Post* (1998:23), has a lengthy article on School Governing Bodies: A power struggle that should be a partnership

'parents assumed their powers under the new Schools' Act were limitless...the tables have now been turned and while parents revel in their new-found powers, teachers are concerned these could be abused.'

It becomes necessary for appropriate steps to be taken to develop and improve the effectiveness of education institutions in order to counter mismanagement of schools. The various workshops, seminars and conferences planned by education departments to improve capacity are necessary. However, schools should not be complacent and therefore, educators should aspire towards the achievement of *leadership* position is reflective of the principles of participative management, especially in terms of section 2.3.2.1 in chapter two of this discussion. The backlog in knowledge and skills of parents, particularly in rural areas, demand on-going and continuous training of these parents in strategies of education management and governance.

A culture of tolerance should be nurtured in order to accommodate a period of adjustment so that self-confidence and self-esteem of the SGB members (especially parents and learners) may be enhanced. In affluent areas, this may not be a problem. Chairpersons should however, avoid superimposing an authoritative attitude on the management team and encourage a supportive climate which fosters respect, tolerance and enabling partnerships.

School governors should heed the warning of Leonard (1989: 19) that professional sensitivities may be aroused if teachers feel that governors are acting in an inspectorial role, and governors should be careful to avoid doing so, because according to Leonard (*ibid*):

'Teachers may reasonably expect that their professional skills should be judged by fellow-professionals: that their teaching should be seen in context, by someone who is able to relate it to the school curriculum as a whole, to the stages of development of the pupils, and to the work which similar groups of pupils are doing in other schools.'

Since governors in South Africa are relatively new to their positions, it becomes significant to conclude the discussion of parent governors by quoting Leonard's insightful words:

'The parent governor is thus, first and foremost a governor, but one who has special links with the body of parents. He is a representative, not a delegate, and so does not have to consult his fellow-parents before making a decision as a governor. He has a duty of confidence to the governing body, and so may not be able to tell fellow-parents all that has been said in meetings. This can result in misunderstanding or tension, and so it is important for the parent governor to build up a relationship of trust with his fellow-parents, particularly the committee members of the parents' organisation.'

(b) The educators

In order for educators to take their proper place on the governing body as *main stakeholders*, they need to acknowledge that they have a significant role to play in transforming the education system. This acknowledgement comes with the acceptance of the responsibility to perpetuate the norms and values espoused in the Bill of Rights and to identify with the broader democratic principles enumerated in the National Constitution. Thus, through their representative portfolio's on the SGB, they should display an understanding of their colleague's educational needs and concerns. In this way, a working relationship between the SGB and the school's entire professional corps can evolve. However, it remains the duty of the representatives to create adequate feedback loops to ensure that their colleagues remain updated about developments and programmes that result from the SGB meetings.

(c) Non-educator personnel

In order to ensure that the non-educator personnel becomes part of the education team, the SASA makes provision for such personnel to have a seat on the SGB, thus, giving this group of service providers voting rights in terms of section 23 (SASA, 1996: 18). This is an important policy directive because it instils in this group, a sense of belonging and opens up opportunities for participation in the education process. The utilisation of personnel at all levels of school management and governance fosters recognition of the interdependence of everyone in the education community.

(d) Learners

Provision has been made by virtue of the SASA, for learners in the eight grade or higher to become actively involved in decision-making with regard to policies affecting them. Their representation, as mandated in section 23 of the SASA (1996: 18), on the SGB signifies a major shift in management and governance structures. Although learners in the primary school phase do not have powers of decision-making on the SGB, the rights accorded to them by virtue of the national constitution cannot be violated within (or even outside of) the school context. All activities must be undertaken within the guidelines of the national constitution because childrens' rights are protected by means of legislation. It becomes the legal responsibility for practitioners to inform all learners about changes made within the school, which directly affects them. For example, the SASA stipulates that a learners' code of conduct must be drawn up by SGB. Although parents who are members of the SGB, are supposedly included in decisions about the code of conduct, this code would be insignificant if it is not workshopped with the learners. If learners are not aware of how they are expected to behave within the school milieu, then discipline may become a serious problem.

(e) Co-opted members

Section 23 (8) of the SASA (*ibid*) provides schools with the option to include representatives from external bodies or organisations so that constructive partnerships between the school and the private sector can evolve. Such representatives may be co-opted onto the governing body with the non-negotiable proviso, that parents must remain in the majority on the governing body (SASA, 1996: 23[9]). The objective is to build up external relations in the interest of the school. To extend the network of partnerships, the SASA (1996: 22[30]) recommends that sub-committees be set up with the proviso that a member of the governing must chair each committee.

Although co-opted members do not have voting rights on the SGB, the value of the services that such members can render to the school, should not be under-estimated. For example, the school grounds and buildings committee can serve as a critical eye to evaluate and improve the external appeal of the school. Physical improvements; signs of misuse of property by learners or vandals;

decay of external equipment such as football posts; decay of buildings; the litter level; safety mechanisms for security of school, etcetera, are all aspects which require sound management efforts. According to Leonard (1989: 40), the idea of a sub-committee, has the many advantages. Some of these are listed below:

- * It shares out the workload.
- * Since groups are small, it allows great flexibility of operation
- * It allows individuals to make a recognisable contribution (and gives them a correspondingly greater measure of job satisfaction.
- * It gives scope for special talents to be used to the full.
- * It allows teachers and governors (parents) to work closely together.
- * It permits what is in effect part-delegation, retaining both the involvement of governors (parents) and the full use of the professional expertise of staff.

The joint efforts of the various sub-committees of the SGB can improve the effectiveness of the SGB. Such committees would focus on addressing and overcoming barriers to learning and teaching and can provide the governing body with additional expertise and skills which it may lack. The wider the network of partners serving to target the objectives of a school, the greater the chances that success may be achieved in terms of educational quality and outcomes.

Various authors (Jones, 1980; Leonard, 1989; Kelly, 1995) stress the importance of perceiving the school as part of the community. In terms of this perception, the SGB needs to actively build links with the surrounding neighbourhood, whether through the church, the community or the business sector so that a wide network of partners can evolve for the purpose of improving the quality of education.

The transformation of the structure of membership of the SGB, can in no uncertain terms be viewed as an end in itself. It should be regarded as a dynamic means of operationalising policy directives aimed at transforming attitudes, harnessing skills, improving resources and carving a future for academic progress and economic prosperity. This view is supported by Paisey and Paisey (1987: 66) who emphasise that *'structure is not an end in itself. It is a meant to be the means by which the objectives of the school are reached.'*

3.3.3.2 The School's Constitution

Once the SGB has been established, it becomes a national requirement for it to develop a local constitution. In order to do this effectively, all members must be sufficiently informed about and familiar with the technical aspect of drawing up a constitution together with the current state of its school's system, the individuals who interact there and the objectives of the school. It therefore, requires the concerted effort of all members to have regular discussions about the constitution, its requirements and the manner in which it will become an effective school policy prior to its conception.

Nias, Southworth and Yeomans (1989: vii-viii) acknowledge that coming to perceive, to know, to understand and, finally to participate in a school's culture is neither a swift nor a straightforward process. It requires an intimate knowledge of the school and its staff, based upon an awareness of the significance of many features: history; buildings; organizational arrangements; patterns of interaction; individual people; talk; humour, the distribution of authority and influence; the identity and behaviour of leaders. Over a period of time, familiarity with these features begins to reveal the shared meanings and norms of the staff and the beliefs and values which underlie them. Nias *et al. (ibid)* further claim that, one cannot understand a school from brief and infrequent visits to it. Primary schools are best comprehended through the personal knowledge which comes from living and working in them and which results from careful observation over time.

Drawing up of the school's constitution requires input from all those who will be compelled to abide by it. The constitution will set the framework for activities and participation of stakeholders

and it will also develop a mission statement which outlines the schools philosophy, aims and objectives. It therefore, will be a document with a specific design to shape the idiosyncrasies of a specific school.

3.3.3.3 The learners' code of conduct

The South African Schools Act, (1996: 8) makes it a legal requirement for schools to adopt a code of conduct for learners. The Act also makes provision for pupils (grade 8 and above) to be participants in decisions about the code of conduct. It states in section 8 that *'a governing body of a public school must adopt a code of conduct for learners after consultation with the learners (eight grade and above), parents and educators of the schools.'* This policy would define the day-to-day behavioural patterns of learners and the modes of disciplinary measures. The involvement of learners, educators and especially parents in discussions about a school's code of conduct is of paramount importance for its successful implementation because disciplinary actions taken against learners are no longer beyond comment and criticisms from the community.

Whilst the learner is compelled to abide by the code of conduct because *'nothing contained in the this Act (1996: 8[8]) exempts a learner from the obligation to comply with the code of conduct of the school attended by the learner'*. The learner's rights to be treated with dignity, are also protected by the Act in section 10. Corporal punishment is banned because it is considered an infringement on the rights of the learner and is incompatible with the spirit of partnership and co-operation.

To protect such rights however, the SASA (1996: 8[5]) provides that *'a code of conduct must contain provisions of due process safeguarding the interests of the learner and any other party involved in disciplinary proceedings'*. In other words, the code of conduct must set out the consequences for breaking a code. This would prevent inconsistencies and discrimination in meting out punishment. Not only learners and parents, but educators as well, must be fully aware of the learners code of conduct in order for it to be successfully implemented in schools. This is in accordance with the principle of transparency. It serves as a behavioural guideline not only for learners, but also for educators because they are responsible for the day-to-day disciplining of

learners and must therefore, use the code of conduct as a guide when meting out punishment.

The SGB has a legal obligation to focus a critical eye, not only on the behaviour of learners but also on the practitioners' practices so that there exists a commitment by all to uphold the policies expressed in the learners' code of conduct. Since the SGB is a *legal persona* in terms of the SASA (1996), it can be held accountable for unconstitutional actions taken to implement discipline. The Constitution provides that every person has a right to be treated with dignity. The violation of this right can result in serious implications for the perpetrator of this right. Therefore, it remains the duty to the SGB to ensure that all stakeholders (particularly educators) are well informed about the school's code of conduct so that their actions are carried out within the framework of this policy.

3.3.3.4 Compulsory attendance

A public commitment to supporting the culture of learning and teaching, is expressed in SASA (1996: 6[1]), which provides '*that every parent must cause every learner for whom he or she is responsible to attend a school from the first school day of the year in which such learner reaches the age of seven years until the last school day of the year in which such learner reaches the age of fifteen years or the ninth grade, whichever occurs first.*'

Any parent or other person, according to the SASA (1996: 6[3]), '*who, without just cause, prevents a learner who is subject to compulsory attendance from attending a school, is guilty of an offence and liable on conviction to a fine or to imprisonment for a period not exceeding six months.*' Furthermore, the Act obliges the *Member of the Executive Council* to ensure that there are sufficient school places so that every child is given the opportunity to enjoy his or her right to basic education.

The successful implementation of this policy means that a greater number of learners will enter schools each year. Hence, class sizes will increase and subsequently a greater demand will be placed on the resources of a school. This situation poses a great challenge to the SGB, especially as the issue of quality now becomes a consideration. Whilst quantitative expansion is a national

priority, improving the quality of existing schools become the responsibility of the SGBs.

3.3.3.5 Admission to public schools

A key feature of the admissions policy is that no child may be discriminated against during a school's admissions process. The SGB is charged with the responsibility of formulating and writing the admission policy. The SASA (1996), however, prevents parents from holding tests relating to the admission of the learners.

Neither the school principal nor the governing body, in terms of the SASA 1996, has the authority to deny a child access to a school on the grounds of race, class or religion. If a child or parent does not subscribe to a school's mission statement, this cannot be used as a criteria to refuse a learner admission to enrol in the school. The policy of equal access is closely related to the general demand for equality in educational opportunities because once a child gains entry into a particular school, he or she automatically has access to the resources offered by that school. The open school policy has made it possible for pupils from under-resourced schools to seek enrolment in schools equipped with better resources. The exodus of pupils from the previously disadvantaged to the well-resourced schools, has created a difficult situation for the school manager especially when there is no room to accommodate pupils at the school.

Factors such as the teacher-pupil ratio, limitation of school resources, the availability of classrooms, the level of education offered by a particular school etcetera, are all aspects to be considered when making decisions about the admission policy. According to the SASA (1996: 6[5]), the SGB formulates and writes the admission policy of the school. The involvement of the governing council in this regard, strengthens the voice of parents and provides pupils with the power of choice with regard to the school they wish to attend.

Children and *albeit* parents who are impoverished by their circumstances are protected from being discriminated against by the Act (1996: [5]) which provides that:

'No learner may be refused admission to a public school on the grounds that his or her parent is unable to pay or has not paid the school fees determined by the governing body.'

The admission policy is consistent with the National Constitution (1996: 7) which stipulates in section 9 that:

'no person may unfairly discriminate directly or indirectly against anyone on one or more grounds, including race, gender, sex, pregnancy, marital status, ethnic or social origin, colour, sexual orientation, age, disability, religion, conscience, belief, culture, language and birth'.

However, the constitution does not forbid all forms of discrimination, only 'unfair' discrimination. Sex discrimination may be regarded as fair in schools that have been given the option to retain their single sex status. Provision for this policy is made in section 12 of the Schools Act (1996: 10) which states that nothing in this Act prohibits the provision of gender-specific public schools.

3.3.3.6 Language and religious policy

In section 6, the Constitution (1996: 4) cites 11 official languages of the Republic. Each of the eleven languages enjoy equal status and thus everyone has the right to receive education in the official language or languages of his or her preferred choice in public institutions. The Governing Body of a school may determine the language policy of their schools but no form of discrimination may be practised in implementing the policy.

The Act also provides opportunities for schools with only one medium of instruction to exist. The governing body may lay down rules for religious observances provided that it is conducted in an equitable manner and attendance by learners and staff members is free and voluntary. The staff and learners rights to have their own religious observances is thus acknowledged and respected.

3.3.3.7 The school's budget

A public school's operating costs is funded partly by government subsidy, and partly by income-related school fees which is obligatory for all parents who can afford it. It is government policy that education in the General Education and Training Phase be provided at low cost to parents, and free when parents cannot afford it. In terms of section 5 of the SASA (1996: 6), no child can be refused admission to school on the grounds of the parent's inability to pay school fees. The SASA (1996: 24[34]) states that *'the State must fund public schools from public revenue on an equitable basis to ensure the proper exercise of the rights of learners to education and the redress of past inequalities in education provision'*.

This policy directive stems from the democratic principles of redress and education as a basic right as expressed in the Constitution. The SGB has a legal obligation to abide by this policy directive and at the same time improve its resources in order to uplift the quality of education. This obligation is outlined in the SASA (1996: 24[36]) which states: *'A governing body of a public school must take all reasonable measures within its means to supplement the resources supplied by the State in order to improve the quality of education provided by the school to all learners at the school.'*

Such policy directives have indirect implications for management and governance of school because the governing body will have to set up realistic budgets and maintain budgetary constraints without sacrificing the quality of education. School governing bodies have become an essential part of our country's education service. Therefore, an ineffective and laissez-faire governing body would be detrimental to the national efforts of developing qualitative educational systems. The quality of education can be inhibited if schools depend solely on departmental subsidies and school funds from parents.

In the context of diminishing government finances to education institutions and the acknowledgement that a great deal of expenditure is incurred in the day-to-day running of a school, it becomes inevitable that a trend has to be started by SGBs, which will lead to the establishment of independent income generating sources by individual schools. The SASA (1996: 18[21]) allows for SGBs to employ extra teachers, to maintain and improve the school's property

and buildings, to pay for services and purchase educational material or equipment. If finances are available, then a SGBs will, for example, have the means to pay extra teachers thereby, enabling the school to reduce class size.

Authors, such as Bayne-Jardine and Holly (1994) indicate that small class sizes have a direct impact on the quality of education. A substantial bank balance thus, allows a school to enjoy a degree of functional autonomy. The status of a school varies directly with the degree of success achieved in this direction. For this reason there are attractions in the idea of a SGB as a means of providing some visible guarantee of a school's individuality. It is important for a school to achieve a status of self-sufficiency. This can become possible when all activities can be funded from a school's own resources. The SGB therefore, needs to appoint a body of persons who will be responsible for improving the finances and material assets of the school.

According to writers such as Leonard (1989) and Caldwell and Spinks (1993), fund raising committees can play a major role in this regard by helping to generate private income for the school. Drawing from the principles of participative management, it can be stated that the development of innovative fund-raising programmes and activities are needed so that measurable targets are set to achieve financial goals. Programmes and activities devised by, for example, fund-raising committees in consultation with the SGB and other staff members can lead to wide-scale commitment to achieving such goals. Once the programmes and proposed activities are approved, collective efforts to meet fund-raising targets can be set in motion.

3.3.4 Curriculum 2005 and the National Qualifications Framework (NQF)

A new curriculum framework for General Education and Training, namely, curriculum 2005 was published in July 1996. It is so named because by the year 2003, all grades in the general education and training phase (ie. Grades 1 to 9) will have been introduced to it. From 2003 to 2005, an evaluation of the programme will be run by the department.

It is aimed at increasing access to the curriculum for all learners in school. Curriculum 2005 reflects a paradigm shift in curriculum content and teaching methods. Emphasis is placed on learning outcomes. Hence, outcomes-based education (OBE) is learner-centred with the emphasis placed on what the learner should be able to know, understand and can do and become.

To ensure an integrated and national approach to education and training, nationally accepted outcomes have to be determined. For this purpose a National Qualifications Framework (NQF) has been developed. The NQF specifies the levels, bands and types of qualifications and certificates in education and training (Dept. of Education: 1997: 73).

The South African Qualifications Authority (SAQA) stresses that there should be co-ordinated and sufficient initiatives to ensure that role-players are equipped with the necessary information, knowledge, insight and skills required for them to participate in curriculum development and implementation (*ibid*). Educators who are to implement OBE are faced with the challenge to understand the requirements for implementing the new curriculum. Their creative skills will be fully tested as OBE requires educators to become innovative curriculum designers. The extent of educator involvement will affect implementation because they are responsible for delivering learning programmes within the classroom.

Learners can no longer be regarded as passive recipients of knowledge because OBE demands a shift in teaching methods. The unidirectional mode of classroom teaching, as discussed in chapter one, is rejected in favour of a participative mode. Learners thus become participants in the teaching and learning process and classroom management becomes the collective responsibility of all its incumbents. Furthermore education, according to the OBE principles, has to be relative and relevant to the learner's life world. Espousing on a topic completely alien to a learner's lifeworld, is contrary to the principle of democracy.

The involvement of community members (example, nurses, builders) in the teaching and learning process bridges the gap between the school and the community that was traditionally so evident. Besides providing a valuable service to the school, the parents are themselves valued by the school for the possible contributions they make. The incorporation of community participation in school-based teaching and learning provides the opportunity for community members to exercise responsibility for the education of the child.

The philosophy of OBE provides for an environment in which diversity can flourish, where understanding of and sensitivity to difference in terms of race, language, religious beliefs and appearance can developed. Educators are compelled to accommodate diversity, but unity in the

classroom has to be developed. This is possible through the reduction of stereotypical attitudes and discrimination. To create a participative environment in the classroom context and reduce prejudices, Lemmer (1993: 17) provides the following helpful hints:

- * assign leadership, responsibility and tasks equitably
- * eliminate segregated social and play areas
- * avoid grouping on the basis of gender or race
- * encourage boys and girls to participate in non-traditional activities
- * entertain the same expectations with regard to learning and behaviour for boys and for girls
- * introduce interesting topics on race relations and gender related issues for discussion
- * develop appropriate curricula
- * develop rules and a code of conduct for pupils.

Forms of implementation also incorporate community resources to ensure greater partnership and ownership (Dept., 1997: 74). A culture of tolerance for diversity is imperative for the implementation of OBE. Teaching has to be learner-paced and learner-based.

The implementation of OBE has particular implications for the SGB in terms of skills development training of educators and resource provision. OBE places great demands on educators because it requires them to teach a curriculum that is more critical, reflective and skills-orientated and provides for new methods of assessment. Evidence is emerging which reflects widespread disillusionment resulting from the lack of comprehension and inadequate resources for effective implementation. Sithole (1998) for example, who attended at a cost of R500 a teacher, a ProGro

seminar on OBE says the following in a media report, namely *The Teacher* (June: 1998):

'To say that I experienced a storm in my brain over all those incomprehensible terms and that unbelievable OBE jargon, would be a gross understatement. I felt completely freak - out and, like many of my English-speaking colleagues, felt bewildered and insecure.I see it as a moral wrong to introduce OBE at a time when so much that is basic and fundamental to primary education is lacking.'

In the same newspaper, it is reported that libraries are considered an essential service to a semi-literate population, and vital to the success of the new curriculum. Curriculum 2005 assumes that a qualitative education system is already in place. In rural schools, the lack of basic educational resources, unqualified teachers, large teacher-pupil ratios make the implementation of the highly sophisticated OBE near impossible especially when considering the constraining time frames.

Morphet (1982: 119) concurs that the efforts of the national ministry to redesign the curricula in terms of the NQF have all but foundered at the conceptual level and in turn have produced perplexity on the ground. Teacher commitment and morale is already low and still sinking, while many of the weaker schools appear to have fallen out of the system completely. Jansen (1997: 20) argues that there is every reason to believe that the paradigm shift in teaching and learning will *not* happen for a simple reason: it makes erroneous assumptions about what kinds of teachers exist in the education system. Jansen (*ibid*) further argues that to make such a shift requires highly competent teachers with sophisticated curricular, pedagogical and assessment skills. Even with training, such a shift is difficult to accomplish. Yet there is no indication that a national in-service teacher education (INSET) programme to prepare teachers for the OBE curriculum, will be launched. In this context, teachers will in fact reduce core competencies to narrow behaviours because of their under-preparation for such a colossal change.

SASA holds the SGB accountable to perform its functions in terms of the Act. This includes supporting the principal, educators and the learners to upgrade the quality of education for all learners. They therefore need to establish priorities, identify resources and equip classrooms for

the implementation OBE. A well-resources learning environment with basic resources can improve attitudes towards learning and teaching.

3.3.5 Affirmative Action

Dekker and Lemmer (1994: 61) argue that the major aim of affirmative action is to provide *equality* for all citizens in a country by increasing the participation of disadvantaged groups or individuals. It is regarded as a practical way in which equality can be brought about. Some examples of programmes of affirmative actions are cited by (Dekker & Lemmer, 1994: 71):

- * The reservation of academic, administrative and managerial posts for targeted groups.
- * Support programmes, such as human and academic programmes aimed at facilitation the targeted student's adaptation

A radical change may come about in a school's structural component which includes the parent, learner, and the staff as a result of the implementation of the policy of affirmation action. In terms of reconstruction, the rights, duties and functions of the governing body representatives must be respected and acknowledged in terms of the National Constitution. No representative is to be discriminated against or overlooked during discussions and negotiations about school policies. The principle of accountability, to respective constituencies, applies to every member of the governing body.

Of specific implication to the new school governing bodies is the need for capacity building programmes to assist governing body members with the implementation of certain policy directives. The drawing up of the school's constitution, the mission statement, the school's budget and so on, require some insight and knowledge into how school's operate. Thus, capacity-building programmes are needed to assist governing body representatives to implement policy directives.

3.4 THE LINK BETWEEN POLICY DIRECTIVES AND PARTICIPATIVE MANAGEMENT

Whilst the National Constitution does not focus exclusively on policies for education transformation, it does enact policy directives, as shown above, that form the framework which informs current education policies and practices. In the preamble it states:

*'We, the people of South Africa
Recognise the injustices of our past.'*

This statement has significant implications for education systems, as it requires the acknowledgement of past injustices (*cf.* 2.3.2.6). The need for the *recognition of injustices* speaks not only to the physical and visible aspects of past prejudices, but also necessitates individual introspection in order to eliminate personal ideologies and practices that perpetuated past injustices. In the sphere of school management and governance, introspection of this nature promotes social relations that advance human dignity, non-racialism and non-sexism as expressed in the National Constitution, 1996. Once the respect for human beings is cultivated and nurtured among people, effective partnerships can be promoted (*cf.* 2.3.3) because the manager's assumption about people will lean heavily towards the Y-Theory as illustrated in the diagram on page 49 (*cf.* 2.3.1). The development of a culture of respect for human beings, triggers off attitudes that are compatible with the principles of participative management (*cf.* 2.3.2). It lays the foundation for a management environment where individuals are valued and potentials are tapped in an increasingly supportive organisation.

The SASSA, 1996 devolves powers of control over certain policy decisions to learners, parents and educators respectively. It impresses on education systems to establish horizontal power structures among learners, parents, educators, the school principal, non-staff members, and members from the community (*cf.* 2.3.2.7). These stakeholders form the school's management and governance team (*cf.* 3.3.3.1). Although the Act does not state specifically how the SGB should implement policy directives, it does nevertheless, outline the duties and functions that governing bodies must perform which include, among others:

- * adopt a constitution
- * develop the mission statement
- * adopt a code of conduct for learners
- * determine times of school day
- * determine school fees
- * administer and control the school's property, and buildings and grounds
- * recommend appointments of educators
- * determine the language policy
- * draw up a budget

Additional functions may be allocated to a SGB but it must apply for such 'allocated functions' to the Head of the Education Department. In essence, what these policy directives imply is that greater management and governance powers are devolved to education stakeholder. These stakeholders may determine the quality of education by devising local policies to meet local needs.

The policy of open schools is directly linked to participative management. It provides access to persons of all backgrounds and attempts to desegregate schools. Such access in the context of a school, is extended to the school's management and governance policy. Open schools with closed management styles are incompatible. Therefore, it infers that all interest groups be given a voice by representation on the SGB. Since the school accommodates learners from diverse racial backgrounds, provision must be made for their parents to participate in decisions about their schooling. The September edition of *The Teacher* (1997:4), published two articles which indicate that while policy documents call for open schools, integration among learners from different racial groups, is problematic.

The language policy which provides parents and pupils with the option to choose the medium of instruction, accords equal recognition to all cultural groups and opens access to a more meaningful and relevant education experience. This policy encourages learners to learn two or more languages. It therefore, remains the responsibility of the governing bodies to promote multilingualism in schools. The language policy attempt to support a participative mode of interaction which recognises the diverse nature of our society and reduces cultural and racial

prejudices. In managing classroom activities, educators are to develop and encourage positive cultural identities in learners by initiating activities which reflect diversity. Language diversity cannot be seen as a linguistic mechanism which is used to isolate and exclude learners from learning activities. The language policy makes participation of all linguistic groups in the teaching and learning environment not only possible, but also imperative.

Curriculum policy is indirectly aimed at protecting the education rights of all learners by evolving an inclusive form of classroom management. Teaching methods must be designed to involve learners in classroom activities. According to Kelly (1995: 112) it thus, becomes a moral duty of educators to place learners at the centre of classroom management (*cf.* 2.3.1.4). Their knowledge, skills and ideologies are to form the starting point of the learning process.

According to McKenzie (1997:29), Monyokolo (a policy analyst) and Potenza (a member of the National Curriculum Development Committee), are of the opinion that, the idea that learners should develop a strong sense of self, depends on an approach that integrates the local and the global. They argue, that the one cannot be regarded as being independent of the other. To do so would be to make the same mistake the architects of the old curriculum made.

OBE is based on the well-accepted educational principle that most effective learning takes place when it validates the experience and context of the learner, and moves from the familiar to the unfamiliar. The process of developing learning programmes, according to McKenzie (*ibid*), will be guided by the principle that educators and learners need to see themselves and their loved experiences in the curriculum if real learning is to take place, and that this will in turn enable them to operate confidently in the world. Hence, he avers, should they, once again, feel alienated from the knowledge, skills and attitudes embodied in the curriculum, they may simply '*avert their eyes.*'

Outcomes Based education (curriculum 2005) is a practical mechanism which is used to encourage individuals to be autonomous beings, responsible for shaping their own outcomes. Educators are given greater power for classroom management by being allowed the freedom to experiment and explore different teaching and learning options. Learners are drawn in as participants in the education process due to a shift in learning and teaching methodologies.

OBE sees the community as a valuable resource which needs to be exploited for the purpose of promoting learning outcomes.

Through implementation, OBE extends the network of education partnership beyond the parameters of the school context. The values and principles of OBE are in essence complementary to, and to a great extent compatible with, the foundations of participative management (*cf.* 2.3.1). Its primary objective is to develop the whole person by using the base-line knowledge as a potential for improvement. OBE encourages that management should be seen as a decentralised all-inclusive partnership which places school communities at the centre of the developmental process (*cf.* 2.3.3.1). It serves also to make educators aware of the potential and power they have to change their schools into quality learning organisations.

For the effective implementation of OBE however, the school teachers need a proper understanding of its principles and application and adequate resources are also needed. Many critics of OBE, such as, Jansen (1997: 6) argue that OBE is doomed to fail because it will undermine the already fragile learning environment in schools and classrooms in South Africa. Governing bodies, therefore need to consider capacity building programmes for teachers who are compelled to implement OBE. The government, however, has to ensure that resource material to schools are provided so that, at the very least, schools can attempt to implement OBE.

The schools funding norms are intrinsically linked to the principles of participative management, as it aims to promote equity in terms of provisions and outcomes (*cf.* 2.2.2.9). Due to government cutbacks in funding, parents are seen as the primary funding resource base. They are responsible for footing the bill for such necessities as water, electricity, telephone services and so forth. In schools that do not have these basic services, parents nevertheless, contribute financially through the payment of schools fees. This, among other factors, make their participation in identifying needs, setting goals and deciding on policies imperative.

Proper planning and budgeting are essential if needs are to be properly identified. Information with regard to budgetary needs must be made available to the SGB. This will enable the SGB to estimate all the amounts and then to develop a budget in order to ensure that the school works

within its budget, but also provides an affordable education to the learners.

Sound judgements can be made through the availability of relevant inform (*cf.* 2.3.2.5). For the SGB to have access to such information, staff members should be deemed as the contact point as they use resources for policy implementation. Hence, the interaction between staff members and the governing body becomes necessary (*cf.* 2.3.2.7). Community members, from whom school fees are sourced must be part of the process for developing the school's budget (*cf.* 2.3.2.4). School fees must be agreed upon before such a budget is adopted.

3.5 CONCLUSION

The foundations, principles and features of participative management seems to correlate with the principles that underpin national policies (*cf.* 2.3). National policy documents, reflect the need for participation of all interest groups in decision-making about education policies and practice. This chapter indicated that while national policy directives sets national goals and norms, it simultaneously devolves a degree of autonomy for policy formulation (within the framework of national goals and norms) at the institutional levels. It was indicated that the process of implementing participative policy directives, involves adopting the principles of democracy which underpinned the current education policy documents. The link between policy directives and participative management was also discussed.

CHAPTER FOUR

EMPIRICAL RESEARCH INTO POLICY IMPLEMENTATION: METHODOLOGY AND RESEARCH DESIGN

4.1 INTRODUCTION

In this chapter, the range of approaches used to gather data will be described. The aim of the research project was to elicit responses from education practitioners within the school milieu in an attempt to identify trends of school management and governance in the implementation of selected education policy documents. The empirical study further aims to determine the extent of knowledge by stakeholders, about policy directives that are to be implemented in schools. From the data gathered, the researcher aims to develop measures of the variables important to this study. From extensive questionnaire responses, the researcher aims to develop measures of three variables important to this empirical study:

- * The quantity of participation
- * The quality of participation
- * Satisfaction with implementation of specific transformatory policies

Questions pertaining to the relationship between the school principal and the staff, the governing body and the pupils respectively, will provide data with regard to the quantity, quality and rate of satisfaction in terms of policy implementation. This information will allow for the classification of schools (participative or non-participative) in terms of the amount of participation educators are allowed in the governance and management of schools.

Hence, the empirical research for this dissertation is regarded as important for acquiring data about the apparent mismatch between education policy and practice in an attempt to make recommendations to eliminate these. Careful planning and systematic procedures are imperative for yielding valid and reliable data. Van den Aardweg & Van den Aardweg, (1988: 197) warns that procedures are not haphazard activities; they are planned to yield data on a particular research problem.

This dissertation encompasses the five steps that characterises the systematic nature of the research process as identified by Wiersma (1991: 8), namely:

- * identifying the problem
- * reviewing information
- * *collecting data*
- * analysing data and
- * drawing conclusions

The specific chapter focuses on the third step: *collecting data*.

4.2 PREPARATION AND DESIGN OF THE RESEARCH

In De Vos (1998: 123-124), Thyer views a research design as a blueprint or detailed plan for how a research study is to be conducted. Huysamen (*ibid*) refines this definition by specifying that this plan, or blueprint, offers the framework according to which data are to be collected to investigate the research hypothesis or question in the most economical manner. In the discussion that follows, an attempt will be made to provide a *blueprint* for how the data was collected.

Cohen and Manion's (1997: 85) steps for preparing a research was considered during the initial stages of preparation. Firstly they propose that a survey's general purpose must be translated into a specific central aim. In this case the *specific central aim* was to obtain a detailed description from primary school educators about management and governance practices within their specific schools. Having decided upon and specified the primary objective of the survey, the second phase of the planning involves the identification and itemizing of subsidiary topics that relate to its central purpose. In this investigation, subsidiary issues included for example: the extent of educators knowledge about policy directives, the role of the principal in school management and governance, the role played by parents/pupils/educators in decision-making about school policies.

The third phase follows the identification and itemization of the subsidiary topics and involves formulating specific information requirements relating to each of these issues. With respect to the

extent of educator's knowledge, information would be needed about type of school information systems (rotation of policy documents to staff members; discussion sessions, type of communication systems). With regard to the role of the principal in school management and governance, information would be needed about the ethos created by the principal (participatory, non-participatory, capacity building programmes, opportunity for networking). With regard to the role played by parents, learners and educators in decision-making, information would be needed about the type of decision-making (inclusive, exclusive, collaborative, participative, transparent) process prior to, during and after policy implementation.

According to Cohen and Manion (1997: 85), Hoinville and Jowell (1978) state that as these details unfold, consideration would have to be given to the most appropriate ways of collecting items of information (interviews with selected teachers, postal questionnaires to selected schools, etc.) Schumacher and McMillan (1993: 36) explain that surveys are used frequently in educational research to describe attitudes, beliefs, opinions and other types of information. The researcher regarded the survey as appropriate because information from educators are needed to collect data about school management and governance.

4.2.1 Permission

Best & Kahn (1986: 177) advise that if a questionnaire is to be used in a public school, it is essential that approval of the project be secured from the principal, who may then wish to secure approval from the superintendent of schools. Schools are understandably sensitive to public relations. Thus, a written request (*cf.* Appendix B) was made to the Regional Director of Education and Training of KwaZulu Natal, to conduct this research study among primary school educators located in the Scottburgh district within the Port Shepstone region. In a reply, the researcher was asked to redirect the request to the Chief Superintendent of Education and Management (CSEM) in the Scottburgh district as the schools selected for the empirical study are directly under the control of the district manager. A subsequent written request (*cf.* Appendix C) was hence made to the CSEM.

At a personal meeting with the CSEM on the 23 June 1998, a further meeting was arranged for

the following day with the CSEM and the Superintendents of Education Management (SEMs) of the six circuits selected for this survey to outline the purpose, relevancy and value of the study. Unfortunately, due to the short notice, on the day of the said meeting, five of the six SEMs were unavailable. Nevertheless, a lengthy discussion about the purpose and value of the study was held with the CSEM and with the SEM for the Turton circuit. Written permission was subsequently granted (*cf.* Appendix D).

A copy of the preliminary questionnaire was left with the CSEM who stated that this would be photo-copied and handed to each of the six SEMs. The researcher also sought authorization (*cf.* Appendix E) from each of the school principal's concerned for the utilization of educators to complete the final questionnaire during non-teaching time. In each case, the purpose of the study was stated to the principal as well as to the educators (respondents) concerned.

4.2.2 Selection of respondents

4.2.2.1 Population and sampling considerations

The selection of a sample is a very important step in conducting a research study. According to Ary, Jacobs & Razavieh (1990: 169) sampling implies taking a portion of the population, making observations on this smaller group, and then generalising the findings to the larger population. A *population* is any group of individuals that have one or more characteristics in common that are of interest to the researcher. The population may be all the individuals of a particular type, or a more restricted part of that group (Best & Kahn, 1986: 10). The population identified for this empirical study is that of primary school educators located in the Scottburgh district. Educators are situated in a strategic position (the school context) which allows them opportunities for practical observations of processes involved in the management and governance of primary schools.

Gay (1987: 103), observes that a good sample is one that is representative of the population from which it was selected. It is extremely important that the individuals included in a sample constitute a representative cross section of individuals in the population. That is, samples must be

representative if one is to be able to generalise with confidence from the sample (Ary & Jacobs: 1990). A sample is studied in an effort to understand the population from which it was drawn. As such we are interested in describing the sample not primarily as an end in itself, but rather as a means for helping us to explain some facet of the population (Powers, Meenaghan & Toomey, 1985:240).

Since the researcher is occupationally based in a primary school in the Scottburgh district. The 'rule of thumb' was used to identify the Scottburgh district as the focus of this research. At the time of this investigation, there were 100 such schools in the six circuits within this district. Although the researcher would have liked to obtain data from all educators in all of the 100 schools, it must be acknowledged that this would have been an impossible task, if not an unrealistic ambition.

4.2.3 Sampling methods used

4.2.3.1 Cluster and simple random sampling

There are four basic types of scientific sampling methods, namely, simple random, stratified random, cluster and systematic sampling (Sowell and Casey, 1982:75). For this study, two of these methods were used, namely, cluster sampling and simple random sampling.

According to Gay (1987:110), cluster sampling is more convenient when the population is very large or spread out over a wide geographical area. De Vos (1998: 195), states that cluster sampling has the advantage of concentrating the field study in a specific section of the greater geographical area and thus helps save costs and time. The six circuits into which the Scottburgh district is divided, were regarded as clusters. All six circuits were selected for the sample. De Vos (1998: 198) states that the more clusters that are included in the study, the more representative of the universe the sample naturally is. He further states, that the more clusters are drawn, the less error will occur.

Simple random sampling, however, was used to select five schools within each cluster (circuit).

According to Schumacher and McMillan (1993:161) in simple random sampling, subjects are selected from the population so that all members have the same probability of being selected. The names of all the schools within the respective clusters were placed in a hat and five schools within the respective clusters were randomly selected. These schools were identified as the schools which would be the focus of the investigation.

When it came to the selection of educators, the researcher requested from the principal, a list containing the names of all staff members. The researcher identified a random starting point on the list and then selected numbers according to the product of the total number of staff members divided by the number of subjects required to complete the questionnaire. According to Cohen and Manion (1994: 87), in simple random sampling, each member of the population under study has an equal chance of being selected.

4.2.3.2 Choice and size of sample population

Best & Kahn (1986:16) argue that there is usually a trade-off between the desirability of a large sample and the feasibility of a small one. The ideal sample, they advise, is large enough to serve as an adequate representation of the population about which the researcher wishes to generalize and small enough to be selected economically - in terms of subject availability, expense in both time and money, and complexity of data analysis. In general it is stated that the larger the population, the smaller the percentage of that population the sample needs to be. If the population itself is relatively small, the sample should comprise a reasonably large percentage of the population (De Vos, 1998: 191).

As stated above (*cf.* 4.2.2.1), the population for this research comprises of primary school educators in the Scottburgh district of southern KwaZulu Natal. Educators of primary schools were selected because they have direct access to implementation processes and management and governance observations in primary schools. As implementors of current policy directives they are able to comment directly on realistic policy implementation and management and governance practices.

The table below reflects the six circuits in the Scottburgh district, the number of schools selected per circuit and the number of respondents who answered the questionnaire.

CIRCUIT	NUMBER OF SCHOOLS PER CIRCUIT	NO. OF SCHOOLS SELECTED	NUMBER OF EDUCATORS	NUMBER OF RESPONDENTS
Braemar	17	5	237	33
Umzinto	19	5	220	26
Mtwalume	14	5	191	32
Turton	19	7	181	52
Amandawe	13	6	158	30
Dududu	18	3	213	18
<i>TOTAL</i> ...	100	31 (31%)	1200	191 (16%)

Statistical reflection of circuits, number of schools and number of respondents selected for the empirical investigation.

At the time of this research, there were 1200 primary educators in the Scottburgh district. The initial intention was that five schools will be randomly selected from each of the six circuits. This was however, not possible because the schools in the Dududu circuit were closed due to faction fighting in the area at the time when this research was being conducted. Since schools in the Turton circuit was identified as having similar characteristics as those in the Dududu circuit, it was decided therefore, to increase the number of schools, and hence, the number of subjects, in the Turton circuit.

During the research process however, the researcher managed to administer the questionnaire to 16 educators who were seconded to schools outside of the Dududu area. The total number of respondents that answered the questionnaire thus, amounted to 191, that is 16% of the total population. According to Grinnell and Williams (1990: 127), in most cases, a 10% sample should be sufficient for controlling for sampling error.

4.3 THE RESEARCH INSTRUMENT

The research instrument that best served the needs of this research study was the questionnaire. A questionnaire is an instrument with open or closed questions or statements to which a respondent must react. The basic objectives of such a questionnaire is to obtain facts and opinions about a phenomenon from people who are informed on the particular issue. Different kinds of questionnaires can be distinguished, such as mailed or posted questionnaires, telephonic questionnaires, personal questionnaires, questionnaires delivered by hand and group-administered questionnaires.

The mail questionnaire seemingly, has many advantages. A major disadvantage, is that the non-response rate may be very high and missing data may occur more often (De Vos, 1998: 153). Whilst the researcher may have considered mailed questionnaires in an attempt to reach a greater number of respondents, this option was shelved because many of the schools randomly selected were situated in distant rural areas where postage services are non-existent and furthermore, the majority of educators within the Scottburgh district, are English Second Language speakers. For these reasons, the group-administered questionnaire was regarded as most suitable to accomplish the objectives of this investigation.

4.3.1 The questionnaire as a research instrument

As already mentioned, the researcher relied greatly on the questionnaire as a research tool for the empirical study. In justifying the use of this tool, Gay (1987: 195) contends that the use of a questionnaire has some definite advantages over other methods of collecting data. For example, a questionnaire is more efficient in that it requires less time, is less expensive and permits collection of data from a much larger sample. Van Dalen (1979: 152) is even bolder and unequivocal about the advantages of this method. He claims that for some studies or certain phases of them, presenting respondents with carefully selected and ordered questions, is the only practical way to obtain data.

Van Rensburg, Landman and Bodenstein (1994: 504) define a questionnaire as a set of questions dealing with some topic or related group of topics, given to a selected group of individuals for the purpose of gathering data on a problem under consideration. Tuckman (1978) as cited by Mahlangu (1987: 79), affirms that questionnaires are used by researchers to convert the information directly given by people into data by providing access to what is inside somebody's mind. This approach makes it possible to measure what the person knows (knowledge and information), what he likes or dislikes (values and preferences) and what a person thinks (attitudes and beliefs). This information is transformed into numbers or qualitative data by using attitude scaling or by counting the number of respondents who give a particular response, thus generating frequency data. Hence, the questionnaire as a research tool, affords a good measure of objectivity in soliciting and coding the responses of the population sample.

4.3.2 Construction of the questionnaire

The researcher considered the following qualities of a questionnaire when it was being designed. Cohen and Manion (1996: 92-93) cite Davidson (1970), who claims that an ideal questionnaire is clear, unambiguous and uniformly workable. Its design must minimize potential errors from respondents and coders. Since people's participation in surveys is voluntary, a questionnaire has to help in engaging their interest, encouraging their co-operation, and eliciting answers as close as possible to the truth.

The construction of a questionnaire as an activity should not take place in isolation because it is the culmination of a long process of planning the research objective, formulating the problem and generating the hypothesis. According to Van den Aardweg and Van den Aardweg (1988: 198), the researcher should consult and seek advice from specialists and colleagues at all times during the construction stage. The researcher was thus, in regular contact with a research specialist from Research International who ensured that the statements were not ambiguous, vague, bias, leading, prejudice or incriminating and that the technical language was correct. The researcher also liaised with colleagues to seek advice during the construction stage. Questions were tested on them in order to eliminate possible errors. Van den Aardweg & Van den Aardweg (1988: 198) concur that a question may appear correct to the researcher when written down, but can be interpreted differently when asked to another person.

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An attempt was made to ensure that the researcher produce a design and lay-out of the questionnaire which would attract a high level of response. Emphasizing this point, Cohen and Manion (1980: 111) submit that the appearance of the questionnaire is vitally important. It must look easy and attractive. He reiterates that a compressed lay-out is uninviting; a larger questionnaire with plenty of space for the questions and answers is more encouraging to respondents. De Vos (1998: 156-157) emphasises that the questionnaire must be brief, including only those questions which are absolutely necessary to collect all the relevant information. On the other hand it must be long enough to incorporate all the questions, so that a situation does not arise later where information is missing. He further stresses that it is important to work according to an economic principle, so that respondents can communicate as much information as possible in the briefest possible time.

In the construction of the questionnaire, the researcher was informed and guided by the following basic principles and characteristics of a questionnaire as espoused by Best & Kahn (1986: 175-176) and De Vos (1998: 157-158):

- * It has to deal with a significant topic, one which the respondent will recognise as important enough to warrant spending his or her time on.
- * It seeks only that information which cannot be obtained from other sources.
- * It is as short as possible, and only long enough to get the essential data.
- * It is attractive in appearance, neatly arranged and clearly duplicated or printed.
- * Directions for a good questionnaire are clear and complete and important terms are clearly defined.
- * Each question deals with a single concept and should be worded as simply and straightforward as possible.

- * The questions are objective, with no leading suggestions as to the response desired.
- * Questions should be presented in a proper psychological order, proceeding from general to more specific and sensitive responses. This order helps respondents to organise their own thinking so that their answers are logical and objective. It may be well to present questions that create a favourable attitude before proceeding to those that are more delicate or intimate. If possible, annoying or embarrassing questions should be avoided if possible.
- * Data obtained from questionnaires are easy to tabulate and interpret. It is advisable to preconstruct a tabulation sheet, anticipating the likely tabulation and ways of interpretation of the data, before the final form of the questionnaire is decided upon. This working backward from a visualisation of the field analysis of data is an important technique for avoiding ambiguity in questionnaire form. If computer tabulation is planned, it is important to designate code numbers for all possible responses to permit easy transference to a computer program's format.
- * Questions and response alternatives must be clear and not reflect the bias of the researcher.
- * Every question must be relevant to the purpose of the questionnaire.
- * Abstract questions not applicable to the milieu of the respondents must rather be avoided.

The aim of the questionnaire was to elicit information regarding education management and policy implementation at school. The questionnaire was sub-divided into six questions:

- * *Question 1* dealt with the demographic information of the respondents and consisted of questions 1.1 to 1.11.

- * *Question 2* was subdivided into two parts and focussed on the role played by principals in school management and governance. The first part consisted of fifteen closed questions. In the second part of this question, the respondent had to rank their principal's role in school management according to priority by using the given statements.
- * *Question 3* focussed on the role played by parents in decision-making about school policies and consisted of nine statements. The respondents had to select their choice from five options.
- * *Question 4* focussed on the pupils within the school milieu and consisted of four statements. Responds had to select their choice from five options.
- * *Question 5* was sub-divided into two parts. The respondents had to evaluate the changes taking place in their particular schools and indicate the extent of their satisfaction with regard to these changes by selecting their responses from a list of options. There were fourteen such statements. In the second part, the respondent had to select three statements that best describes his/her feelings about the changes taking place in the school. They were required to place their choices according to priority.
- * *Question 6* was an open question. The respondents had to express their thoughts and feelings about the interaction of the principal with the educators, the governing body, parents and the pupils of their respective schools.

4.3.2.1 Closed-ended questions

McMurtry (De Vos 1998: 160) advises that researchers must aim at using as many closed questions as possible, although there will always be information which is difficult to generate by closed questions, so that open questions are unavoidable in those cases. The ideal is a section of the questionnaire consisting of closed questions suitable for statistical processing by computer and a section with open questions which will have to be processed manually. However, by using only closed questions, important information can be missed because closed questions can never

completely provide for the variety of response options which may exist on any particular subject (*ibid*). The researcher used both closed and open questions for the questionnaire.

4.3.2.2 Open-ended questions

Open-ended questions were necessary because the researcher sought to explore variables that were unknown to the researcher. De Vos (*ibid*) asserts that the open question has advantages when a variable is relatively unexplored or unknown to the researcher. In such a case the open questions will enable the researcher to explore the variable better and to obtain some idea of the spectrum of possible responses.

4.3.2.3 Scaled items

According to Schumacher and McMillan (1993: 245), a true Likert scale is one in which the stem includes a value or direction and the respondent indicates agreement or disagreement with the statement. Likert-type items use different response scales; the stem can either be neutral or directional. The researcher used Likert-type scaled responses in the construction of the questionnaire.

4.3.3 Advantages and disadvantages of a questionnaire

For this study, the researcher took cognisance of the advantages and disadvantages of a questionnaire as expressed by various authors.

4.3.3.1 Advantages of the questionnaire

- * Affordability is the primary advantage of written questionnaires because it is the least expensive means of data gathering.

- * The questionnaire permits anonymity. If it is arranged such that responses are given anonymously, this would increase the researcher's chances of receiving responses which genuinely represent a person's beliefs, feelings, opinions or perceptions.
- * Questionnaires provide greater uniformity across measurement situations than do interviews. Each person responds to exactly the same questions because standard instructions are given to the respondents.
- * Generally, the data provided by questionnaires can be more easily analysed and interpreted than the data obtained from verbal responses.
- * Questionnaire design is relatively easy if the set guidelines are followed.
- * The administering of questionnaires, the coding, analysis and interpretation of data can be done without any special training.
- * Data obtained from questionnaires can be compared and inferences made.
- * Questionnaires can elicit information which cannot be obtained from other sources. This renders empirical research possible in different educational disciplines.

Since the researcher used the group-administered questionnaire, further advantages as espoused by De Vos (1998: 155) are considered:

- * The respondent himself/herself completes the questionnaire while the researcher is present to give certain instructions and clear up possible uncertainties.
- * The greatest advantage of this method is that much time is saved and that the group of respondents is handled simultaneously and consequently also exposed simultaneously to the same stimulus.

4.3.3.2 Disadvantages of the questionnaire

The disadvantages of a questionnaire cannot be overlooked because the type of research instrument chosen by the researcher results from weighing the pro's and con's of the proposed instrument. Mahlangu (1987: 84-95), tabulates, the following disadvantages of a questionnaire:

- * Questionnaires do not provide the flexibility of interviews.
- * People are generally better able to express their views verbally than in writing.
- * Questionnaires can be answered only when they are sufficiently easy and straight-forward to be understood with the given instructions and definitions.

4.3.4 Validity and reliability of the questionnaire

Reliability and validity are essential to the effectiveness of any data-gathering procedure (Best & Kahn, 1986: 144). They observe that all too rarely do questionnaire designers deal consciously with the degree of validity or reliability of their instrument. Perhaps this is one reason why so many questionnaires are lacking in these qualities. They further recognise that, questionnaires, unlike psychological tests and inventories, have a limited purpose. They are often one time data-gathering devices with a very short life, administered to a limited population. Best & Kahn's (1986: 178-179) views become relevant in order to understanding how to improve both validity and reliability of a questionnaires:

- * Basic to the validity of a questionnaire is asking the right questions, phrased in the least ambiguous way. In other words, do the items sample a significant aspect of the purpose of the investigation.
- * The term used must be clearly defined so that they have the same meaning to all respondents.

- * Researchers need all the help they can get; suggestions from colleagues and experts in the field of inquiry may reveal ambiguities that can be removed or items that do not contribute to a questionnaire's purpose.
- * The panel of experts may rate the instrument in terms of how effectively it samples significant aspects of its purpose, providing estimates of content validity.
- * Reliability of questionnaires may be inferred by a second administration of the instrument, comparing responses of an alternate form with the original form.

The researcher did not, however follow Best & Kahn's suggestions to the letter, but used their suggestions as a guide in dealing with aspects of validity and reliability regarding the research instrument.

4.3.4.1 Validity

Hudson (De Vos, 1998: 83) states that the definition of validity has two parts: the instrument actually measures the concept in question, and the concept is measured accurately. De Vos (*ibid*) argues that in this sense, validity refers broadly to the degree to which an instrument is doing what it is intended to do. Best & Kahn (1986: 144) concur that validity is that quality of a data-gathering instrument or procedure that enables it to measure what it is supposed to measure. They further emphasise that reliability is a necessary but not sufficient condition for validity. That is, a test must be reliable for it to be valid, but a test can be reliable and still not valid. Van den Aardweg and Van den Aardweg (1988: 237), Mulder (1989: 215-217) and Dane (1990: 257-258) cite three different types of validity:

- * Content validity where content and cognitive processes included can be measured. Topics, skills and abilities should be prepared and items from each category randomly drawn.
- * Criterion validity which refers to the relationship between scores on a measuring instrument and an independent variable (criterion) believed to measure directly the

behaviour or characteristic in question. The criterion should be relevant, reliable and free from bias and contamination.

- * Construct validity where the extent to which the test measures a specific trait or construct is concerned, for example, intelligence, reasoning, ability, attitudes, etcetera.

4.3.4.2 Reliability

Hudson (De Vos, 1998: 85) defines reliability as the accuracy or precision of an instrument; as the degree of consistency or agreement between two independently derived sets of scores; and as the extent to which independent administrations of the same instrument yield the same (or similar) results under comparable conditions. Synonyms for reliability are dependability, stability, consistency, predictability, accuracy, reproducibility, repeatability and generalisability. Thus, an instrument is reliable to the extent that independent administrations of it or a comparable instrument consistently yield similar results.

Whilst reliability refers to consistency, consistency does not however guarantee truthfulness. Dane (1990: 256) emphasises that the reliability of the question is no proof that the answers given reflect the respondent's true feelings. Sources of error that may affect reliability are expressed by Mulder (1989: 209) and Kidder and Judd (1986: 45):

- * Fluctuations in the mood or alertness of respondents because of illness, fatigue, recent good or bad experiences, 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 outside noise to inconsistencies in the administration of the measuring instrument such as omission in verbal instructions.
- * Differences in scoring or interpretation of results, chance differences in what the observer notices and errors in computing scores.

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

It must be acknowledged that when a questionnaire is used as an empirical research instrument, there is no specific method, example the 'test-retest', to determine the reliability of the questionnaire. Therefore it would be difficult to establish to what extent the answers of the respondents were reliable. However, as the questionnaire is targeted at primary school educators, they were regarded as appropriately positioned and possessed the necessary experiential knowledge to respond to the questionnaire in a responsible and reliable manner.

The researcher believes 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 questionnaire. In coding of the questions it was evident that the questionnaires were completed with the necessary dedication. These factors should enhance the validity and reliability of the information and the data-gathering instrument.

4.4 PILOT STUDY

Researchers generally agree that a pilot study or trial run is important because it helps the researcher to decide whether or not the study is feasible and whether or not it is worthwhile to continue (Khathi, 1990: 80; Ary and Jacobs and Razavieh, 1992:109). The pilot study provides the researcher with an opportunity to assess the appropriateness and practicality of the data collecting instrument. Unanticipated problems that may appear may be solved at this stage, thereby saving time and effort.

Regarding the selection of people on whom the pilot study should be tested, Tuckman (1978: 225) suggests that the pilot study should use a group of respondents who are part of the intended test population but will not be part of the sample. This reasoning is appropriate because people of the intended population would undoubtedly have a clear understanding of the nature of the questions being asked in the questionnaire. Testing a pilot on friends and neighbours as suggested

by Leedy (1974) could result in distorted findings. Thus, the researcher decided to conduct a pilot study with the approval of the principals, on educators in two schools, namely one ex-Department of Education and Training (ex-DET) and one ex-House of Delegates (ex-HOD) school which were not going to form part of the final sample.

It was found that in the ex-DET school, where all educators were not English second language speakers (EL2), some difficulty was experienced. Respondents complained of lack of experience with regard to completing a questionnaire. Although they showed enthusiasm, it was suggested that the researcher read the introductory sentence for each question and briefly explain what is required from the respondents. Respondents should work concurrently through each question to ensure that all six questions are completed. These suggestions were implemented during the main study.

Furthermore, the results of the pilot study enabled the researcher to eliminate and alter some items, example, one item in question two, regarding the role of the principal in school management, had been phrased in such a way that it appeared to be leading respondents to a particular answer. Another item in the same question, appeared to be of a sensitive nature and the researcher was advised to eliminate it altogether. In questions 1.9 and 1.10, there were no provisions for an “unsure” box and these were added.

Khathi (1990: 68) affirms that the pilot study provides the research worker with ideas, approaches and clues not foreseen prior to the pilot study. Such ideas and clues greatly increase the chances of obtaining clear-cut findings in the main study. Hence, the pilot study served as a valuable trial run in this regard.

4.5 ADMINISTRATION OF THE QUESTIONNAIRE

All the questionnaires for the empirical study were accompanied by a cover letter. Ary, Jacob and Razavieh (1985: 532) state that the cover letter serves to introduce the potential respondents to the questionnaire and *sell* them on responding. The cover letter should include the purpose of the study and a request for co-operation. The anonymity of respondents must also be guaranteed

clearly in the covering letter and a clear indication given that all information will be treated with confidentiality (De Vos, 1998: 157).

Whilst the suggestions above were not followed to the letter, the researcher used the suggestions as a guide in the administration of the questionnaires. Since both rural and urban schools were targeted for this research, meetings, during non-teaching times, between the researcher and the group of respondents were set up by means of telephonic arrangements with the principal. Where no telephones existed, this was done so personally by the researcher. Upon arrival at each school, the researcher presented to the principal, the letter of approval from the CSEM to conduct research in the Scottsburgh district. The researcher also requested a signature of authorization from the principal (*cf.* Appendix E) as reference to the formal permission granted by him/her to conduct the research.

In order to motivate respondents to give their full co-operation for the investigation, a verbal description of the purpose of the study was given. The importance of the study for education management and governance as a whole was also stressed. In schools where all the respondents were English second language speakers (EL2), the researcher read the cover letter to the respondents and the topic sentence for each question to the respondents. This proved to be a sound means to ensure that all respondents were sufficiently confident to answer all questions.

The personal administration of the questionnaire to the respondents facilitated a cordial and relaxed atmosphere that resulted in the researcher and the research instrument being accepted without hostility or suspicion. It further eliminated misinterpretation of questions by the respondents as they were invited to ask for interpretation where uncertainties occurred.

Cognisance was, however, taken of De Vos's (1998: 155) suggestions for group-administered questionnaires. He states that each respondent should receive the same stimulus and complete his/her own questionnaire without discussion with the other members of the group. The respondent himself/herself completes the questionnaire while the researcher is present to give certain instructions and clear up possible uncertainties.

4.6 PROCESSING OF DATA

Since both descriptive and the inferential statistical analysis were used in processing the data for this empirical study, a brief account of these two types of statistical applications will be given.

4.6.1 Descriptive statistical analysis

According to Best & Kahn (1986: 208), descriptive statistical analysis limits generalization to the particular group of individuals observed. No conclusions are extended beyond this group, and any similarity to those outside the group cannot be assumed. The data describe one group and that group only. Descriptive analysis provides valuable information about the nature of a particular group of individuals. Descriptive statistics is the most fundamental way to summarise data, and it is indispensable in interpreting the results of quantitative research (Schumacher & McMillan (193: 192).

4.6.2 Inferential statistical analysis

Inferential analysis always involves the process of sampling and the selection of a small group that is assumed to be related to the population from which it is drawn. Drawing conclusions about populations based upon observations of samples is the purpose of inferential analysis (Best & Kahn, 1986: 208). Schumacher and McMillan (1992: 192) state that inferential statistics are used to make inferences or predictions about the similarity of a sample to the population from which the sample is drawn. Since many research questions require the estimation of population characteristics from an available sample of subjects or behaviour, inferential statistics are commonly used in reporting results. A content analysis was performed on responses to open-ended questions. This meant first identifying themes in the responses and then tabulating the frequency with which each theme appeared.

The interpretation of data was facilitated by the use of the test called the related (correlated) *t*-test. According to Howitt and Cramer (1997: 127), the *t*-test is the name of a statistical technique which examines whether two groups of scores have significantly *different* means - in other words how likely is it that there could be a difference between the two groups as big as the one obtained

if there is no difference in reality in the population? Hence, this test compares the means of two *related* samples of scores to see whether the means differ significantly.

The researcher wishes to know whether the means of responses differ from each other. The question is whether the mean scores in the responses are sufficiently different, from each other that they fall in the extreme 5% of cases. A significance table (*cf.* Appendix F), of the t-distribution, reports the value of the t-score needed to put a sample mean outside the middle 95% of sample means and into the extreme 5% of sample means that are held to be unlikely or *statistically significant sample mean*. In other words, the critical value to test for the significant difference between proportions is taken at the 5% level. If they do, this allows the researcher to generalise from the research findings.

4.7 LIMITATION OF THE INVESTIGATION

4.7.1 Limitations of design

Schumacher & McMillan (1993: 572) express the essential of stating the design limitations as, it illustrates the researcher's knowledge of the threats to the internal and external validity in the proposed design. They purport that it is better for a researcher to recognise the limitations rather than claim he or she has the 'perfect' design. A shortcoming of the research design is that it overlooked the fact that a large number of respondents were English second language speakers (ESL2). The questionnaire was monolingual and not bilingual and therefore, did not cater for the Zulu speaking respondents. The researcher phrased the questions in simple English and made herself available for clarification where necessary at the time of completion of the questionnaire.

4.7.2 Methodological limitations

According to Schumacher & McMillan (1993: 573), methodological limitation refers specifically to validity and reliability of the proposed instrumentation or instrument(s) that have been developed. The following are likely factors that may have influenced the reliability and validity of the questionnaire:

- * The sensitive nature of items in the questionnaire may have elicited false or misleading responses thereby influencing the reliability of the results.

Despite the above limitations and given the time and resource constraints, the researcher found that the advantages of the questionnaire far outweighed the disadvantages for this study. Furthermore, on evaluating the questionnaire, a reasonable level of validity and reliability was established to support the use of the questionnaire for this study.

4.8 CONCLUSION

In this chapter the planning and design of the empirical research was discussed. The planning incorporated permission and selection of respondents. A rationale for the choice of the questionnaire as the research instrument was given. The administration of the questionnaire and the data processing method were discussed. An overview of the limitations of the investigation were also outlined.

CHAPTER FIVE: ANALYSIS AND INTERPRETATION OF DATA

5.1 INTRODUCTION

In this chapter, the results of the empirical investigation will be analysed and interpreted. Thereafter, the responses to specific questions on the questionnaire will be examined. As stated in chapter four, the data for this study was gathered by means of a questionnaire. The analysis of the questionnaire data involved coding the one hundred and ninety-one completed questionnaires and subsequently transferring the coded data onto a computer spreadsheet. Finally, the data was subjected to computerised statistical analysis in order to test statistically the relationship between specific variables. Below is the analysis of the data gathered.

5.2 DESCRIPTIVE AND INFERENTIAL STATISTICS

5.2.1 Gender of educators in primary schools

Table 1 Frequency distribution according to gender of educators in primary schools

GENDER	FREQUENCY	PERCENT
Male	60	31.4
Female	131	68.6
TOTAL	191	100

Table 1 indicates that more female educators (68.6%) compared to male educators (31.4%) are occupying teaching positions in primary schools. Dekker and Lemmer (1994: 22) confirm that teaching in South Africa is dominated numerically by women. They further cite Erwee (1992), who is of the opinion that a possible reason for this is that women's vocational choices were traditionally gender-specific, with 66,5% in education and only 5,6% in engineering.

5.2.2 Age of respondents

Table 2 Frequency distribution according to the age of the educators

AGE	FREQUENCY	PERCENTAGE
under 30	46	24.1
31-40	100	52.4
41-50	36	18.8
51-over	9	4.7
Total	191	100

The age profile of the respondents reflected in the above table shows that 76.4% of the respondents are in the age category below 40. Data from this question clearly indicates that the educators in primary schools in the Scottburgh District are relatively young and still have a many years to contribute to the profession. Leonard (1989: 70) states that it is good for any school to have a spread of ages in its staff. Thus, if their knowledge and skills are properly harnessed and they are trained to become partners in managing the education system, the trend towards participative leadership and collaborative management can evolve.

Only 4.7% of the educators are over 50 years. What is noticeable from this table is that the apex narrows as the ages advance. The possible reason for this phenomenon is that the majority of the senior (and more experienced) educators have been lost to the profession due to the Department of Education's retrenchment and retirement packages (*cf.* 1.1).

5.2.3 Home Language

Table 3 Frequency distribution according to the home language of the educators

Home Language	Frequency	Percent
English	50	26.2
Afrikaans	2	1.0
Zulu	139	72.8
Xhosa	0	0
TOTAL	191	100

Table 3 indicates that the majority of respondents (72.8%) speak Zulu at home. This finding was anticipated (*cf.* 4.5) and therefore the researcher opted for the group administered questionnaire in order to prevent misinterpretation of questions. Cognisance was taken of De Vos's (1988: 155) suggestions for group-administered questionnaires. He states, as mentioned in chapter four, that each respondent should receive the same stimulus and complete his/her own questionnaire without discussion with the other members of the group. The respondents thus, completed the questionnaires while the researcher was present to give certain instructions and clear up possible uncertainties.

5.2.4 Highest qualification

Table 4 Frequency distribution according to qualification of educators

Qualification	Frequency	Percent
Lower than matric	2	1.0
Matric	14	7.3
College/University diploma	156	81.7
University Degree eg. BA	15	7.9
Other post university degrees	4	2.1
Total	191	100

It is encouraging to note from table 4 that only 8.3% of the respondents indicated that they do not have a college or university diploma. Hence, it can be concluded that many of the schools are

managed by properly qualified educators. While proper qualification is a necessary criterion to enter the teaching profession, appropriate training is necessary for qualitative education and classroom management. Table 2 indicates that 75.9% of the educators are over the age of 30, suggesting that the majority of educators have had their training before the April 1994 elections.

Due to the rapidly changing demands on educators to meet the needs of the population it serves, inservice and continuous training is indeed necessary. This is emphasised by Oldrough and Hall (1991: 25) who maintain that in-service training is a major vehicle for delivering educational reform. This view is supported by Jones (1980: 77) who states that the school's manpower should not be left to their own devices whether they are newly appointed members of staff or teachers of many years' standing in a school. The significance of staff development is discussed further in the next chapter on recommendations.

Of particular significance, is the indication, from table 4 that 7.9% of the educators have a university degree and only 2.1% have studied towards a post-university degree. It is the researcher's belief that not only principals, but also level one educators need to improve their own standard of education so that a greater understanding about managing the education system can be gained. According to Theron and Bothma (1990: 28), a post graduate study like B.Ed gives the student an intensified scientific insight into and better understanding of teaching and educational problems and other developments in the field of education. Self-improvement and professional development, equips the educator with confidence and skills to implement education transformation and at the same time compensates for aspects inadequately dealt with in initial training.

5.2.5 Phase of teaching

Table 5 **Frequency distribution according to phase in which educator is teaching**

Phase	Frequency	Percent
The Junior Primary Phase	82	42.9
The Senior Primary Phase	109	57.1
Total	191	100

Table 5 indicates that there are 42.9% educators teaching in the junior primary phase and 57.1% teaching in the senior primary phase. Comparatively, the percentages indicate a slightly greater percentage of educators in the Senior Primary phase. Concern was raised in the open-ended question (six) by 4.1% of the respondents who indicated that there is a lack of involvement of Junior Primary teachers in the management of schools. One such respondent claims: *'We (referring to JP teachers) are just told what to do, we are never involved in the decisions'*. The neglect of matching specific tasks with skills and knowledge may negatively influence the management of professional relationships within the school environment.

5.2.6 School type

Table 6 **Frequency distribution according to school type**

Qualification	Frequency	Percent
ex-DET school	133	69.6
ex-HOD school	44	23.0
ex-HOR school	3	1.6
ex-HOA school	11	5.8
Total	191	100

Table 6 reflects that the majority of respondents (69.6%) are from ex-DET schools. Thus, it can be concluded that there are more ex-DET schools in the Scottburgh District than all the other schools put together, which amounts to 30.4% only. In the background of this study (*cf.* 1.2), it was revealed that the education systems in South Africa were differentiated on the basis of racial, ethnic and regional divisions of South African society. The Department of Education and Training which implemented Bantu Education was cited as the prelude to the gross disparities in the present educational system. Since Table 6 indicates that there are more DET schools in the Scottburgh District, it can be inferred that a greater effort in terms of human and material resources is required to bring about equity in this vicinity.

5.2.7 Circuit

Table 7 Frequency distribution according to circuit where respondents are teaching

Circuit	Frequency	Percent
Braemar	33	17.3
Umzinto	26	13.6
Mtwalume	32	16.8
Turton	52	27.2
Amandawe	30	15.7
Dududu	18	9.4
Total	191	100

The majority of respondents (27.2%) came from the Turton circuit and the lowest number (9.4%) came from the Dududu circuit. The initial intention of the researcher was to randomly select five schools from each circuit. As explained in chapter one, this was not possible due to faction fighting in the Dududu area (*cf.* 1.8).

5.2.8 Number of years in present school

Table 8 Frequency distribution according to the number of years of educators in their present schools

No. of years in present school	Frequency	Percentage
under 5	73	38.2
6 - 10	65	34.0
11 - 15	30	15.7
16 - 20	16	8.4
over 20	7	3.7
Total	191	100.0

Table 8 indicates that the majority of educators (61.8%) have been members of a particular school staff for more than 5 years. This allows for an informed response to questions which the researcher asked. Table 10 however, indicates that a number of respondents indicated a poor knowledge of their school policies, for example:

- * the school's constitution - (18.6%)
- * the school's mission statement - (24.0%)
- * the learners' code of conduct - (24.4%)

Table 13 below indicates that 78.5% of the respondents agree that their school principals discuss school policies with the staff. The percentages above however, indicate a poor knowledge of school policies. This is indicative of the difficulty being encountered, even by qualified and experienced teachers, to conceptualise the large number of novel policies that they are required to implement in the schools.

5.2.9 Gender of school principal

Table 9 **Frequency distribution according to gender of school principal**

Circuit	Frequency	Percent
Male	103	53.9
Female	88	46.1
Total	191	100.0

It would be logical to assume that a greater number of females are occupying management positions, especially in the light of the statistical differentiation in gender of respondents (males: 31.1% and females: 68.6%) in the sample population with females being in the majority (Table 1). Table 9, however, reflects otherwise with 53.9% male principals and only 46.1% being female. However, in comparison with pre-1994 gender ratios, it is encouraging to note that a greater number of females are occupying principals' posts.

Research on *Management Development and Training of Principals in KwaZulu with specific reference to senior secondary schools*, conducted by Mbatha (1992: 169), reveals that out of 85 respondents randomly selected for the empirical studies, only 2 were females occupying management positions. Similar trends were found in primary schools prior to 1994 which also reflect an endocentric bias with regard to management positions.

The policy to redress the inequality of opportunities, namely affirmative action, supports the principle of equity in the workplace and hence aims to equalise participation rates in terms of, among others, gender (*cf.* 3.3.11). Notwithstanding the above policy of affirmative action, cognisance must be taken of Dekker and Lemmer's (1994: 24) warning, that equality in access to education opportunities is only part of the issue and must be accompanied by equality in the process of schooling.

The whole idea of education as an enabling condition of equality is premised on the belief that gender-based inequity was rationally based on women's lack of formal school qualifications when compared to those of men. This trend is rapidly changing as women are currently aspiring towards improved academic qualifications. Leithwood, Begley and Cousins (1992: 33) concur that greater respect for individual rights is changing and will continue to change the ethnic and gender balance in positions of responsibility in schools. Many more women, they argue, will assume such positions, shortly.

5.2.10 Description of knowledge

Table 10 Frequency distribution according to items relating to respondents' knowledge of selected policy documents

QUESTION 1.8 Description of Knowledge	EXTREMELY POOR	POOR	AVERAGE	GOOD	EXTREMELY GOOD	TOTAL	MEAN
The South African Schools Act, 1996	36 18.8 %	27 14.2 %	70 36.6 %	47 24.6 %	11 5.8 %	191 100.0 %	2.84
The South African Schools Bill, 1996	22 11.5%	48 25.1%	55 28.8 %	59 30.9 %	7 3.7 %	191 100.0 %	2.9
Education Labour Relations Act, 1995	23 12.0%	47 24.6%	75 39.3%	37 19.4%	9 4.7%	191 100.0 %	2.8
Your school's constitution	15 7.9%	17 8.9%	47 24.6%	83 43.5%	29 15.2%	191 100.0 %	3.39
Your school's mission statement	23 12.0%	23 12.0%	44 23.2%	70 36.6%	31 16.2%	191 100.0 %	3.33
The Learner's code of conduct	19 9.9%	20 10.5%	39 20.4%	63 33.0%	50 26.2%	191 100.0 %	3.55
The Teachers' code of conduct	17 8.9%	15 7.9%	31 16.2%	74 38.7%	54 28.3%	191 100.0 %	3.7

Table 10 indicates that the respondents' knowledge with regard to "the learners' code of conduct" and "the teachers' code of conduct" is relatively good (mean scores of 3.55 and 3.7 respectively). However, the mean values with regard to 'the SASA' (2.84) and the 'SA Schools Bill' (2.9) measures significantly lower on the 95% confidence level thereby indicating a comparatively poor knowledge of these policy documents.

One of the most important policy documents that drives education transformation is the South African Schools Act, 1996. Table 10 reflects that about one third (32.9%) of the educators have a poor or extremely poor knowledge of the SASA and only 30.4% indicating a good or very good knowledge of this policy document. This finding confirms the need for capacity building programmes, as acknowledged in the WPET (*cf.* 1.1). It is the writer's view that an improved and enhanced knowledge and skills base about policy directives is a presupposition for effective policy implementation.

5.2.11 Stakeholder representatives elected on the Schools Governing Body (SGB)

Table 11a Frequency distribution according to the number of educators on the SGB

Educators on the SGB		Frequency	Percentage
Between	1-2	140	73.3
	4-6	19	9.9
	7-10	10	5.2
	None	2	1.1
	Unsure	20	10.5
	Total	191	100

Table 11b Frequency distribution according to the number of parents on the SGB

Parents on the SGB		Frequency	Percentage
Between	1-2	14	7.3
	4-6	133	69.6
	7-10	16	8.4
	None	4	2.1
	Unsure	24	12.6
	Total	191	100

Table 11c Frequency distribution according to the number of non-parents on the SGB

Non-parents on the SGB		Frequency	Percentage
Between	1-2	21	11.0
	4-6	1	.5
	7-10	4	2.1
	None	122	63.9
	Unsure	43	22.5
	Total	191	100

Tables 11a, 11b and 11c indicate the data captured for Question 1.9 of the questionnaire. A comparative analysis of the frequency distribution indicates that the majority of schools are complying with policy directives which mandate a parent majority on the SGB (*cf.* 3.3.3 1[a]).

From the statistics above, it is clear that there are more parents as compared to that of educators on SGBs. The percentage (69.6%) of respondents who indicated that there are 'between 4-6' parents, for example, on the SGB (Table 11) is far greater than the percentage (9.9%) of respondents who selected educators in the same category, namely 'between 4-6' (Table 11b).

5.2.12 Stakeholder representatives co-opted on the Schools Governing Body (SGB)

Table 12a **Frequency distribution according to the number of co-opted educators on the SGB**

Co-opted educators of SGB		Frequency	Percentage
Between	1-2	27	14.1
	4-6	5	2.6
	7-10	0	0
	None	125	65.5
	Unsure	34	17.8
	Total	191	100%

Table 12b **Frequency distribution according to the number of co-opted parents on the SGB**

Co-opted parents on SGB		Frequency	Percentage
Between	1-2	37	19.4
	4-6	9	4.7
	7-10	0	0
	None	109	57.1
	Unsure	36	18.8
	Total	191	100

Table 12c **Frequency distribution according to the number of co-opted non-parents on the SGB**

Co-opted non parents on SGB	Frequency	Percentage
Between 1-2	23	12.0
4-6	1	.5
7-10	2	1.1
None	120	62.8
Unsure	45	23.6
Total	191	100

In Tables 12a, 65.4% of the respondents indicated that no educators are co-opted on the SGB while Table 12b indicates that 57.1% indicated that there are no parents co-opted on the SGB and Table 12c indicates that 62.8% of the respondents stated that there are no non-parents co-opted on the SGB. Table 12b indicates that there is a cumulatively greater percentage of parents than educators (Table 12a) co-opted on SGBs, that is 24.1% in comparison to 16.8%.

It is evident from the six tables about the SGB membership above that a large number of educators are unsure of the composition of their School's Governing Body. Hence, it can be inferred that information and communicative links are lacking between the staff and the SGB. Although the SASA, 1996 mandates *educator representatives* on the SGBs, it appears from the finding above, that staff members are not kept informed about the parent representatives of their respective school governing bodies.

5.2.13 Management functions

Table 13 **Frequency distribution according to management functions of respondents**

MANAGEMENT FUNCTIONS	Frequency	Percent
Stock control	28	9.7
Finance management	15	5.2
Teacher librarian	7	2.4
Governing body treasurer	12	4.2
Governing body secretary	18	6.3
Fund raising committee member	43	14.9
Member of school grounds and buildings committee	8	2.8
Prefect master	11	3.8
Sports master	47	16.2
School's public relations officer	6	2.1
Subject committee member	27	9.3
None of the above	66	22.8
Total	288	99.7
Missing	1	.3
Total responses	289	100

Table 13 indicates that a large number of educators, namely 22.8% do not perform any management functions. It is argued in chapter 3.3.4., that in contemporary education systems, it has become mandatory for educators to perform professional duties and functions beyond the classroom, for example, as members of the SGB. From a theoretical perspective, a strong case has been argued for leaders to create opportunities of wide-scale participation in school management (*cf.* 2.2.2.1[j]). From the findings above, it appears that educators are not participating in management functions beyond their pedagogical duties. Hence, it is concluded that in some schools, the dichotomy between the principal and the educator in the management of schools, still prevails.

5.2.14 Role of principal in school management

Table 14 **Frequency distribution according to the items on the role of the principal in school management**

QUESTION 2 MY PRINCIPAL	STRONGLY DISAGREE	DISAGREE	NEITHER AGREE NOR DISAGREE	AGREE	STRONGLY AGREE	TOTAL	MEAN
discusses school policies with the staff	12 6.3%	11 5.8%	18 9.4%	93 48.7%	57 29.8%	191 100%	3.93
discusses The South African Schools' Act, 1996 with the staff	26 13.6%	47 24.6%	44 23.1%	56 29.3%	18 9.4%	191 100%	2.96
discusses The South African Schools' Bill, 1996 with the staff	29 15.2%	51 26.7%	43 22.5%	49 25.7%	19 9.9	191 100%	2.88
rotates departmental circulars to all staff members	9 4.7%	14 7.3%	11 5.8%	65 34.0%	92 48.2%	191 100%	4.14
discusses the budget with the staff	42 22.0%	38 19.9%	29 15.2%	48 25.1%	34 17.8%	191 100.%	2.97
involves staff in decisions about spending	44 23.0%	33 17.3%	24 12.6%	59 30.9%	31 16.2%	191 100.%	3.00
promotes agreement among staff members and the Governing Body on curriculum content and method	29 15.2%	36 18.8%	34 17.8%	64 33.5%	28 14.7%	191 100.%	3.14
supports staff in implementing Outcomes Based Education	10 5.2%	19 9.9%	29 15.3%	81 42.4%	52 27.2%	191 100.%	3.76
builds a network of external contacts to help improve school resources	13 6.8%	17 8.9%	39 20.4%	88 46.1%	34 17.8%	191 100.%	3.59
recognises special potential and skills of staff	17 8.9%	29 15.2%	29 15.1%	79 41.4%	37 19.4%	191 100.%	3.47
distributes the teaching workloads fairly among staff members	17 8.9%	27 14.1%	22 11.6%	69 36.1%	56 29.3%	191 100.%	3.63
creates opportunities for professional growth of his/her staff members	13 6.8%	20 10.5%	28 14.7%	81 42.4%	49 25.7%	191 100.%	3.70
motivates staff to be united	15 7.9%	9 4.7%	15 7.9%	64 33.5%	88 46.1%	191 100.%	4.05
promotes mutual trust between himself/herself and staff	16 8.4%	16 8.4%	20 10.5%	77 40.3%	62 32.5%	191 100.%	3.80
encourages partnership between the staff and governing body	14 7.3%	30 15.7%	27 14.1%	79 41.4%	41 21.5%	191 100.%	3.54

The majority of the educators, were in agreement with the items in Table 14 regarding the role played by principals in the management of their schools. This statement is confirmed by analysis of the following data:

(i) My principal discusses school policies with the staff

Only 12.1% of the respondents disagreed with the above statement while 78.5% agreed that the principal discusses school policies with the staff. One of the Department of Education and Culture's strategic implementation plan regarding qualitative education for all, is that relevant stakeholders, including staff, should be optimally involved in the process of policy initiation, formulation, implementation, and evaluation. This should occur at all levels of the system: national, provincial district, and centre of learning levels (Department, 1998: 140).

Dennison & Shenton (1987: 14) are of the opinion that in a professional partnership, policy-making is led by senior professional but there are arrangements to allow all others to participate. The resultant policy represents a consensus. Open discussions about school policies is consistent with the current call for transparency in the way schools are managed and the concomitant reciprocal trust and cooperation that emanates from open communicative systems (*cf.* 3.2.2.5). Hence, Morphet, Roe and Reller (1982:129) concur that cooperation is less likely to be forthcoming unless those responsible for carrying out a decision have a sense of influence upon that decision.

(ii) My principal discusses the South African Schools' Act, 1996 with the staff

39.2% of the educators were in agreement that the principal discusses the SASA with the staff and almost the same percentage (38.7%) of educators disagreed with the statement. However, an alarming number (23.1%) of educators opted for the middle value. In view of the importance of this policy document, it is the writer's concern that there is a neglect on the part of some principal's to relate policy issues about school governance to the staff.

This view correlates with the finding in Table 10 which indicates that 33% of the educators have a poor or very poor knowledge of the SASA. While analysis of the statement below that *My principal rotates departmental circulars*, yielded data to the effect that 82.2% of respondents answered in the affirmative, it is evident from Table 14 that merely rotating circulars (which include policy documents) is not sufficient to ensure that the information contained in such circulars are fully understood by all educators. If important policy documents are not discussed with those stakeholders who are expected to implement them, then the possibility arises that these policies may not be appropriately implemented because of the lack of understanding.

(iii) My principal discussed the Bill of Rights, 1996 with the staff

Table 14 indicates that 41.9% of the educators disagreed with item (iii), while 35.6% agreed. The latter percentage indicates a positive direction of management in the current climate of transformation. It reflects the identification and acknowledgement of the principles of democracy in the management and governance of educational systems. In its preamble, the South African School's Bill, 1996 states:

"Whereas it is necessary to adopt legislation for the democratic transformation of schools and to set uniform norms and standards for the organisation, governance and funding of schools to serve the needs and interests of all learners at schools and to uphold their democratic rights..."

The percentage of educators (41.9%) who disagreed with item (iii) above corresponds with the percentage of respondents (36.6%) who indicated that their knowledge of the Bill of Rights is poor. Perhaps a degree of complacency, on the part of educators, with regard to updating themselves about transformatory policies reveals itself in the corresponding percentages. It thus, appears that strategies are required to ensure that teachers are familiar with and have an understanding of current policy documents.

(iv) My principal rotates departmental circulars to all staff members

Item (iv) received the highest percentage (82.2%) of respondents who agreed with the statement. By its very name, *circulars* are meant to be *circulated* to staff members.

This management activity may appear trivial and routine, but its importance cannot be underestimated. It serves as an information link between educators and the education department.

While table 14 indicates the mean score for item (iv) above to be 4.14, respondents knowledge of the SASA (2.84), the Bill of Rights (2.90) and the ELRA (2.80) measured significantly lower on the 95% confidence level. Thus, these values confirm what was stated earlier in (ii) that merely rotating circulars (which include policy documents) is not sufficient to ensure that the information contained in such circulars are fully understood by all educators.

(v) My principal discusses the budget with the staff

Although it is encouraging to note that a large number of educators (42.9%) are involved in discussions about the schools budget, an equally large number (41.9%) are excluded from such discussions. Smyth (1993: 17) acknowledges that educators are required to operate within the reduced school budget. The budget is a reflection of, *inter alia*, the cost-cutting policy of a school. The *reduced* budget influences the quantity and quality of resources used by educators to facilitate classroom teaching. If educators are not aware of the budget, the cost-cutting policy of the school may not be successfully implemented. Therefore to overlook educators during discussions about the school's income and expenditure may be detrimental to the school as an organisation.

According to Jones (1980: 67), the head (principal) carries great responsibility for establishing priority between competing claims and some heads prefer to share this decision-making with their colleagues, or at least consult them before the final decision is taken. Jones (*ibid*) states that in some schools, the principal adopts a policy to remain secretive about the resources and decides, in an arbitrary fashion, how these are to be allocated. He therefore, warns that the adoption of such a management policy, may build up frustration and jealousies among staff.

(vi) My principal involves staff in decisions about spending

Since financing education is as an important aspect of the management of an education system (Dekker & Van Schalkwyk, 1989: 15), this statement was included to cross check the previous

one. There is evidence of a correspondence between the percentages yielded from these two items. 40.3% of the educators did not agree that the principal involves staff in decisions about spending, while 47.1% agreed with the statement. It is disappointing to note, given the current national drive to aspire towards educational equity, that such a large percentage of educators are not involved in addressing their local financial needs and priorities. The possible reason for this is that the budget may be discussed with the SGB and therefore, the staff is excluded from decisions about spending. This is inconsistent with the principles of participative management. If educators are excluded from such decision, then a lack of understanding in terms of the school's budget for example will prevail. This may result in the staff members not supporting the budget.

Keith (1991: 111) points out that involving teachers at the site level in goal setting, problem solving and decision making, will serve to enhance the general operating effectiveness of the school.

(vii) My principal promotes agreement among the staff and the governing body on curriculum content and method

48.2% of the respondents agreed with the item above. This is an encouraging sign as it is a reflection of the gradual, but definite inclusion of parents in determining curricular policy. 34% of the educators did not agree that the principal promotes agreement among the staff and governing body about curricular content and method. It appears from the finding that in some schools, parents are given a say in curriculum policies, for example, the school's medium of instruction. In terms of the SASA (1996: 16[21]), SGBs may apply to the Head of Department to purchase textbooks and educational materials. Governing bodies may even chose the schools' language policy. OBE complements the above policy directives by encouraging community participation in the teaching and learning situation.

The possible reason for the high percentage who disagreed that their principals promote mutual agreement among the staff and the governing body, is the probability that management assumptions about parents leans more towards the X-theory described in chapter two (cf. 2.3.1.2). Leonard (1989: 45) states that a governing body which confines itself to matters of subsidiary detail about the curriculum cannot really be said to govern, and its members thus need to press for an increased role.

(viii) My principal supports staff in implementing Outcomes Based Education (OBE)

While 69.6% of the educators agreed that the principal supports staff in implementing OBE, only 15.1% disagreed. Presently, this policy does not affect the senior primary educators because they are not required to implement it this year. Hence, the findings may be reflective of some of the educators lack of knowledge in this regard. Outcomes Based Education is a relatively new concept in South Africa, its implementation therefore, necessitates the reskilling of educators in content relevancy and multifaceted teaching methodologies (*cf.* 3.3.10). Various authors, such as Dubin (1991), and Biott and Nias (1992) view the management structures of a school as the framework within which the main activity, the teaching and learning process, can be encouraged and supported.

(ix) My principal builds a network of external contacts to help improve school resources

A remarkable figure, namely 122 (63.9%) of the educators were in agreement that their principal builds a network of external contacts to help improve school resources while only 30 (15.7%) were not in agreement. This finding indicates a positive effort, by principals of some schools, to harness the assistance from community members to promote the goals of the school. Keith (1991: 14) claims that the principal has key public relations functions with parent groups, the community, the district office, and the school board. Under conditions of budgetary restraint, the dynamic principal should try to acquire added resources (human and material) for the school to supplement funding. Those principals who do not build a network of external contacts to help improve the school resources, tend to limit the school's chances of improvement and deprive the school of reaching goals which could have been reached with help from the community. They also deprive the school from building a partnership with the community.

Paisey's (1992) perspective is that 'external relations' (contacts) include all contacts for whatever purpose with a parent or guardian in connection with the pupil's work, relationships or conduct and condition. This includes documentary contact such as sending of written information and reports, replying to letters, and requesting parental visits to school for advisory or consultative purposes. In addition, this category includes all decisions about relations with external bodies of all kinds, the local authority, the mass media and the school's neighbours.

(x) My principal recognises special potential and skills of staff

This item reveals that 60.8% of the respondents were in agreement with this statement and 24.1% were not. A possible factor which may have influenced the latter percentage and the middle one (15.1%), is that five of the 31 school principals were acting-principals while a few of the remaining were relatively newly appointed. Hence, the principal may not have had sufficient time and experiences with the staff to adequately recognise their special potential and skills.

(xi) My principal distributes the teaching workloads fairly

Despite the 65.4% who agreed that the principal distributes the teaching workloads fairly, it is noted that 23% did not agree and 11.6% did not commit a response either way. Indications are that in some schools fair management practices in terms of workloads are lacking. This is tantamount to discrimination in the workplace which may ultimately breed despondency and dissatisfaction among staff members. According to Van der Walt (1987: 5), for successful educational institutions to develop, all employees should be treated with justice and no favouritism or antagonism should be shown towards individuals. He further states that there should be consistency in treatment between all subordinates over periods of time. This principle is pragmatic when implementing task-orientated policies in schools. Van der Westhuizen (1991: 294), affirms that every educational leader, like all managers, has people as his chief resource. They are the primary raw material with which he works. Therefore, effective work programmes are required so that unfair distribution of workloads can be eradicated.

(xii) My principal creates opportunities for profession growth of his/her staff members

Findings from Table 14 indicate that a cumulative percentage of the respondents (68.1%) agreed that the principal create opportunities for professional growth and 17.3% did not agree. Where principals are not creating opportunities for professional growth, implementing policies, for example OBE, may be ineffective if not hampered. Leithwood, Begley and Cousins (1992: 141) affirm that school leaders help create useful staff development directly, by providing the needed resources, and indirectly, by fostering a staff commitment and a supportive collegial environment.

It is extremely important however, that existing resources and competencies should be utilised optimally and creatively to move towards equity and redress.

(xiii) My principal motivates staff to be united

More than three quarters (152) of the educators agreed that the principal motivates staff to be united. A low percentage (12.6%) disagreed with this item. In the current climate of restructuring education systems and the concurrent wide-scale transformation in school governance, funding, curriculum and so on, differing ideologies and expectation inevitably manifest themselves in the management of schools. Hence, the high percentage of respondents who agreed that the principal motivates staff to be united was somewhat expected. Data yielded from the list of ranking for question two (*cf.* Appendix G) indicates that principals are giving priority to motivating staff to be united. The highest number of respondents (108) ranked this item either first, second or third as the '*one statement which best describes YOUR principal's role in management.*' Hence, it can be inferred that principals are inclined to promote unity among staff members since it is evident that educators are aware of the effort that principals are making to develop a good working environment.

(xiv) My principal promotes mutual trust between himself/herself and staff

An encouragingly high percentage of educators (72.8%) agreed that the principal promotes mutual trust between himself/herself and staff while 16.8% disagreed. This indicates that an open and honest relationship exists among some principals and staff members. The 16.8% indicates however, a negative relationship that some principals are building, which may range from lack of transparency to unfair management practices. If there is no trust in a relationship, then it is assumed that negative interaction will evolve. Cutbert and McDonough (1985) see trust as the fundamental cement that binds an organization together, facilitating good communication, rectifying badly timed actions, making goal attainment possible, and creating the conditions for organizational success (*cf.* 2.2.5.2).

(xv) My principal encourages partnership between the staff and governing body

62.9% of the educators agreed that the principal encourages partnership between the staff and governing body. There is however, evidence of a lack of encouragement for such a partnership by some principals as indicated by 23% of the respondents. 14.1% neither agreed nor disagreed that such encouragement prevails. In response to question 2.2, 15.1% of the respondents ranked this item first, second or third. The SASA, 1996 makes governing bodies an integral part of school management and therefore, a partnership between educators and the governing body is essential for an effective organisation to evolve (*cf.* 2.3.2.2). A lack of encouragement by principals to build a partnership between the staff and the governing body, is a reflection of the lack of emphasis placed on the importance of participative management. One of the key principles of participative management is '*leader as initiator of participation*' (*cf.* 2.3.2.1 [e]). Leonard (1989: 45) argues for the need for governors to show an interest in (and some appreciation for) what the staff are doing, how they are developing professionally, and how their careers are progressing. It is therefore, imperative that strategies are developed to build greater intergration between educators and the governing body.

5.2.15 Parents participation in school governance

Table 15 Frequency distribution according to items on parent participation in school governance

QUESTION 3 PARENTS WERE PARTICIPANTS IN DECIDING	STRONGLY DISAGREE	DISAGREE	NEITHER AGREE NOR DISAGREE	AGREE	STRONGLY AGREE	TOTAL	MEAN
Our school's constitution	21 11.0%	30 15.7%	33 17.2%	66 34.6%	41 21.5%	191 100%	3.40
Our school's mission statement	22 11.5%	39 20.4%	50 26.2	58 30.4%	22 11.5%	191 100%	3.10
Our school's admission policy	16 8.4%	31 16.2%	52 27.3%	65 34.0%	27 14.1%	191 100%	3.29
Our school's language policy	26 13.6%	38 19.9%	52 27.3%	58 30.4%	17 8.9%	191 100%	3.01
Our learner's code of conduct	14 7.3%	30 15.7%	30 15.7%	76 39.8%	41 21.5%	191 100%	3.52
Our school's budget	17 8.9%	25 13.1%	31 16.2%	76 39.8%	42 22.0%	191 100%	3.53
Our school's religious observance/ instruction policy	24 12.6%	33 17.3%	56 29.3%	61 31.9%	17 8.9%	191 100%	3.07
Our schools curricular programme	35 18.3%	45 23.6%	53 27.6%	46 24.2%	12 6.3%	191 100%	2.76
Our school's extra-curricular programme	26 13.6%	36 18.8%	42 22.2%	71 37.2%	16 8.4%	191 100%	3.08
AVERAGE	23 12.1%	34 17.8%	44 23.0%	64 33.5%	26 13.6%	191 100%	

(i) Parents were participants in deciding school policies

According to the findings in Table 15, less than fifty percent (47.1%) agreed that parents were participants in deciding school policies. This finding corresponds with item (ii) in table 14 whereby a relatively low percentage (38.7%) agreed that the principal discusses the SASA, 1996 with the staff. The non-participation of parents in decisions about school policies indicate that the national policies that give greater powers of control to parents in policy decisions, are not being implemented in many schools. This may be due to a top-down management approach adopted by school principals or it may be the result of a lack of knowledge or skills on the part of the parents.

In response to question six (principal-governing body interaction) some educators indicated that the principal makes decisions and then informs the governing body. One educator mentioned that the governing body should not be involved in management duties as this may result in 'chaos'.

These findings identify a gap between policy and practice in terms of which the state provides that:

'all stakeholders and interest groups should have the opportunity to participate in policy formulation, monitoring and development in a way consistent with efficient educational management and administration'.

(Karlsson, Pampallis & Sikhosana, 1994:17).

The SASA provides a school's governing body, legal authority to participate in decisions about all the items in Table 15. Hence, though its way of working may vary greatly, the governing body in the 1990s is a powerful force in the education service, and it is up to every individual who holds the office of school governor to enable the governing body of his own school to use that power responsibly but effectively (Leonard, 1989: 148).

5.2.16 Pupil participation

Table 16 Frequency distribution according to items on implementation of policies relating to learners in the school

QUESTION 4	STRONGLY DISAGREE	DISAGREE	NEITHER AGREE NOR DISAGREE	AGREE	STRONGLY AGREE	TOTAL	MEAN
The pupils confide in the principal	17 8.9%	41 21.5%	44 23.1%	70 36.6%	19 9.9%	191 100%	3.17
The principal uses corporal punishment to effect discipline	57 29.8%	69 36.1%	41 21.6%	18 9.4%	6 3.1%	191 100%	2.20
There is mutual respect between the teachers and pupils	5 2.6%	20 10.5%	21 11.0%	80 41.9%	65 34.0%	191 100%	3.94
Pupils are kept informed about changes made within our school	12 6.4%	19 9.9%	19 9.9%	89 46.6%	52 27.2%	191 100%	3.79

(i) Pupils confide in the principal

The cumulative percentage of educators who disagreed that pupils confide in the principal is 30.4% with 23.1% opting for the neutral value and 46.5% who agreed. This finding indicates that opportunities may not be available, in some schools, for positive principal-pupil interaction. Reasons for this may be drawn from the responses to question six about the principal-pupil interaction. Some of these indicate that pupils are afraid of the principal and one respondent even cited the regular late-coming and absenteeism of his principal as the cause for a lack of principal-pupil interaction. It is widely acknowledged that an effective principal is one who is sensitive to the needs of the pupil and is approachable not only to adults, but to pupils themselves as primary beneficiaries. Dekker and Lemmer (1994: 238) support the view that students should have the freedom to express personal opinions, ideas and thoughts, even controversial ones, without being punished. Expressing views to the principal by pupils, combined with the principal's willingness to listen to them, may facilitate mutual trust.

violating the rights of the learners by effecting discipline through corporal punishment. These figures indicate that management need to think of strategies to secure discipline without inflicting corporal punishment.

(iii) There is mutual respect between the teachers and pupils

Table 16 indicates that 13.1% of the educators disagreed with this item while the majority (75.9%) agreed that there is mutual respect between the teacher and pupils. This finding indicates that some schools are experiencing discipline problems. If the code of conduct is workshopped with learners, the probability of them abiding by it will increase. This would however, not be possible if educators are not familiar with the learners' code of conduct. In Table 10, 20.4% of the educators indicated that they have a poor knowledge of the code of conduct. Arguably, it can be stated that it would be difficult for teachers to implement the code of conduct if they are not familiar with it. The Government Gazette (Notice 776, 1996: 4) states that the preamble to the Code of Conduct should direct the Code of Conduct towards a culture of reconciliation, teaching, learning and *mutual respect* and the establishment of a culture of tolerance and peace in all schools.

(iv) Pupils are kept informed about changes made within our school

The majority of educators (73.8%) agreed that pupils are kept informed about changes in school and 16.3% disagreed. It is encouraging to note that in some schools, emphasis is being placed on the importance to update learners about policies that affect them. In other schools, however, findings indicate that, providing learners with relevant policy information is not given priority as learners are not kept informed about changes made in schools. Ngcobo (1983: 229) states that in schools where the pupils are not involved in school affairs, apathy is likely to result. The school is likely to be viewed by pupils as a necessary evil that must be endured but in which they are not bound to take an active role. They cease to view themselves as a vital part of the activity within the school setting, because they become mere spectators in the social interaction of the school.

(ii) Principal uses corporal punishment to effect discipline

A significant finding in this item is that 12.5% of the educators agreed that the principal uses corporal punishment to effect discipline and a relatively high percentage (21.6%) opted for a neutral response. This finding indicates that the national policy to ban corporal punishment is not being implemented in all schools. The literature review on leadership in this study indicates that the leader should be a **catalyst** for transformation (2.3.2.1[a]). Therefore, those adopting obsolete management practices should adopt the principles of participation if the rights and dignity of the learners are to be respected. Hence, section 8 of the SASA (1996: 8) provides that a governing body of a public school must adopt a code of conduct which must aim at establishing a disciplined and purposeful environment to facilitate effective education and learning in schools (*cf.* 3.3.5).

In terms of National education policies, the learners' code of conduct must be subject to the Constitution of the Republic of South Africa, the South African Act, 1996 and provincial legislation. It must reflect the constitutional democracy, human rights and transparent communication which underpin South African society (Notice 776, 1996: 2) The range of sanctions, however, may not include any form (according to the SASA) of corporal punishment, which is now illegal in all schools. In addition to the various policy documents (as referred to above) and media reports that corporal punishment is a criminal offence, educators are, therefore, compelled to comply with policies that call for the banning of corporal punishment. Section 10 of the SASA (1996: 10) implicitly states that:

- * *no person may administer corporal punishment at a school to a learner and*
- * *Any person who contravenes subsection (1) is guilty of an offence and liable on conviction to a sentence which could be imposed for assault.*

Despite the above policy directive, 12.5% of educators (as stated above) indicated that corporal punishment is still being used to effect discipline while 21.6% opted for the neutral 'neither agree nor disagree' response and 65.9% disagreed. These findings indicate that many principals have done away with corporal punishment to discipline the learners. Some principals are in fact

5.2.17 Evaluation of changes in school

Table 17 Frequency distribution according to the items on respondents evaluation of changes taking place in school

QUESTION 5	VERY UNSATISFIED	UNSATISFIED	NEITHER SATISFIED NOR UNSATISFIED	SATISFIED	VERY SATISFIED	TOTAL	MEAN
Parents are given greater power in education management	32 16.8%	43 22.5%	38 19.9%	56 29.3%	22 11.5%	191 100%	2.96
Our school's governing body was democratically elected	16 8.4%	13 6.8%	25 13.1%	69 36.1%	68 35.6%	191 100%	3.84
There is racial representation on our school's governing body	39 20.4%	37 19.4%	40 20.9%	54 28.3%	21 11.0%	191 100%	2.90
There is gender representation on our school's governing body	13 6.8%	30 15.7%	17 8.9%	71 37.2%	60 31.4%	191 100%	3.71
Parents participated in deciding the school's constitution	25 13.1%	22 11.5%	49 25.6%	67 35.1%	28 14.7%	191 100%	3.27
Parents participated in drawing up the learner's code of conduct	22 11.5%	37 19.4%	50 26.1%	54 28.3%	28 14.7%	191 100%	3.15
Parents were consulted about the school's admission policy	12 6.3%	22 11.5%	41 21.4%	96 50.3%	20 10.5%	191 100%	3.47
Parents were consulted about the school's language policy	13 6.8%	35 18.3%	67 35.1%	62 32.5%	14 7.3%	191 100%	3.15
Parents have the capacity to make policy decisions	22 11.5%	36 18.8%	59 30.9%	59 30.9%	15 7.9%	191 100%	3.05
The learner's code of conduct sets out consequences for breaking a rule	19 9.9%	20 10.5%	34 17.9%	91 47.6%	27 14.1%	191 100%	3.46
Curriculum changes reflect the diverse cultures of our country	15 7.9%	30 15.7%	40 20.9%	82 42.9%	24 12.6%	191 100%	3.37
Our school embraces a non-racial enrolment policy	10 5.2%	17 8.9%	29 15.2%	77 40.3%	58 30.4%	191 100%	3.82
Parents are actively involved in the education of their children	36 18.8%	47 24.6%	30 15.8%	56 29.3%	22 11.5%	191 100%	2.90
The principal, staff, pupils and governing councillors have a good working relationship	16 8.4%	20 10.5%	29 15.2%	78 40.8%	48 25.1%	191 100%	3.64
AVERAGE	21 11%	29 15.2%	39 20.4%	69 36.1%	33 17.3%	191 100%	

The averages in Table 17 indicate that, just over fifty percent (53.4%) of the educators were satisfied with the changes taking place in their schools, while 26.2% expressed dissatisfaction and 20.4% were neither satisfied or dissatisfied. The findings indicate that in some schools, transformation is taking place in a manner which satisfies the educators. If educators are not satisfied with the changes taking place in their schools, this may imply that these changes are not adequate to meet the needs of the relevant stakeholders or that stakeholders are not sufficiently involved in the changes taking place. The quality of participation in decisions about policy will inevitably affect the quality of implementation and its concomitant outcome. Bayne-Jardine and Holly (1994: 139) are of the opinion that it is quality processes that lead to quality products. The above are substantiated by the following items in Table 17:

(i) Parents are given greater power in educational management

In Table 17, 39.3% of the respondents answered in the negative to the item: *parents are given greater power in education management* while 40.8% indicated that they were satisfied that parents are given greater power in education management in their schools. The findings indicate that in some schools, parents are part of the management team and hence given greater powers while in other schools parents are excluded. It must be stated that the parents' involvement in decision-making about school policies, is no longer a privilege. It has now become a right by virtue of legislation. The SASA (1996) provides legitimate authority to parents to exercise greater power in educational management and governance. The government's commitment to involve parents more fully in school governance, is expressed in the SASA which gives parents the majority among all voting members. Principals must ensure that schools are managed in accordance with all applicable laws as well as with the proper personnel and correct labour relations practices (Department, 1997: 1). According to the SASA, the governance of every public school is vested in its governing body.

(ii) Our school's governing body was democratically elected

The majority (71.7%) of educators were satisfied that the SGB body was indeed democratically elected. In a departmental supplement (Department, 1997: 2), it is stated that it was essential to

South Africa's new democracy that people reach a high level of consensus on their public school system. Huge effort went into consultations with education interest groups and individuals, and into informing people about new policies every step of the way. The SASA (section 23), makes it a legal requirement to establish democratically elected School Governing Bodies. However, 15.2% of the educators indicated their dissatisfaction with item (ii). This implies that principals in some schools are selecting candidates as school governors in a unilateral manner, and thereby disregarding the policy directives as stipulated in the SASA. In other schools though, the community was involved in selecting the candidates of their choice.

(iii) There is racial representation on our school's governing body

Despite the Education Department's policy directive that schools are to establish representative SGBs, less than fifty percent (39.3%) of the respondents were satisfied with item (iii). 39.8% of the educators indicated their dissatisfaction. A factor that may have influenced these percentages is that only four years have transpired since the advent of democracy. Major structural changes in school management and governance is an evolutionary process and cannot be expected to occur overnight. The rural-urban disparity is another factor that may have influenced the imbalance. Commenting on schools in Great Britain, Leonard's (1989: 114) reason for non-representation of race groups on the SGBs, has relevance in South African schools and cannot be ignored. He claims that some groups of people are reluctant to put themselves forward for election as governors. If this is the case, governors should be encouraged to use their right to co-opt members in order to reduce the imbalance.

(iv) There is gender representation on our SGB

Although the majority (68.6%) of respondents expressed satisfaction that there is gender representation on their SGB, 22.5% indicated dissatisfaction. This finding indicates that in some schools, females are taking an active role in education. Where this is not happening, it can be stated that the schools have not considered the policy of affirmative action to ensure gender representation.

In its' preamble, the SASA (1996: 2) emphasises a commitment to combat racism , *sexism* and all other forms of unfair discrimination and intolerance in an effort to advance the democratic transformation of society. According to Kaplan (1992: 16), the rights and principles governing women's lives often remain largely theoretical. Principals should encourage governing bodies to support the government's commitment to *combat sexism*.

(v) Parents participated in deciding the school's constitution

Table 17 indicates that 49.8% of the respondent were satisfied that parents participated in deciding the school's constitution. In terms of the SASA (1996: 14[18]), parents (SGB) are responsible for drawing up a school's constitution. Although national policy documents (SASA) call for parent participation in deciding the school's constitution, 24.6% of the respondents however, expressed their dissatisfaction with item (v). What may have influence the percentages is that parents find themselves in a position where they have had no prior experiences in terms of the powers afforded to them by virtue of the SASA. Hence, a lack of confidence or know-how may have been the cause for the lack of participation. A top-down management mode as a probability, however, cannot be ignored. School principals, therefore, need to ensure that mechanisms are devised to build the confidence level of the school governors so that they can participate effectively in decisions about school policies.

(vi) Parents participated in drawing up the learners' code of conduct

Less than fifty percent (43%) of the educators expressed their satisfaction that parents participated in drawing up the learners' code of conduct while 30.9% expressed dissatisfaction. The SASA (1996: 8[8]) empowers a SGB to set norms and standards for learners so that a safe learning environment may be created. Findings in Table 17 indicate that parents were participants, in some schools, in drawing up the learners' code of conduct. It is most likely that these parents will support the policy because they were participants in its constitution. A sense of ownership will prevail in terms of the policy decisions and hence commitment by learners, to adhere to the policy will subsequently be encouraged by parents. In the schools where parents were non-participants, such a commitment from the learners may not easily be established without the help from the parents.

In this case discipline may become a serious problem. If principals adopt a participative management style, the relevant stakeholders will be encouraged to involve themselves in decision-making about school policies.

(vii) Parents were consulted about the school admission policy

Table 17 indicates that only 17.8% of the respondents were dissatisfied with item (vii) and 60.8% indicated that they were satisfied that parents were consulted about their school's admission policy. In rural schools, where there is a homogeneous population, the statement (vii) above would not have had much relevance. In urban schools that serve a multiracial community, parent's consultation about the school's admission policy is imperative otherwise such policies may not be implemented in a transparent and democratic way. According to the SASA (1996: 6[5]), '*a public school must admit learners and serve their educational requirements without unfairly discriminating in any way.*' Byne-Jardine and Holly (1994: 80) maintain that although the policy making role of governors is legally paramount, they have an important role in consultation because they (may) represent the diversity of interests in the immediate environment.

(viii) Parents were consulted about the language policy

39.8% of the respondents indicated their satisfaction that parents were consulted about the language policy and a cumulative 25.1% responded that they were dissatisfied with statement (viii). This finding indicates that in some schools, parents are involved in decision-making processes about policies where their participation is legislated. In the schools where parents are not consulted, representation whereby the indigenous languages may be promoted, is being overlooked. The issue of language in public schools, is closely related to the Bill of Rights (1996: 15[30]), which gives everyone the right to education in the official language or languages of their choice.

(ix) Parents have the capacity to make policy decision

Table 17 indicates that 30.3% of the educators indicated their dissatisfaction with regard to the

statement that parents have the capacity to make policy decisions and 38.8% indicated that they were satisfied. It is encouraging to note that, in some schools, educators have confidence in the potential of parents to make policy decisions. The percentage of 30,3% who indicated dissatisfaction with item (ix) may be a reflection of the past imbalances in educational provision. It is recalled that some of the parents serving on SGBs, especially in ex-DET schools, were recipients of Bantu Education (cf. 1.2.1.2 [b-c]). The disparity in education provision in South Africa left approximately 15 million illiterate adults in our country today (ANC, 1994: 87). Many of these adults are parents to our learners some of whom are serving as members on SGBs. Hence, the history of our country, may have had a significant influence on the percentages for this item (ix).

(x) The learners' code of conduct sets out consequences for breaking a rule

The majority of respondents (61.7%) expressed their satisfaction that the learners' code of conduct sets out consequences for breaking a rule. The notice in the Government Gazette (Notice 776 of 1998: 4) states that *'as learners are compelled to comply with the Code of Conduct of the school they attend they must be informed about its contents, which must list, in positive terms, the things learners may not do, or should do, as well as communication channels, grievance procedures and due process in conducting fair hearing. Learners must understand that action may be taken against them if they contravene the Code of Conduct'* (cf. 3.3.5).

Although the above notice is consistent with the SASA, 20.4% of the educators expressed dissatisfaction in response to the statement that *the learners' code of conduct sets out consequences for breaking a rule*. What this implies is that 61.7% of the respondents are satisfied that the learners' code of conduct does not merely indicate *how* pupils are expected to behave, but it also indicates *what action will be taken* in the event of a learner breaking the code of conduct. Listing of the consequences for breaking a rule in the learners' code of conduct ensures consistency of treatment and in terms of this, upholds the principles of democracy. No guarantee of consistency of punishment can be assured to learners in schools which indicated that the code of conduct does not set out consequences for breaking a code.

(xi) Curriculum changes reflect the diverse cultures of our country

More than fifty percent (55.5%) of the respondents indicated their satisfaction that curriculum changes reflect the diverse cultures of our country and 23.6% were dissatisfied. It is evident from this finding, that schools are attempting to incorporate curriculum changes that reflect the diverse cultures of our country. There is a possibility that multiculturalism is being hampered in schools where educators expressed dissatisfaction with the statement that 'curriculum changes reflect the diverse cultures of our country' A factor that may have influenced the percentages for this item is the lack of resources to implement multiculturalism.

Dekker and Lemmer (1994: 43) state that curricula need to be appropriate, flexible, balanced and unbiased and should incorporate the contributions of all cultural groups. Given the fact that Curriculum 2005 has only just been implemented in school in 1998 and only in Grade one, 55.5% indicates an unexpectedly high percentage of respondents who indicated satisfaction with item (xi). However, this percentage may be a reflection of changes in curriculum content and/or teaching methods.

(xii) Our school embraces a non-racial enrolment policy

The majority of respondents, that is 70.7% were satisfied with the statement that '*our school embraces a non-racial enrolment policy*' and 14.1% expressed dissatisfaction. This finding indicates that in most schools educators are satisfied that the policy directive to have a non-racial enrolment policy is being embraced. Changes, however, must be made in those schools that do not embrace a non-racial enrolment policy so as to accommodate learners from all race groups. The SASA (1996: 6[5]) bans unfair admission policies and discriminatory educational practices in public schools. Thus, educational institutions are obligated to open schools in support of the national goal to eradicate unfair discrimination (*cf.* 3.2.1).

(xiii) Parents are actively involved in the education of their children

Less than 50% (ie. 48,8%) of the educators indicated satisfaction that parents are actively involved in the education of their children and 43.4% were dissatisfied. There are indications of a good working relationship between the school and the parents in those schools where educators expressed satisfaction regarding the parents involvement in the education of their children. In schools where educators expressed dissatisfaction, indications are that the national policies to promote stakeholder participation in education is being hampered. It appears that in some schools, parents are not making use of the powers afforded to them by the SASA (1996). It can be inferred that parents are either complacent, or they do not have confidence in their potential to make policy decisions or they are being deliberately excluded from participating in policy decisions. Chapter two provides the foundations, principles and features of participative management and if successfully adopted by principals, the barriers hampering non-participation may be deconstructed. Gabela (1983: 13-14) states that there is an urgent need for a functional partnership and working relationship between the parents and the educational administrators at school, otherwise serious administrative problems may come about as a result of unwholesome relationships.

(xiv) The principal, staff, pupils and governing body have a good working relationship

The majority of educators, that is 65.9% responded that they were satisfied with the item (ivx) above and an accumulative 18.9% recorded their dissatisfaction. These findings indicate that there is a reflection of a harmonious working environment in most schools. This implies that some schools are responding positively to the challenges for wider participation at institutional levels. In others schools however, indications are that the relationship among stakeholders are not good. Mechanisms are therefore, required to promote the foundations, principles and features of participative management so that the national goal to create democratic educational institutions is enhanced.

5.3 HYPOTHESIS RESTATED

The hypothesis as stated in chapter one are restated below:

Hypothesis 1: (H₁)

Management practices in schools by principals are inconsistent with the policy of stakeholder participation as enunciated in current education policy documents.

Hypothesis 2: (H₂)

Management practices in schools by principals are neither consistent nor inconsistent with the policy of stakeholder participation as enunciated in current education policy documents.

Hypothesis 3: (H₃)

Management practices in schools by principals are consistent with the policy of stakeholder participation as enunciated in current education policy document.

5.4 SUMMARY OF THE EMPIRICAL STUDY

The summary will empirically test the hypotheses which will result in the confirmation or rejection of the hypotheses. The data for this empirical study looked at the role of the principal in relation to that of the parent, the learner and educator respectively. With regard to question 3 of the questionnaire, Table 15 indicates that respondents reacted negatively to '*Parents participated in the school's curricular programme*' (mean score 2.76) thus, measuring significantly worse on the 95% confidence level. The percentages on this table indicate a positive response to most of the items on this Table 15. That is, every item with the exception of the one stated above has a percentage of more than 35% respondents who agreed that parents participate in deciding policies enumerated in the table.

When the mean scores for the data yielded in this research were ranked from lowest to highest, it was found that 2.76 is the second lowest mean. In other words only one item has a lower mean value (2.20), namely, *'My principal uses corporal punishment to effect discipline'*. In other words, the percentages in table 15 indicate that there is a definite shift away from the traditional autocratic management style towards a participatory style of school management since 47.1% of the respondents agree that parents were incorporated in decisions about policies listed in the table.

With regard to question four on *pupil participation in policies affecting them*, it is evident in Table 16 that the responses to the item, namely, *'There is mutual respect between the teachers and pupils'* is significantly better than responses to *'Pupils confide in the principal'* and *'my principal uses corporal punishment'*: the mean scores being 3.94; 3.17 and 2.20 respectively. Thus, pupils are more likely to respect the educators than they are to confide in the principal. This was confirmed by the subjective question which asked educators to describe the interaction between the principal and the pupils.

Twelve respondents (6.2%) indicated that there is a need for a more open relationship to win pupils' trust, while 18 (9.4%) indicated that pupils respect the principal. The item *'pupils are kept informed about changes'* measures in line with *'There is mutual respect between teachers and pupils'* with the mean value being 3.79. The mean scores indicate that there is a significant shift in management style which encourages pupil involvement and participation in aspects of school life affecting them. Responses to question six of the research instrument, confirm that there is still a trend that exists where the principal's interaction with pupils focus mainly on improving pupil's behavioural patterns. Corporal punishment, was listed by eight respondents, as one type of interaction that exists in their particular schools between the principal and pupils. This is confirmed by table 16, where findings indicate that 12.5% of the educators stated that their principals use corporal punishment to effect discipline in school.

Table 17 indicates that the respondents reacted positively to *"My principal rotates departmental circulars to all staff members"* and *"My principal motivates staff to be united"*, whereas they indicated a disagreement with the statement that *"My principal discusses the South African Schools' Act, 1996"* and *"My principal discusses the South African Schools' Bill, 1996 with the*

staff". The mean values for these items were 2.96 and 2.89 respectively, thus measuring significantly lower on the 95% confidence level. The remaining mean values indicate that most of the respondents felt that there is definitely a movement towards a more participative mode of management by school principals since the mean values for these items neither measured lower nor higher but measured in line with each other.

In question six, both negative and positive responses were provided in terms of the respondents' responses to the description of the principal's interaction with the staff, governing body, community and pupils. Respondents took their time to answer this open-ended question, giving details of the problems encountered in schools. Some of the problems that teachers (respondents) observed in schools are listed below:

5.4.1 Principal-staff interaction

- Staff members are excluded from important decisions that affect them;
- Unequal treatment by principal of staff members;
- Lack of transparency in school management;
- Regular absenteeism of principal from school;
- Lack of open communication and information systems;
- Principal's inability to handle conflict situations.

5.4.2 Principal-governing body interaction

- The governing body is inactive: no constructive work is being done;

- Some Governing body members are illiterate or semi-literate and are therefore not confident to make policy decisions;
- The principal makes decisions and then informs the SGB;
- Governing body members are not informed about the powers they have been granted to govern schools;
- Over-assertive parents on the SGB.

5.4.3 Principal-community interaction

- Lack of communication between the school and the community;
- Community does not use opportunities given, to interact with the school: lack of interest;
- Principal must learn about the culture, beliefs and values of the community.

5.4.1 Principal-pupil interaction

- Interaction depends on the principal's mood: inconsistent;
- Unidirectional communication flow, that is from principal to pupil;
- Principal's interaction with pupils focuses mainly on improving their behavioural patterns;
- Principal must treat pupils with respect and dignity to promote mutual trust.

Findings from the research instrument yielded responses that were neither totally negative nor totally positive in response to questions about the *quantity* (Tables 13 and 15), *quality* (Table 14 and 16) and *satisfaction* (Table 17) of stakeholder participation in the implementation of policy

documents. These findings were verified by data gathered from question six of the questionnaire (cf. 5.3.1.1/2/3/4) The *t-test* was used to test for statistical significance. It can thus, be stated that $H_{(1)}$ and $H_{(3)}$ are rejected. $H_{(2)}$ is thus, confirmed that *management practices in schools by principals are neither consistent nor inconsistent with the policy of stakeholder participation as enunciated in current education policy documents.*

5.5 CONCLUSION

In this chapter, an attempt was made to provide some order to the range of information provided by the educators in the completion of questions in the questionnaire. Some of the data were of factual or demographic nature. These enabled the researcher to construct a broad profile of the sample population. Data to measure the *quantity*, *quality* and *satisfaction* of stakeholder participation in policy implementation was yielded from questions about:

- (a) The relationship between the principal and the staff
- (b) The relationship between the principal and the parents/governing body
- (c) The relationship between the principal and the pupils

The measure of (a) above was drawn from the educators' responses to question 1.11, question 2.1 and question six. The measure of (b) above was drawn from the educators' responses to questions two, five and six of the questionnaire whereby respondents answered questions about parents participation in succinct policy issues, educators evaluation of parent participation in the decisions about school policies and the thought and feelings of respondents about the principal-parent interaction. The measure of (c) above was drawn from the educators' responses to questions four and six where educators responded to questions about pupil involvement in decisions affecting them and the educators' thoughts and feelings about the principal-pupil interaction. Question two tested the role played by the principal in the implementation of selected education policy documents and question three tested for the manner in which such policy documents are implemented (inclusive or exclusive of parent participation).

Findings from the data indicate that although principals have moved away from the traditional top-down management mode. There is a trend that indicates, however, that the management of schools is not altogether inclusive of relevant stakeholders. Hence, it is concluded as stated above, that H₁ and H₃ are rejected. H₂ is thus, accepted *that management practices in schools by principals are neither consistent nor inconsistent with the policy of stakeholder participation as enunciated in current education policy documents*. The next chapter, draws conclusions from the study and on the basis of these, recommendations will be made.

CHAPTER SIX

SUMMARY OF FINDINGS, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

6.1 INTRODUCTION

The empirical investigation for this study primarily looked at the role of the principal with regard to facilitating and promoting stakeholder participation in the implementation of selected education policy documents at school. This chapter provides a summary of the findings that emanated from the empirical investigation and the conclusions that are drawn from such findings. These findings will identify and offer a useful, if limited register, of participative management programmes for school organisations. Finally, recommendations for the development of participative school management and governance will be made.

6.2 SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS OF FINDINGS

The following is a summary and conclusion of the general findings of the empirical investigation:

6.2.1 General findings indicate that:

6.2.1.1 There is a general lack of knowledge, by stakeholders, about new education policy documents

Findings from the empirical investigation indicate that there is a general lack of knowledge by stakeholders about new education policy documents that call for transformation in the management and governance of schools. For example, question 1.8 (Table 10) reflects that about one third (33%) of the educators indicated that they have a poor knowledge of the SASA and only 30.4% indicating a good knowledge of this policy document.

In response to the question of whether pupils are kept informed about policy changes made in school, 16,3% responded in the negative. In the open-ended question about the relationship between the principal and the school's governing body (SGB), concern was expressed by more than 20% of the educators, about the lack of knowledge by parents of school policies. Question 5 indicated that 38.8% did not feel satisfied that '*parents have the capacity to make policy decisions*'. These findings indicate, that there is a need for proactive information dissemination strategies, to ensure that all stakeholders are kept informed, on a continuous basis, about novel education policy documents, that have relevance to the management and governance of schools.

6.2.2 Findings relating to specific constituencies in the management and governance of schools

6.2.2.1 Findings relating to school principals

(a) Principals do not involve stakeholders adequately in decisions about significant school policies

Although the SASA of 1996 mandates stakeholder participation in policy decisions, findings indicate that more than 20% of the respondents stated that parents do not participate in policy decisions, such as *the school's constitution, the admission policy, the learner's code of conduct, the school's budget* etcetera.

In the open-ended question about the thoughts and feelings regarding the relationship between the principal and the parents, there were indications that some governing bodies allow principals to dictate school policies. Some of the reasons for this were: lack of interest shown by the governing body members; illiterate and semi-literate members of the SGB; fear to disagree with 'authority'. One respondent expressed that '*because our school's governing body is illiterate or semi-illiterate, they do not question the authority of the principal*'. Implicit in the percentage provided above, is that while some respondents indicate a trend towards participative management, others indicate a lack of participation.

- (b) **There is a lack of encouragement, by principals, to create a culture of partnership between the staff and the governing body**

Data from various questions indicate that there is a communication gap between the policy group (that is, the SGB) and the implementation team (staff). In question two, 23% of the educators indicated that they disagree with the statement that *'my principal encourages partnership between the staff and governing body'*. The lack of contact with governing body members was indicated by educators in the open-ended question. One educator claimed: 'I haven't met the governing body, I don't even know who they are'. There is thus, a need to develop partnership links between these two tiers of school management.

- (c) **The school management functions remain dominantly in the hands of the principal.**

The extent of teacher involvement in the management of their schools is relatively limited. In question 1.11 (Table 13), 22,8% of the educators indicated that they do not perform any management functions in their respective schools. The use of skills and knowledge of professionals is paramount in effecting qualitative management and governance of schools. Thus, principals need to be fully informed about their staff members so that skills can be matched with tasks in order that there may evolve a shared sense of responsibility in terms of management functions and duties.

- (d) **There is a lack of mutual trust, in some schools, between the principals and the staff**

In table 14, 16.8% of the educators indicated that their principals do not promote mutual trust between themselves and their staff. One respondent stated in question six that *'the principal is bias - he thinks that true teachers are people who are in management, the others are minors - useless people'* One educator even indicated that *'there is not much interaction between the principal and the staff because the principal comes late to school and leaves early because he is a friend of the circuit inspector'*

Evidence by various authors (*cf.* 2.3.2.1) reveal that leadership is one of the most important features in managing transformation. Trust is regarded as the fundamental cement that binds an organization together, facilitating good communication, rectifying badly timed actions, making goal attainment possible and creating the conditions for organizational success (*cf.* 2.3.2.4). It becomes imperative, therefore, for school principals to model attitudes and behaviour which promote mutual trust between himself/herself and the staff.

6.2.2.2 Findings relating to the educators

(a) School experiences of educators are confined to classroom management

From a total of 191 educators, 66 (22.8%) indicated that they do not perform any management functions. Implicit in this finding is that the professional duties of some educators, do not extend beyond classroom management. Research (Morphet, Roe and Reller, 1982; Jenkins, 1991, Allias and McKay, 1995) indicates that educators need to take an active role in the management and governance of their schools (*cf.* 2.3.1).

(b) There is a lack of involvement of educators in school management

As stated above, it has been found in this research, that in some schools, the educators' duties and responsibilities, are limited to classroom management. In question 1.11 (Table 13), 22,8% of the educators indicated that they do not perform any management functions in their respective schools. This implies that either they are not given the opportunity to perform functions outside of classroom activities, or they are not volunteering their services to perform management tasks. It is, thus, concluded that mechanisms need to be set up to solicit the skills and knowledge of educators for the performances of management tasks. Motivation will play an implicit role in encouraging educators to extend their efforts beyond the pedagogical activities of the classroom.

(c) There is a lack of contact between educators and the parent component of School Governing Bodies (SGBs)

The response to the open ended question (six) yielded data from 45 (23.5%) educators who indicated concern about the lack of communication between the SGB and the staff. This suggests that the initiative for building close links between educators and the parent component of the SGB is lacking. Hence, there is a need to bridge the gap that exists between the SGBs and the educators.

(d) Educators are playing an inactive role as representatives on SGBs

There were no responses which indicated educators' substantive involvement in SGBs. Implicit in the above finding is the suggestion that staff representatives are playing a relatively inactive role on the SGBs in terms of promoting partnership links between the two tiers of management and governance. In the question about management functions, 4.2% of the educators indicated that they are treasurers on the SGB while 6.3% indicated that they perform secretarial duties on SGBs.

(e) There is a lack of unity among educators in some schools

In table 14, findings indicate that 12,6% of the educators suggested that their principals do not motivate the staff to be united. In question six, one such educator stated that '*my principal cannot get all the staff united in one staffroom*'. While 79.6% of the respondents indicated that their principals motivate staff to be united, it is important that principals become aware that negative interaction with staff member, as discussed in 6.2.2.1 (d) above, can hamper unity among the educators. Research indicates (*cf.* 2.3.1) that unity can be effectively promoted when staff member interact in an informal environment such as the staffroom.

6.2.2.3 Findings relating to parents (SGB)

(a) There is a general lack of interest shown by parents in the education of the child

Question three indicated that for every statement about whether parents were participants in decisions about school policies, more than 20% responded in the negative. Data from the subjective question (6) about principal-parent interaction, indicated that: parents do not attend school functions; they do not enquire about the progress of the child; they do not make use of opportunities given to them to interact with the school. Hence, it is concluded that there is a general lack of interest shown by parents in the education of the child and therefore, some form of motivation is needed to involve parents in the education of the child.

(b) There is a misperception by educators that semi-literate and illiterate parents cannot participate in decision-making

In response to question six, a small percentage of respondents (2.6%) claimed that members of their respective SGBs were illiterate or semi-literate. A relatively high percentage of educators (37.9%) inferred in question five that parents do not have the capacity to make policy decisions. There may be a misperception that uneducated parents, serving on SGBs, have nothing to contribute during the decisions-making processes about school policies. It is, therefore, suggested that some form of attitudinal changes are required, both by parents who lack the confidence to participate in policy decisions and by educators who disregard the potential contributions that semi-literate and illiterate parents can make during decisions about school policies.

(c) The SGB succumbs to policy decisions made by the principal

Responses to a number of questions (3; 5; 6) indicated that the parent component of some SGBs is excluded from decisions regarding succinct policy issues. This finding is confirmed by responses to question six where educators indicated that the parent

component of the SGB is not part of the decision-making team although they are members of the SGB (*cf.* 5.4.2). It is concluded that some parent representative are succumbing to policies decided upon by the principal.

(d) There is, in some schools, tension between governance and management structures

Some of the educators suggested that parents were exploiting the powers accorded to them in the SASA (*cf.* 5.2.1.2). One educator, for example, in response to question (six) about the relationship between the principal and the governing body stated that: *'He (principal) doesn't have to listen to everything the governing body says'* Hence, principals who are not themselves fully acquainted with policy documents may find themselves in a position of disempowerment. It thus remains important for the management team to set guidelines in terms of management and governance duties and functions and also to have regular discussions about these.

(e) Some educators expressed concern that too much emphasis is being placed on decisions made by governing bodies

Findings from question six indicate that 12% of the educators expressed concern that their principals place too much emphasis on governing body decisions. It is important that governing bodies are not given the responsibility of performing duties and functions beyond those prescribed in the SASA unless consensus is reached, in this regard, by relevant stakeholders. Hence, this finding confirms the need for capacity building programmes so that the different tiers of management and governance are fully informed about the extent and limitations of their participation in decisions about activities and policies of the school.

6.2.2.4 Findings relating to pupils

(a) There is little contact between the learners and the school principal

The cumulative percentage of educators who disagreed that *'pupils confide in the*

principal is 30.4% (*cf.* 5.2.16 [1]). The lack of contact is confirmed by 14.6% of educators who indicated in question 6 that there is no interaction between the principal and the pupils. Some reasons are cited as: fear of the principal; the principal's regular absenteeism; principal's duties do not include teaching of learners. One educator indicated that her principal's interaction depends on the type of mood she (the principal) is in. Strategies are needed for the development of positive interaction between the principal and the learners.

(b) There is a need to guide educators to develop and implement effective discipline without using corporal punishment

12.5% of educators (as stated above) indicated that corporal punishment (*cf.* 5.2.16 [2]) is still being used to effect discipline while 21.6% opted for the neutral 'neither agree nor disagree' response. These figures indicate that management, at all levels in school, need to rethink their strategies to secure discipline without inflicting corporal punishment.

6.3 RECOMMENDATIONS

6.3.1 Recommendations to the Department of Education and Culture

6.3.1.1 EVERY SCHOOL, THAT HAS A LEARNER POPULATION FROM THE FOUR MAIN RACE GROUPS MUST HAVE A GOVERNING BODY THAT REPRESENTS LEARNERS FROM THE DIFFERENT RACE GROUPS

As indicated in table 6 (*cf.* 5.2.6) this research was conducted in different types of schools. 58 of the respondents were from schools other than ex-DET schools. Although all of 58 respondents indicated that their schools embrace a non-racial enrolment policy, only 12 of these respondents stated that there is racial representation on their school's governing body.

This finding indicates, a need for greater racial representivity on SGBs so that the interests and needs of the diverse learner population are adequately represented (*cf.* 3.2.5). It is therefore, recommended that the Department of Education and Culture incorporates a policy that mandates racial representation on SGBs where the learner population comes from different race groups so that participation in policy decisions at school-level is legitimate.

6.3.1.2 EDUCATORS ON THE SGBs MUST BE GIVEN THE PORTFOLIO OF SCHOOL-BASED POLICY OFFICERS (SBPOs)

The findings in 6.2.1.1 above, confirm the need for capacity building programmes as acknowledged in the White paper on Education and Training (*cf.* 1). Research (Gray, 1982: 245-261) indicates that the lack of clarity about what teachers, for example, would actually do when implementing a curriculum or policy change, frequently discourages them from using new curricula. The more complex and unclear the change appears, the more likely it will be avoided. Hence, effective strategies need to be devised so that educators are kept informed about policy changes.

It is recommended that educators serving on the SGB should be given the portfolio of *school-based policy officers (SBPOs)*. Their task in terms of this portfolio, would be to study policy documents that have relevance to school-based management and governance so that information about such policy documents is disseminated to the SGB and staff members on a regular basis. The staff members will in turn inform pupils about policies that affect them. By workshopping national policy documents with the parent-govenors, they will in turn be empowered to participate in decision-making about school policies in a confident and informed manner.

Such school-based capacity building programmes to empower the SGB and staff members, should be incorporated in the school's year plan so that the *SBPOs* have

sufficient time to familiarise themselves about relevant policy documents and proactively plan and prepare for the implementation of their school-based capacity building workshops.

The above recommendation is consistent with the literature review, that once a policy is formulated, it should not be regarded as an end in itself. Pro-active steps by the management team need to be taken, to ensure that everyone is familiar with the content of the new policy, is comfortable with the new vision, and receives sufficient guidance and support in understanding the new initiatives.

While it is acknowledged that the Department of Education and Culture does have capacity building programmes for SGBs, these workshops are not happening at a fast enough pace and on a regular enough basis. Capacity building for the school management and governance teams should be a site-based and continuous programme because policy changes occur at regular intervals and it becomes imperative for all interest groups to be fully updated about such changes.

6.3.2 Recommendations directed to the school principals

6.3.2.1 **PRINCIPALS MUST CONSIDER APPOINTING A MEMBER OF STAFF TO BE THE SCHOOL'S PUBLIC RELATIONS OFFICER (PRO)**

In order to promote good relations between various members from the different constituencies (such as among staff members; between the staff and the governing body, etcetera), principals should consider appointing a person who will create opportunities for social interaction among various stakeholders. For example, regular monthly staff socials can be planned or end-of-term socials between the staff and the governing body members can be promoted. Through discussions with the staff, various similar activities can be realised. The PRO may also be given the duty to research venues for school excursions or negotiate with neighbouring schools to arrange inter-school competitions.

An important duty for the PRO will be to market the school. In other words, the public must be made aware, via the media for example, of important activities and achievements of the school and its learners. In this way, the school can be a source of pride for all its stakeholders.

6.3.2.2 PRINCIPALS MUST INITIATE THE MOVE FOR WIDE-SCALE STAFF PARTICIPATION BY CO-OPTING STAFF MEMBERS ONTO SCHOOL GOVERNING BODIES

School principals should initiate the move for wide-scale staff involvement on SGBs, by making use of the opportunity provided in the SASA to co-opt members on the SGBs (*cf.* 3.3.3.1[e]). Sub-committees of the SGB can be instrumental in building a network of partnerships between the staff and governing body. A team spirit and a sense of shared commitment, can be promoted with wide-scale participation in school management and governance.

The sub-committees, for example fund-raising committees, schools grounds and buildings committees etcetera, must serve as *action groups*, with *target programmes* drawn up at the beginning of each year, to serve the needs of the school. Sub-committees are to routinely report back to the main GB about the implementation and progress of their programmes. Together, all committee members evaluate the progress made in the implementation of specific programmes.

Whilst it is acknowledged that some educators prefer limited professional involvement by means of defining their duties in terms of classroom management, literature review on school management indicates that such limited involvement by staff members, deprofessionalises the educators and creates complacency among staff members (*cf.* 2.3). It thus becomes the responsibility of the principal to motivate staff involvement in educational matters beyond the boundaries of the classroom. Miles's (1975: 42) advice is restated, namely, that the manager's role

is not so much one of controlling organisation members as it is of facilitating their performance. He implores that if most people, whatever their level of current ability, have untapped resources, the manager's task becomes that of tapping these in the interest of organisational effectiveness and efficiency

6.3.2.3 PRINCIPALS MUST GET TO KNOW THE STRENGTHS AND LIMITATIONS OF THEIR STAFF AND GOVERNING BODY MEMBERS

The educators' collective experiences and their familiarity with the school norms and infrastructure are in themselves an invitation to build a participative school culture. The school principal (especially if newly appointed to the school) however, must make himself/herself acquainted with the strengths and limitations of the staff and school governors (*cf.* 2.3.2.4) In this way the principal will know when to source the expertise of a particular staff or governing body member and when to provide assistance for development and improvement of task performances.

Where the governing body members are illiterate or semi-literate, transparency of policy decisions should be the objective when interacting with these members. Hence, the principal (or a volunteer from the staff) should workshop the functions and duties of governing bodies to such members before policy decisions are made. During the policy-making process, these members must be encouraged to air their views and opinions so that they are not excluded from policy decisions.

6.3.2.4 PRINCIPALS MUST ENCOURAGE VOLUNTEERS TO PARTICIPATE IN MANAGEMENT AND GOVERNANCE TASKS

It is advisable for principals to acknowledge that all stakeholders have the *potential* (*cf.* 2.3) to contribute to the growth and development of the school. Hence, opportunities must be made (for example, at staff meetings) to encourage and motivate individuals to volunteer assistance to perform certain management

and governance tasks. The rotation of duties to perform such tasks are necessary to provide all individuals with the opportunity to gain experience through active involvement.

This recommendation is consistent with the human resources model that there is an abundance rather than a scarcity in the area of human capabilities, which in turn indicates that the manager's role is not so much one of controlling organisation members as it is of facilitating their performance. (cf. 2.3)

6.3.2.5 PRINCIPALS MUST INVOLVE STAKEHOLDERS IN POLICY DECISIONS BY PERPETUATING HORIZONTAL RATHER THAN VERTICAL POWER RELATIONS

Multi-lateral discussions must evolve to accommodate the views and opinions of all stakeholders. This is an important process in, for example, the construction of a school's constitution because isolation of stakeholders from the decision-making processes will not see the constitution successfully implemented. Openness and transparency in decision-making are important principles for the acceptance of a local school policies.

6.3.2.6 PRINCIPALS MUST PROMOTE AN ATMOSPHERE OF TRUST BY DISPLAYING FAIR TREATMENT AND PROPER MANAGEMENT SKILLS

It is important for principals to model their attitudes and behaviour on the principles of democracy. Fair treatment of all pupils, educators and parents respectively, is a prerequisite for building an atmosphere of trust and accountability (cf. 3.2.3). In the climate of transformation, it becomes imperative for a principal to display proper management skills so that his or her credibility, as a leader, is not brought into disrepute.

6.3.3 Recommendations directed to *the educators*

6.3.3.1 EDUCATORS MUST FAMILIARIZE THEMSELVES WITH RELEVANT POLICY DOCUMENTS INCLUDING THE BILL OF RIGHTS IN THE NATIONAL CONSTITUTION

It is recommended that since educators are working with children, they must become familiar with the Bill of Rights in the National Constitution so that the human rights of the child is not violated in the classroom. A careful study of all current educational policy documents is recommended so that there evolves a fully informed teaching-corps. Regular discussions about policy document at staff and governing body meetings can improve awareness and provide insight into policies that have relevance to practitioners and school governors.

6.3.3.2 EDUCATORS MUST TAKE POSITIVE STEPS TO BECOME PARTNERS IN MANAGING THEIR SCHOOLS

Educators must not be complacent but become active participants in terms of self education and managing school affairs beyond the boundaries of the classroom. However, it becomes necessary for educators to respect the positional power of the principal which grants him/her the authority to make certain decisions unilaterally. It is when decisions do not directly affect stakeholders and is of minimum importance, that the principal may adopt a unilateral mode of decision-making as discussed by Wilkinson and Cave (1987: 120). It is recommended that educators acknowledge the warning resounded by Roe and Drake (1980: 106) that participation and sharing of power does not mean a faculty needs to get together every time a decision is made. This in itself, they believe, would be poor leadership! (*cf.* 2.3.2.7).

6.3.3.3 EDUCATORS MUST ACKNOWLEDGE AND PROMOTE A CULTURE OF LEARNING, TEACHING AND ESPECIALLY OF SERVICE

Teachers must acknowledge and support the national drive to promote the *culture of learning, teaching and service*, better known as COLTS. Specific attention should be given to the *culture of services* at school-level management. The implication is that there is a need for professionals (educators) to render voluntary services to, for example, governing body members who require capacity building in terms their management functions and duties. Hence, recommendation 6.3.1 made to the Department of Education and Culture should be be considered for implementation at school level management.

6.3.3.4 EDUCATOR REPRESENTATIVES ON SGBs MUST BE LIAISON OFFICERS BETWEEN THE PARENTS AND THE TEACHERS

It is recommended that educator representatives on the SGBs serve as liaison officers between the teachers and the parent component of the SGB by creating feedback loops in order to keep staff informed about important matters which are of relevance to them. Feedback from governing body meetings should be given routinely at staff meetings so that staff members are not isolated from decisions taken at governing body meetings.

6.3.3.5 EDUCATORS MUST PROMOTE A PARTICIPATIVE CULTURE IN AND OUTSIDE OF THE CLASSROOM

It is recommended that educators promote a participative climate within the classroom to instil values of tolerance, co-operation and respect among heterogeneous groups of learners. An interactive rather than a transmissive teaching method is required so that learners can become participants in the teaching and learning process.

The staffroom can be used as a place where staff members unite in an effort to promote togetherness. It is suggested that the staffroom be used as it should be - as part of the information system and as a place for developing harmonious social relations among staff members. Research indicates that organizational success depends upon the effectiveness of all its members working in harmony (*cf.* 2.3.1.6). It is important therefore, that every educator visits the staffroom at least once during the day. Educators should be encouraged to have their mid-morning coffee there with their colleagues and not in the isolation of their own classrooms.

6.3.3.6 EDUCATORS MUST WORKSHOP THE CONSTITUTION AND THE CODE OF CONDUCT WITH LEARNERS IN THEIR RESPECTIVE CLASSROOMS

Educators must take the initiative to workshop the constitution and the school's code of conduct with the learners. It is expected that learners abide by the rules and regulations of the school. Learners must, therefore, be fully informed about the school policies and the code of conduct if they are to abide by them.

6.3.4 Recommendations directed to the parents (SGB)

6.3.4.1 THE GOVERNING BODY MUST UNDERSTAND THAT THERE IS A DIVIDING LINE BETWEEN THEIR DUTIES AS GOVERNORS AND THE PROFESSIONAL DAY TO DAY DUTIES OF THE PRINCIPAL AND EDUCATORS

Leonard's (1989: 34) suggestion, that the dividing line between the policy group namely, the school's governing body (which is not in permanent session) and the implementation team, namely, the educators (the permanent organisation which does the day to day work), needs to be carefully clarified and understood by all concerned. Hence, it is suggested that there is full agreement between the governors, the principal and the staff of each school as to where the line lies within

that particular school, in terms of school management and governance, and on the procedures to be followed when it needs to be adjusted.

6.3.4.2 GOVERNING BODIES MUST NOT ACT IN AN INSPECTORIAL ROLE BUT MUST PROMOTE A PARTNERSHIP BETWEEN THE SCHOOL AND THE COMMUNITY

Leonard (1989: 19) warns that professional sensitivities may be aroused if teachers feel that governors are acting in an inspectorial role, and therefore governors should be careful to avoid doing so. School governors should consider Leonard's (*ibid*) suggestion that *'when a formal assessment is to be made of the quality of a teacher's work, the job is best left to those who have the formal responsibility, either within the school or outside it.'* It is acknowledged, that the governing body does, however have a role in initiating action if they think it is necessary. It becomes imperative that a culture of participative and inclusive decision-making in school management and governance evolves in order to give a sense of 'ownership' to policy and practice.

6.3.4.3 PARENTS MUST TAKE THE INITIATIVE TO BE INFORMED ABOUT SCHOOL POLICIES

It is recommended that parents take the initiative to keep themselves informed about issues pertaining to school policies. Regular visits to the school, attending school functions, workshops and meetings, reading the school's newsletters and policy documents, etcetera are some of the methods of updating themselves.

6.3.4.4 THE PARENT COMPONENT OF THE GOVERNING BODY MUST TAKE AN ACTIVE PART IN DECISION-MAKING ABOUT SCHOOL POLICIES

The governing body has specific duties laid down by statute, and needs to take

them seriously. Parents must not allow themselves to be isolated from decision-making about education policies that affect them by allowing decisions to be made on behalf of themselves by the professional corps. Being complacent and not voicing concerns and grievances is tantamount to abdicating the legitimate powers granted to the SGBs. It is therefore recommended, that those parent members who accept their nominations to serve as school governors, become fully involved in the decision-making processes during meetings about school policies.

6.3.4.5 THE GOVERNING BODY MUST DEVISE A LEARNERS' CODE OF CONDUCT THAT INCORPORATES *CONSEQUENCES* FOR BREAKING A CODE

In order to support a culture of teaching and learning, a safe and secure educational environment is imperative. Issues of discipline however, present an enormous challenge to SGBs across the country. Faced with increased numbers of students, fewer teachers and policy guidelines that promote a culture of human rights, SGBs need to develop creative methods of dealing with misconduct. A fair and just policy to counter anti-social behaviour, major and minor misdemeanours, vandalism, truancy, drug abuse, carrying of weapons and so on, must be devised.

Therefore, a code of conduct must incorporate the consequences a learner will have to endure if a code is broken. This would also ensure fairness and consistency of treatment for those who do not comply with a school's code of conduct for learners.

6.3.4.6 THE LEARNER'S CODE OF CONDUCT SHOULD STIPULATE PATTERNS OF BEHAVIOUR WHICH SUPPORT THE BILL OF RIGHTS

Since schools across South Africa are experiencing a unique situation where heterogeneous groups of people are compelled by law to integrate in the

educational environment, it is recommended that the learners' code of conduct should stipulate patterns of behaviour which supports the Bill of Rights in the National Constitution (NC).

The code of conduct should provide a set of guidelines for the creation of a social environment consistent with democratic values and principles enumerated in the NC. Hence, it *'must be aimed at establishing a disciplined and purposeful school environment, dedicated to the improvement and maintenance of the quality of the learning process'* (SASA, section 8). In other words, learners must be compelled, by the code of conduct, to respect and tolerate their peers from diverse race and cultural groups so that social harmony can prevail in education institutions.

6.3.5 Recommendations directed to the learners

6.3.5.1 LEARNERS MUST FAMILIARISE THEMSELVES WITH THEIR SCHOOL'S CONSTITUTION AND THE LEARNERS' CODE OF CONDUCT

Pupils must familiarise themselves with their school's constitution and the learner's code of conduct by asking educators to explain the implications that such policies have for them.

6.3.5.2 LEARNERS MUST LEARN TO WORK WITH THEIR PEERS IRRESPECTIVE OF RACE, GENDER OR CLASS

Learners must learn to work with their peer irrespective of race, gender or class. It is thus recommended that learners get to know their peers by interacting with them both inside and outside of the classroom.

6.3.5.3 LEARNERS MUST DEVELOP INQUIRY SKILLS AND PARTICIPATE IN CLASS DISCUSSIONS

It is recommended that learners develop inquiry skills so that they are not marginalised in the teaching and learning process.

6.3.5.4 LEARNERS MUST MOTIVATE AND ENCOURAGE THEIR PARENTS TO BECOME INVOLVED IN THEIR EDUCATION

Learners must take the initiative to encourage and motivate their parents to become involved in their education by attending meetings, reading newsletters, questioning policies, evaluating progress volunteering assistance with school functions and assisting them with their school work.

6.4 FURTHER RESEARCH

Since the research findings indicate an imperative to move away from traditional, autocratic management towards a participative mode of management, there is a need for a closer examination of the duties and functions of the school governing bodies in relation to those of the school principal and the teachers. Hence, it is recommended that further research pertaining to the development of methods and strategies for effective school management and governance is undertaken.

6.5 FINAL REMARK

The aim of this study was to investigate the manner and extent to which schools are changing in response to policy directives that call for the participation of all stakeholders in the management and governance of schools. It was found that there is a steady shift from the traditional top-down mode of management towards more inclusive and participative organisations. However, the rhetoric of participation is still evident, because while all the schools that participated in the research project have management structures in place that incorporate all the relevant stakeholders, evidence from the findings indicate that some of the stakeholders are not sufficiently and appropriately involved in the decision-making processes. It is hoped that the recommendations made will be seriously considered so that education institutions can be managed and governed in a participative manner.

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STRICTLY CONFIDENTIAL

QUESTIONNAIRE

PARTICIPATIVE MANAGEMENT

AND THE

IMPLEMENTATION OF

SELECTED

EDUCATION POLICY DOCUMENTS

AT

SCHOOLS

K. CHETTY
(B.A.; HDE; B.Ed)



DEAR RESPONDENT

Thank you for taking time to answer my questionnaire. The fact that you have been chosen as a respondent is quite coincidental. The area in which you live, as well as you have been selected randomly for the purpose of this survey.

I would like to assure you that all the information you provide will be regarded as strictly confidential.

Thus, to obtain reliable, scientific information it is necessary that you answer the questions as honestly as you can. Your opinion is important.

Please answer **ALL** question in the following way:

1. Circle all codes, eg. ①
2. Do not use crosses, eg. X.
3. Where a question requires comments, write in the space provided.

QUESTION ONE

1.1

SEX	
Male	1
Female	2

1.2

AGE GROUP	
under 30	1
31-40	2
41-50	3
over 50	4

1.3

HOME LANGUAGE	
English	1
Afrikaans	2
Zulu	3
Xhosa	4
Sotho	5
Other (please specify)	

1.4

MY HIGHEST QUALIFICATION IS	
Lower than Matric	1
Matric	2
College/University diploma	3
University Degree eg. BA	4
Other post university degrees	5

1.5

I AM AN EDUCATOR IN	
The Junior Primary Phase	1
The Senior Primary Phase	2

1.6

MY PRESENT SCHOOL IS AN		CIRCUIT		NUMBER OF YEARS IN PRESENT SCHOOL	
ex-DET school	1	Braemar	1	under 5	1
ex-HOD school	2	Umzinto	2	6 - 10	2
ex-HOR school	3	Mtwalume	3	11 - 15	3
ex-HOA school	4	Turton	4	16 - 20	4
ex-NED school	5	Amandawe	5	over 20	5
		Dududu	6		

1.7

MY SCHOOL PRINCIPAL IS A	
Male	1
Female	2

1.8

HOW WOULD YOU DESCRIBE YOUR KNOWLEDGE OF THE FOLLOWING POLICY DOCUMENTS	EXTREMELY GOOD	GOOD	AVERAGE	POOR	EXTREMELY POOR
The South African Schools Act, 1996	5	4	3	2	1
The Bill of Rights, 1996	5	4	3	2	1
Education Labour Relations Act, 1995	5	4	3	2	1
Your school's constitution	5	4	3	2	1
Your school's mission statement	5	4	3	2	1
The Learner's code of conduct	5	4	3	2	1
The Teachers' code of conduct	5	4	3	2	1

1.9

OUR SCHOOL'S GOVERNING BODY CONSISTS OF	EDUCATORS (INCLUDING PRINCIPAL)	PARENTS	NON-PARENTS eg. A person from the community with special skills or expertise	UNSURE
Between 1-3 members	1	1	1	1
4-6 members	1	1	1	1
7-10 members	1	1	1	1
None	1	1	1	1

1.10

INDICATE THE NUMBER OF CO-OPTED MEMBERS ON YOUR SCHOOL'S GOVERNING BODY	EDUCATORS	PARENTS	NON-PARENTS eg. A person from the community with special skills or expertise	UNSURE
Between 1-3	1	1	1	1
4-6	1	1	1	1
7-10	1	1	1	1
None	1	1	1	1

1.11

WHICH OF THE FOLLOWING MANAGEMENT FUNCTIONS DO YOU PERFORM			
Stock control	1	Member of school grounds and buildings committee	7
Finance management	2	Prefect master	8
Teacher librarian	3	Sports master	9
Governing body treasurer	4	School's public relations officer	10
Governing body secretary	5	Subject committee member	11
Fund raising committee member	6	None of the above	12
Other (please specify)			OFFICE USE

QUESTION TWO

2.1 Thinking specifically about the role of the principal in the management of YOUR school, please, could you tell me the extent to which you agree or disagree with each of the following statements. Circle the code of your choice for each statement.

MY PRINCIPAL.....	2.1					2.2
	STRONGLY AGREE	AGREE	NEITHER AGREE NOR DISAGREE	DISAGREE	STRONGLY DISAGREE	RANKING 1-3
discusses school policies with the staff	5	4	3	2	1	
discusses The South African Schools Act, 1996 with the staff	5	4	3	2	1	
discusses the South African Schools Bill, 1996 with the staff	5	4	3	2	1	
rotates Departmental circulars to all staff members	5	4	3	2	1	
discusses the budget with the staff	5	4	3	2	1	
involves staff in decisions about spending	5	4	3	2	1	
promotes agreement among staff members and the Governing Body on curriculum content and method	5	4	3	2	1	
supports staff in implementing Outcomes Based Education	5	4	3	2	1	
builds a network of external contacts to help improve school resources	5	4	3	2	1	
recognises special potential and skills of staff	5	4	3	2	1	
distributes the teaching workloads fairly among staff members	5	4	3	2	1	
creates opportunities for professional growth of his/her staff members	5	4	3	2	1	
motivates staff to be united	5	4	3	2	1	
promotes mutual trust between himself/herself and staff	5	4	3	2	1	
encourages partnership between the staff and governing body	5	4	3	2	1	

2.2 Look again at the statements above and select ONE statement which best describes YOUR principal's role in management. Place "1" in the column headed "Ranking". Thereafter, please give me your second and third choice by placing "2" and "3" in the same column.

QUESTION THREE

Now I would like you to think about the role played by parents in decision-making about school policies. Once again focus specifically on your own school's Governing Body and please tell me whether you agree or disagree that parents took part in deciding the following.

PARENTS WERE PARTICIPANTS IN DECIDING THE FOLLOWING SCHOOL POLICIES	STRONGLY AGREE	AGREE	NEITHER AGREE NOR DISAGREE	DISAGREE	STRONGLY DISAGREE
Our school's constitution	5	4	3	2	1
Our school's mission statement	5	4	3	2	1
Our school's admission policy	5	4	3	2	1
Our school's language policy	5	4	3	2	1
Our learner's code of conduct	5	4	3	2	1
Our school's budget	5	4	3	2	1
Our school's religious observance/ instruction policy	5	4	3	2	1
Our schools curricular programme	5	4	3	2	1
Our school's extra-curricular programme	5	4	3	2	1

QUESTION FOUR

Thinking specifically about the pupils in your school, please circle the code of your choice.

IN MY SCHOOL	STRONGLY AGREE	AGREE	NEITHER AGREE NOR DISAGREE	DISAGREE	STRONGLY DISAGREE
The pupils confide in the principal	5	4	3	2	1
The principal uses corporal punishment to effect discipline	5	4	3	2	1
There is mutual respect between the teachers and pupils	5	4	3	2	1
Pupils are kept informed about changes made within our school	5	4	3	2	1

QUESTION FIVE

5.1 The new system of educational management requires collective decision-making with regard to matters affecting the planning and delivery of education. Evaluate the changes taking place in your school.

I AM SATISFIED THAT IN OUR SCHOOL...	5.1					5.2
	VERY SATISFIED	SATISFIED	NEITHER SATISFIED NOR UNSATISFIED	UNSATISFIED	VERY UNSATISFIED	RANKING 1-3
Parents are given greater power in education management	5	4	3	2	1	
Our school's governing body was democratically elected	5	4	3	2	1	
There is racial representation on our school's governing body	5	4	3	2	1	
There is gender representation on our school's governing body	5	4	3	2	1	
Parents participated in deciding the school's constitution	5	4	3	2	1	
Parents participated in drawing up the learner's code of conduct	5	4	3	2	1	
Parents were consulted about the school's admission policy	5	4	3	2	1	
Parents were consulted about the school's language policy	5	4	3	2	1	
Parents have the capacity to make policy decisions	5	4	3	2	1	
The learner's code of conduct sets out consequences for breaking a rule	5	4	3	2	1	
Curriculum changes reflect the diverse cultures of our country	5	4	3	2	1	
Our school embraces a non-racial enrolment policy	5	4	3	2	1	
Parents are actively involved in the education of their children	5	4	3	2	1	
The principal, staff, pupils and governing councillors have a good working relationship	5	4	3	2	1	

5.2 Please tell me which ONE statement best describes your feelings about changes taking place in YOUR school. Place "1" in the column headed "Ranking". Thereafter, mark your second and third choices in the same column.

QUESTION SIX

Some people argue that a principal's success today depends on his or her ability to interact with the people within his/her school.

Please, could you tell me all your thoughts and feelings about the interaction of the principal with the educators, governing body, parents and the pupils of your school.

MY THOUGHTS AND FEELINGS ...	OFFICE USE
<u>PRINCIPAL-STAFF INTERACTION:</u>	
<u>PRINCIPAL-GOVERNING BODY INTERACTION:</u>	
<u>PRINCIPAL-COMMUNITY INTERACTION:</u>	
<u>PRINCIPAL-PUPIL INTERACTION:</u>	

APPENDIX B

Woodgrange-On-Sea Primary School
P.O. Box 7
HIBBERDENE
4220

1998-05-20

KwaZulu Natal Department of Education and Culture
The Chief Director of Education and Culture
Port Shepstone Region
PORT SHEPSTONE
4240

Sir

REQUEST FOR PERMISSION TO CONDUCT RESEARCH

I am currently conducting a Research Project aimed at examining school management and the implementation of education policies in schools. Permission is therefore requested to conduct such research in schools under your control. This research is towards my M. Ed degree, and is being carried out under the supervision of Prof R.G. Ngongo at the Umlazi Campus of the University of Zululand.

The topic of my dissertation is: *Participative management and the implementation of selected education policy documents at school*. For the purpose of this research a questionnaire will be developed which will be administered to educators located in the Scottsburgh District. All information elicited from the research will be treated as confidential and anonymity is ensured.

Information gathered in the research will offer invaluable assistance to all educators as well as to the Department of Education and Culture in South Africa. A copy of the research findings will be made available to your department on request.

Thanking you in anticipation.

Yours sincerely



K. CHETTY

APPENDIX C

Woodgrange-On-Sea Primary School
P.O. Box 7
HIBBERDENE
4220

1998-05-29

KwaZulu Natal Department of Education and Culture
The Chief Superintendent
Scottsburgh District
Private Bag X0515
SCOTTSBURGH

Sir

REQUEST FOR PERMISSION TO CONDUCT RESEARCH AT SELECTED SCHOOLS IN
THE SCOTTSBURGH DISTRICT

I hereby apply for permission to conduct educational research in schools under your supervision. The research is essential for me to complete my M. Ed degree with the University of Zululand. Permission from the Regional Director of Education to embark on this project has been requested. I was duly directed to contact your office. Attached please find a copy of the letter.

The topic of my dissertation is: *Participative management and the implementation of selected education policy documents at school*. The research will be conducted by means of a questionnaire which will be administered to educators. I reassure you that no question enlisted will be incriminating or offensive in nature.

Thanking you in anticipation.

Yours faithfully



K. CHETTY (Mrs)

PROVINCE OF
KWAZULU-NATALISIFUNDAZWE
SAKWAZULU - NATALPROVINSIE
KWAZULU-NATALDEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION
AND CULTUREUMNYANGO WEMFUNDO
NAMASIKODEPARTEMENT VAN
ONDERWYS EN KULTUUR

ADDRESS: IKHELI: SCOTTBURGH DISTRICT ADRES:	PRIVATE BAG: X0515 ISTIKIMAMA SEPOSI: UMZINTO PRIVAATSAK: 4200	TELEPHONE: 0323--9740149 UCINGO: TELEFOON:
ENQUIRIES: IMIBUZO: NAVRAE:	REFERENCE: INKOMBA: VERWYSING:	FAX: DATE: USUKU: 08.06.98 DATUM:
B.E. Nobin CSEM		

Mrs K. Chetty
Woodgrange on Sea Primary School
P.O. Box 7
HIBBERDENE

Madam

**PERMISSION TO CONDUCT RESEARCH AT SELECTED SCHOOLS IN THE
SCOTTBURGH DISTRICT:**

Permission is hereby granted on the following conditions:

1. The participation of educators is voluntary .
2. Your research will not impact on the official hours of duty of educators .
3. That ^{the} questions will not be incriminating or offensive in nature.
4. You will work through the principal, of the schools you have chosen.

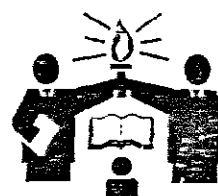
We wish you well in your studies.

Yours faithfully



B.E. Nobin

DISTRICT MANAGER : SCOTTBURGH DISTRICT



PRINCIPAL'S AUTHORIZATION TO CONDUCT RESEARCH AT SCHOOL

NO.	SCHOOL	CIRCUIT	PRINCIPAL	AUTHORIZATION
1.	Pennington Primary	Umzinto	B. J. Tedder	P. J. Tedder
2.	IFRFA PRIMARY		2. K. J. L. L. L.	P. J. L. L.
3.	Sereka H. School		K. N. D. K. S. H. R. E.	K. N. D. K. S. H. R. E.
4.	ST ANNES		B. KAMAZ	B. KAMAZ
5.	SHAYAMUYA PRIMARY		H. H. MBHELE	H. H. MBHELE
6.	BRAEMAR PRIMARY SCHOOL	Braemar	I. N. D. D. O. O.	I. N. D. D. O. O.
7.	BRAEMAR C. P. SCHOOL		M. W. H. L. O. N. G. W. A.	M. W. H. L. O. N. G. W. A.
8.	HIMMELBERG INTERMED		P. B. M. K. I. T. Z. E.	P. B. M. K. I. T. Z. E.
9.	DUMISA C. P. SCHOOL		T. D. N. Z. I. M. A. N. D. E.	T. D. N. Z. I. M. A. N. D. E.
10.	KENTERTON C. P.		H. M. K. H. U. M. A. R. O.	H. M. K. H. U. M. A. R. O.
11.	SCOTTBURGH PRIM.	Amandawe	T. A. R. O. B. E. R. T.	T. A. R. O. B. E. R. T.
12.	NAIDOO MEMORIAL PR.		D. R. D. S. P. I. L. A. T.	D. R. D. S. P. I. L. A. T.
13.	UMKUMAS DRIFT		MRS M. A. R. A. H. I. A. H.	MRS M. A. R. A. H. I. A. H.
14.	NAIDOOVILLE PR		MRS S. P. I. L. L. A. Y.	MRS S. P. I. L. L. A. Y.
15.	AMAHLONGWA L. P.		MISS D. T. M. B. H. E. E.	MISS D. T. M. B. H. E. E.
16.	MCELENI C. P.	Dududu	M. G. R. A. D. E. B. E.	M. G. R. A. D. E. B. E.
17.	ESIBANINI PRIMARY	TURTON	M. Y. E. Z. A. N. I. S. J.	M. Y. E. Z. A. N. I. S. J.
18.	VUKAPILI C. P.		M. S. S. P. K. M. I. N. D. I. S. H. A.	M. S. S. P. K. M. I. N. D. I. S. H. A.
19.	IMPUMELELE SP		MRS H. N. S. I. M. S. H. A.	MRS H. N. S. I. M. S. H. A.
20.	INGUBUKO S. P.	MTIHWALUME	MISS T. W. M. E. Y. I. W. A.	MISS T. W. M. E. Y. I. W. A.
21.	INGUBUKO PRIMARY	Mtwalume	T. W. M. E. Y. I. W. A.	T. W. M. E. Y. I. W. A.
22.	WILDER J. P. School		J. P. M. O. O.	J. P. M. O. O.
23.	MTWALUME C. P. SCHOOL		N. P. O. B. Y. A.	N. P. O. B. Y. A.
24.	NDUNGE C. P. SCHOOL		W. M. F. E. C. A. N. E.	W. M. F. E. C. A. N. E.
25.	ST. JOACHIMS H. P.		I. S. J. I. M. A. N. A.	I. S. J. I. M. A. N. A.
26.	WANGANCE PRIMARY	Turton	S. C. H. E. T. T. Y.	S. C. H. E. T. T. Y.
27.	VELIMEMEZE PRIMARY		J. S. P. I. L. L. A. Y.	J. S. P. I. L. L. A. Y.
28.	Gobela C. P. School		S. K. H. L. O. N. G. W. A.	S. K. H. L. O. N. G. W. A.
29.	SINOKUBENGA H. P. SCHOOL		M. A. C. E. L. E.	M. A. C. E. L. E.
30.	MNAFEN L. P.		S. B. R. A. D. E. B. E.	S. B. R. A. D. E. B. E.
31.	NOMAKHANZANA C. P.		M. A. M. T. H. E. M. B. A.	M. A. M. T. H. E. M. B. A.

	Test Value = 0					
	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
					Lower	Upper
S A S A - DESCRIPTION OF KNOWLEDGE	33.764	190	.000	2.84	2.68	3.01
BILL OF RIGHTS - DESCRIPTION OF KNOWLEDGE	37.159	190	.000	2.90	2.75	3.05
E L R A - DESCRIPTION OF KNOWLEDGE	37.319	190	.000	2.80	2.65	2.95
CONSTITUTION - CONSTITUTION - DESCRIPTION OF KNOWLEDGE	43.890	190	.000	3.49	3.34	3.65
MISSION - DESCRIPTION OF KNOWLEDGE	37.364	190	.000	3.33	3.15	3.51
LEARNER CODE - DESCRIPTION OF KNOWLEDGE	38.959	190	.000	3.55	3.37	3.73
TEACHER CODE OF CONDUCT	42.052	190	.000	3.70	3.52	3.87
MY PRINCIPAL DISCUSS SCHOOL POLICIES WITH THE STAFF	49.524	190	.000	3.90	3.75	4.06
PRINCIPAL DISCUSS THE SOUTH AFRICAN SCHOOLS ACT WITH STAFF	33.812	190	.000	2.96	2.79	3.14
PRINCIPAL DISCUSS THE SOUTH AFRICAN BILL WITH STAFF	32.301	190	.000	2.88	2.71	3.06
PRINCIPAL ROTATES DEPARTMENTAL CIRCULARS	51.240	190	.000	4.14	3.98	4.30
PRINCIPAL DISCUSS THE BUDGET WITH THE STAFF	28.643	190	.000	2.97	2.76	3.17
PRINCIPAL INVOLVES STAFF IN DECISIONS ABOUT SPENDING	28.865	190	.000	3.00	2.79	3.21
PRINCIPAL PROMOTES AGREEMENT AMONG STAFF AND GOV BODY	33.167	190	.000	3.14	2.95	3.32
PRINCIPAL SUPPORTS STAFF IM IMPLEMENTING	46.641	190	.000	3.76	3.61	3.92
OUTVOMES BACED ED PRINCIPAL BUILDS A NETWORK OF	45.498	190	.000	3.59	3.44	3.75
EXTERNAL CONTACTS PRINCIPAL RECOGNISES PECIAL POTENTIAL AND SKILLS OF STAFF	39.406	190	.000	3.47	3.30	3.64
PRINCIPAL DISTRIBUTES THE TEACHING WORKLOADS FAIRLY	39.093	190	.000	3.63	3.45	3.81

	Test Value = 0					
	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
					Lower	Upper
PRINCIPAL CREATES OPPORTUNITIES FOR PROFESSIONAL GROWTH	43.976	190	.000	3.70	3.53	3.86
PRINCIPAL MOTIVATES STAFF TO BE UNITED	46.681	190	.000	4.05	3.88	4.22
PRINCIPAL PROMOTES MUTUAL TRUST	43.086	190	.000	3.80	3.63	3.98
PRINCIPAL ENCOURAGES PARTNERSHIP BETWEEN STAFF AND GOV BODY	40.772	190	.000	3.54	3.37	3.71
PARENTS PARTICIPATED IN SCHOOL ADMISSION POLICY	39.552	190	.000	3.29	3.13	3.46
PARENTS PARTICIPATED IN SCHOOL'S LANGUAGE POLICY	35.033	190	.000	3.01	2.84	3.18
PARENTS PARTICIPATED IN LEARNER'S CODE OF CONDUCT	40.577	190	.000	3.52	3.35	3.69
PARENTS PARTICIPATED IN SCHOOL'S BUDGET	39.918	190	.000	3.53	3.35	3.70
PARENTS PARTICIPATED IN SCHOOL'S RELIGIOUS POLICY	36.522	190	.000	3.07	2.91	3.24
PARENTS PARTICIPATED IN SCHOOLS CURRICULAR PROGRAMME	32.144	190	.000	2.76	2.59	2.93
PARENTS PARTICIPATED IN EXTRA CURRICULAR PROGRAMME	35.441	190	.000	3.08	2.91	3.25
PUPILS CONFIDE IN THE PRINCIPAL	38.280	190	.000	3.17	3.01	3.34
PRINCIPAL USES CORPORAL PUNISHMENT	28.474	190	.000	2.20	2.05	2.35
THERE IS MUTUAL RESPECT BETWEEN THE TEACHERS AND PUPILS	51.781	190	.000	3.94	3.79	4.09
PUPILS ARE KEPT INFORMED ABOUT CHANGES	45.957	190	.000	3.79	3.62	3.95
PARENTS ARE GIVEN GREATER POWER IN EDUCATIONAL MANAGEMENT	31.820	190	.000	2.96	2.78	3.15

	Test Value = 0					
	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
					Lower	Upper
OUR SCHOOL'S GOVERNING BODY WAS DEMOCRATICALLY ELECTED	43.384	190	.000	3.84	3.66	4.01
THERE IS RACIAL REPRESENTATION ON OUR SCHOOL'S GOV BODY	30.458	190	.000	2.90	2.71	3.09
GENDER REPRESENTATION ON OUR SCHOOL'S GOVERNING BODY	40.935	190	.000	3.71	3.53	3.89
PARENTS PARTICIPATED IN DECIDING THE SCHOOL'S CONSTITUTION	36.713	190	.000	3.27	3.09	3.44
PARENTS PARTICIPATED IN DRAWING UP THE LEARNERS'S CODE	35.467	190	.000	3.15	2.98	3.33
PARENTS WERE CONSULTED ABOUT ADMISSION POLICY	46.344	190	.000	3.47	3.32	3.62
PARENTS WERE CONSULTED ABOUT THE LANGUAGE POLICY	42.393	190	.000	3.15	3.01	3.30
PARENTS HAVE THE CAPACITY TO MAKE POLICY DECISIONS	37.270	190	.000	3.05	2.89	3.21
LEARNER'S CODE OF CONDUCT SETS TO BREAK A RULE	41.192	190	.000	3.46	3.29	3.62
CURRICULUM CHANGES REFLECT THE DIVERSE CULTURES	41.196	190	.000	3.37	3.21	3.53
OUR SCHOOL EMBRACES A NON-RACIAL ENROLMENT POLICY	47.072	190	.000	3.82	3.66	3.98
PARENTS ARE ACTIVELY INVOLVED IN THE EDUCATION OF CHILDREN	30.274	190	.000	2.90	2.71	3.09
PRINCIPAL, STAFF, PUPILS AND GOV BODY GOOD RELATIONSHIP	41.719	190	.000	3.64	3.47	3.81
PARENTS PARICIPATED IN SCHOOL CONSTITUTION	36.543	190	.000	3.40	3.21	3.58
PARENTS PARTICIPATED IN SCHOOL MISSION	35.860	190	.000	3.10	2.93	3.27

APPENDIX G

QUESTION 2.2 MY PRINCIPAL	STATEMENTS RANKED						TOTAL FREQUENCIES
	FIRST		SECOND		THIRD		
	FREQUENCY	%	FREQUENCY	%	FREQUENCY	%	
discusses school policies with the staff	26	13.6	17	8.9	11	5.8	54
discusses The South African Schools' Act, 1996 with the staff	4	2.1	3	1.6	6	3.1	13
discusses The South African Schools' Bill, 1996 with the staff	2	1.0	4	2.1	6	3.1	12
rotates departmental circulars to all staff members	30	15.7	34	17.8	24	12.6	88
discusses the budget with the staff	3	1.6	5	2.6	8	4.2	16
involves staff in decisions about spending	1	.5	3	1.6	8	4.2	12
promotes agreement among staff members and the Governing Body on curriculum content and method	2	1.0	8	4.2	5	2.6	15
supports staff in implementing Outcomes Based Education	6	3.1	18	9.4	12	6.3	36
builds a network of external contacts to help improve school resources	8	4.2	10	5.2	8	4.2	26
recognises special potential and skills of staff	8	4.2	8	4.2	12	6.3	28
distributes the teaching workloads fairly among staff members	16	8.4	16	8.4	21	11.0	53
creates opportunities for professional growth of his/her staff members	12	6.3	10	5.2	14	7.3	36
motivates staff to be united	51	26.7	34	17.8	23	12.0	108
promotes mutual trust between himself/herself and staff	12	6.3	12	6.3	23	12.0	47
encourages partnership between the staff and governing body	10	5.2	9	4.7	10	5.2	29
Total	191	100	191	100	191	100	

QUESTION 5.2	STATEMENTS RANKED						TOTAL FREQUENCIES
	FIRST		SECOND		THIRD		
	FREQUENCY	%	FREQUENCY	%	FREQUENCY	%	
Parents are given greater power in education management	17	8.9	10	5.2	16	8.4	43
Our school's governing body was democratically elected	26	13.6	22	11.5	20	10.5	68
There is racial representation on our school's governing body	6	3.1	7	3.7	9	4.7	22
There is gender representation on our school's governing body	13	6.8	16	8.4	15	7.9	45
Parents participated in deciding the school's constitution	7	3.7	10	5.2	8	4.2	25
Parents participated in drawing up the learner's code of conduct	7	3.7	10	5.2	12	6.3	29
Parents were consulted about the school's admission policy	8	4.2	12	6.3	9	4.7	29
Parents were consulted about the school's language policy	2	1.0	6	3.1	3	1.6	11
Parents have the capacity to make policy decisions	4	2.1	3	1.6	10	5.2	17
The learner's code of conduct sets out consequences for breaking a rule	13	6.8	16	8.4	17	8.9	46
Curriculum changes reflect the diverse cultures of our country	5	2.6	15	7.9	18	9.4	38
Our school embraces a non-racial enrolment policy	18	9.4	13	6.8	11	5.8	42
Our school excludes pupils who cannot afford school fees	26	13.6	21	11.0	15	7.9	62
The principal, staff, pupils and governing councillors have a good working relationship	39	20.4	30	15.7	28	14.7	97
Total	191	100.0	191	100.0	191	100.0	