CHAPTER 1

ORIENTATION AND RATIONALE FOR THE STUDY

1.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter presents a brief background to the study on the effectiveness of the implementation and monitoring of education policies in schools, the rationale to the study, the aims and the research question, conceptualisation of the study, the description of the research site, the research methodology, the definition of concepts and the possible contribution by the study.

1.2 BACKGROUND

It is universally recognised that the main objective of an education system in a democratic society is to provide quality education to learners so that they will be able to reach their full potential and to contribute meaningfully and participate in society throughout their lives.

The responsibility of an education system to develop and sustain such a learning environment is premised on the recognition that education in South Africa is a fundamental right (Section 29(1) of the South African Constitution, Act 108 of 1996), which extends to all learners. Exercising this right involves ensuring that the education system creates equal opportunities for effective learning and teaching for all learners and educators.

The way in which an education system is structured, managed and organised impacts directly on the process of learning. Education governance during the apartheid years was a complex mixture of centralised and decentralised forms of administration and control. The basic centralisation of this system has left a legacy of restrictive centralised control, which inhibits change and initiative. Legal responsibility for decision making in the past tended to have been

located at the highest level and the focus of management remained orientated towards employees complying with rules rather than ensuring quality service delivery.

A major factor inhibiting effective human resource development of educators and other personnel has been the absence of effective monitoring of performance or appropriate processes for assessing merit. Central to such styles of management and governance has been the limited or total lack of attempts to include key stakeholders in the governance and management of education at all levels. One of the more severe consequences of this is the division between centres of learning and surrounding communities, with few opportunities for parents and other community members to participate in decision making and planning.

The biggest challenge to educational transformation in South Africa in general and the North West Province in particular was created by the previously inequitable distribution of resources along racial lines. Concentration of wealth and power in the hands of the white minority by the apartheid regime, gave rise to large inequalities and poverty, with very few people sharing in the resources available in the country.

Z.P. Tolo, (MEC for Education in the North West Province) during his address to the “Educationally Speaking” conference of the North West Department of Education held at Buffelspoort on 23rd June 2002, acknowledged the fact that, his department had inherited poor structures from the apartheid government the backlog in rural and formally disadvantaged areas was severe and some learners had no classrooms and were taught under trees. Although significant progress in redressing this imbalance has been registered since the advent of the democratic dispensation, the impact is still felt throughout the country’s education system.

The disparities alluded to above, inevitably, still impact negatively on effective teaching and learning at schools and also on the effective coordination of educational programmes within the province. This claim is evidenced by the

fact that most schools in the remote or rural areas within the Province and in particular, the Bojanala Region, barely receive visits by departmental officials to monitor and assess performance in schools because of their rural geographical position.

The question that immediately comes to mind based on the preceding unhealthy state of affairs is whether these learners and their educators not part of the general education population of South Africa where the Bill of Rights is enforced? According to the (RNCS. p8) an Outcomes Based Education policy framework that seeks to emphasise the values and principles of the new society envisage by the Constitution aims at developing the full potential of each learner (rural or urban based) as a citizen of a democratic South Africa. It further seeks to create a lifelong learner who is confident and independent, literate, numerate and multi-skilled, compassionate, with respect for the environment, and the ability to participate in society as a critical and active citizen. To achieve this, the education system must be equipped with the personnel and the support structures that will be able to deliver such a vision.

1.3 RATIONALE FOR THE STUDY

As a Middle School [Grade 7-9] educator for the past eleven years, I have noticed that teaching and learning at schools in most cases has been compromised by either extra or core curricular activities/programmes which are poorly organised for educators during teaching and learning time by different education directorates and the confusing or contradictory interpretation and understanding of policies by educators, principals and district officials in the area.

It has become a habit for education officials to convene workshops during teaching and learning time to the extent that some of these programmes even clash in terms of dates, times, venues and even to a larger extent of the duplication of workshops.

Educators' Unions and the department officials call their meetings during teaching and learning time. There is also a wide spread phenomenon lately where memorial services - honouring educators who have passed away – are organised during the teaching and learning time and this more often than not disrupts the teaching and learning process as learners in most of the cases are without educators who attend these services. Surely there should be guidelines somewhere to regulate this unavoidable reality. The question is what the guidelines for such events are and who should implement such guidelines.

Another worrying factor that inhibits effectiveness between schools and education officials is the issue of communication between the two structures. It is clear that the current communication method of sending circulars to schools has largely contributed to the poor response or non-compliance by schools to new policies and other developments in education as circulars reach schools very late or not at all.

According to the Personnel Administrative Measures as contemplated in terms of section (4) of the Employment of Educators Act,1998, it is the core responsibility of the education officials to liaise with other education offices for the purposes of coordination and monitoring of any educational activity to ensure that learners as the main beneficiaries receive quality education.

1.4 AIM OF THE STUDY

The purpose of the study is to assess the effectiveness of the implementation and monitoring of education policies in schools.

1.5 RESEARCH QUESTION

The main research question is the following:

How effective are the implementation and monitoring of education policies in schools?

In view of the above general question of the study, the following sub-questions were formulated to channel the research:

- Do educators have sufficient knowledge to implement what policies require from them when executing their daily responsibilities?
- Do principals have sufficient knowledge to manage schools in line with current policy requirements?
- Are district officials able to monitor the performance of schools in accordance with the current policy requirements?

1.6 CONCEPTUALISATION

A search on the Internet on “the effectiveness of the implementation and monitoring of education policies in schools” has confirmed that limited research has been done on the theme. This vacuum has as a result, motivated me to conduct research on this problem.

However, there is published literature which is more or less closer to this topic. Age (1990) in his dissertation, “The optimal functioning of the Inspector of education as educational leader with special reference to curriculum development”, argues that because of the relative position of authoritativeness that the Inspector (Superintendent) of education assumes or ought to assume in the teaching hierarchy, he is the obvious person to command a special educational leadership position which can fulfil a particular important liaison, consolatory and facilitation role.

The above-mentioned leadership culminates in a renewed view with respect to staff development, clinical supervision and the maintenance of greater and effective educator professionalism. Although the study brought important changes in the role and functions of the Inspectors in the pursuit of effective

leadership, it was based mainly on the experiences of the education department of the erstwhile House of Representatives which happened to have been more privileged than the Blacks during the apartheid era furthermore, the study was conducted long ago and lacks the basis of recent empirical studies.

Strydom (1993) in his thesis, “The Inspector of education’s and the subject advisor’s role as educational guides in the promotion of effectiveness in schools” argues that the development of both teaching ability and teaching methods applied by educators must become a major objective of subject advisers and inspectors of education through effective management and coordination of educational programmes. In this thesis the necessity of an awareness of the extensive domain of instructional leadership is stressed; its essential components are person development, aim and objective orientation, an evaluating responsibility, development of teaching ability and methods of curriculum development involvement and a focus on evaluation of pupil achievement. This study also lacks the basis for recent empirical studies as it was conducted long ago and it further motivated me even more to conduct this study in order to assess the latest trends with regard to the phenomenon under study.

Chapman and Dunstan (1990) argue that management essentially means making decisions about the conduct of the enterprise. New decisions are required when conditions and circumstances change, or when it has been judged that they are about to change. However, given the size of the Department of Education and the spread of their operations, it is difficult to judge whether decisions made at the centre are appropriate for all those who will be affected by such decisions. Are there also mechanisms in place within the district that are used to communicate such changes effectively? Also of significance is how those changes are monitored from the province down to the schools.

Chapman and Dustan (1990) further argue that in recent years and in many countries there have been major changes in the organisation of public

education to enable it to meet the needs of the society that it is intended for. In association with these changes there have been substantial revisions to the principle governing the organisation and operation of schools and a reshaping of relations between the central level, regional level and schools within the education system. Such a practice is also essential that it be carried in the Moretele District in order to enable the provincial department to assess the successes and the failures of such changes for purposes of corrections and improvements where deemed necessary.

These changes which are a response to a broad range of social, political, economic and management pressures have influenced the education officials to decentralise administrative arrangements and devolve responsibility to regions and schools. While contributors or stakeholders generally agree that schools and regional administrators are increasingly introducing democratic decision making involving educators, parents, learners and administrators, testimony to this assertion is the introduction of the South African Schools Act which is adhered to by almost all schools, however, they also state that such decision making is constrained. It is exercised only within the boundaries of government policies and guidelines.

Chapman and Dunstan (1990) also assert that these changes brought about suspicion with regard to motive and intentions. The burning questions about these changes are whether the intention in relocating decision making to the local level supposed to increase democratic approaches? Or is it to contain expenditures and to allocate resources more effectively and with less opposition? To what extent is local decision making a bona fide endeavour to acknowledge the professionalism of educators to make more meaningful decisions about the educational needs of learners, and to match school programmes with the wishes and the circumstances of school communities? Or must it be regarded as an abdication of responsibility by government and central administration?

1.7 DEFINITION OF CONCEPTS

The following operational terms are used for this study;

1.7.1 Educational Officials

Educational authorities refer to educators who are holding management positions at circuit, district, regional, provincial and national level of education department. They also include those who are at support services.

1.7.2 Extra or Core Curricular Activities

Extra or core curricular activities refer to all the activities performed by educators at schools in their quest for effective teaching and learning in schools, for example teaching [Core] and training learners in different sporting codes [Extra].

1.7.3 Contingency

Contingency refers to any variable that moderates the effect of an organisational characteristic on organisational performance.

1.7.4 Educational Programmes

Educational programmes refer to activities performed within an education system such as curriculum implementation, human resource management, physical and financial resource management, etc.

1.7.5 Education Policies

Education policies refer to all documents and directives issued by or on behalf of the department of education, from school to national level, in order to provide direction on how each arm/branch of the education system should function in order to achieve optimum teaching and learning in schools.

1.8 THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

The effective implementation and monitoring of education policies in school involves the coordination of various structures of the education department which include the management of interpersonal relationships of such people. In order to foreground this study, Lex Donald's Contingency Theory of Organisations is used. The reason for the focus on effectiveness in contingency theory in the study on 'the effectiveness of the implementation and monitoring of education policies in schools' is that organisational theory has been concerned with explaining the success or failure of organisations.

According to Donaldson (2001), Contingency Theory of Organisations is a major theoretical lens used to view organisations. The essence of the contingency theory paradigm is that organisational effectiveness results from fitting characteristics of the organisations, such as its structure to contingencies that reflect the situation of the organisation. Such contingencies include: the environment, organisational size, and the organisational strategy.

In the ensuing discussion three contingencies will be discussed

1.8.1 The Organisational Size

Pugh and Hickson (1976) and Pugh and Hinings (1976) argue that the organisational size contingency has an effect on its bureaucratic structure. This implies that the size of an organisation, that is, the number of its employees, affects the degree to which its structure is bureaucratic. The

bureaucratic structure fits a large organisation, because large size leads to repetitive operations and administration so that much decision making can be effected by rules, rendering decision making inexpensive and efficient (Child, 1975; Weber, 1968).

The Moretele district (which has a total of 135 schools) is very large in size and a bureaucratic system of management will best suit it where the operations of the organisation are characterised by impersonal rules that are explicitly stated, responsibilities, standardised procedures and conduct of office holders (district officials), educators and principals. The task and duties of the incumbents of posts within the system are specialised; that is, appointments to these posts are made according to specialised qualifications rather than ascribed criteria. All of these ideal characteristics have one goal, namely to promote the efficient attainment of the organisation's objectives.

1.8.2 The Organisational Strategy

This contingency affects divisional structure. Chandler (1962) and Galbraith (1973) argue that the functional structure fits an undiversified strategy because all its activities are focused on a single product or service. In this study focus is placed on quality teaching and learning through the correct implementation of policies and monitoring the performance of those who are charged with such responsibility so that efficiency is enhanced by the specialisation function of the personnel.

1.8.3 The Environmental Stability

This contingency affects a mechanistic structure. Burns and Stalker (1961) argue that the rate of technological and market change in the environment of an organisation is affected whether its structure is mechanistic [hierarchical] or organic [participatory]. For the study the effectiveness of the implementation and monitoring of education policies in school, stability in the organisation is brought by a mechanistic approach where managers at upper levels of the bureaucracy conduct routine operations to assess and monitor the

performance of those at lower levels. Given the routine nature of operations, the district officials are presumed to possess sufficient knowledge and information to make decisions that will foster efficiency.

1.9 RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

Goldenberg (1992) argues that methodological principles in the social sciences ensure that we are able to defend our findings, and are those guidelines that researchers agree on, that they rely on to give us acceptable research practices. Methodological principles further enable researchers to attain knowledge by providing the researchers with necessary techniques or tools, (Babbie, 1995; Denzin, 1989; Marson, 1996).

1.9.1 Mode of Inquiry

The study will assume a qualitative research approach. Qualitative research differs inherently from quantitative research designs in that they usually do not provide the researcher with a step-by-step plan or a fixed recipe to follow, whereas in quantitative research the design determines the researcher's choices and actions; in qualitative research the researcher's choices and actions determine the design.

McMillan and Schumacher (2001) define qualitative research approach as a research method that presents data as narration with words. They further assert that qualitative research provides explanations to extend our understanding of phenomena, or promotes opportunities of informed decisions for social action. Qualitative research further contributes to theory, educational practice, policymaking, and social consciousness.

This approach − qualitative − will be more ideal in conducting research on the phenomena being studied since reality will be constructed by the individuals involved in the research situation, unlike the quantitative research approach that seeks to establish relationships and causes of changes in measured

social facts by presenting data with numbers and is usually based on social facts with a single objective reality separated from the feelings and beliefs of individuals (McMillan & Schumacher, 2001).

The study on the assessment of the effectiveness of the implementation and monitoring of educational policies in schools will be conducted through employing a case study research strategy of enquiry. Yin (1994) defines case study as an empirical inquiry that investigates a contemporary phenomenon within its real-life context, especially when the boundaries between phenomenon and context are not clearly evident and in which multiple sources of evidence are used. Case study research further opens the possibility of giving a voice to the powerless and voiceless. This is essential for researchers as it provides them with a deeper understanding of the dynamics of the situation under study.

Maree (2007) further argues that a key strength of the case study method is the use of multiple sources and techniques in the data gathering process. The researcher determines in advance what evidence to gather and what analysis techniques to use with the data to answer the research question.

1.10 RESEARCH SITE

The study took place in Moretele District of Education − commonly known as Moretele Area Project Office (APO) − which is situated north-east of the Bojanala Region of the North West Province. The district is predominantly rural. Respondents were selected from the district office, secondary schools and primary schools within the district. The district has a total of 135 schools: 23 high schools (Grades 10 - 12), 71 primary schools (Grades 1 - 6) and 31 middle schools (Grades 7 - 9). The district is further divided into 5 circuits (clusters) and each circuit has a maximum of 5 high schools, 7 middle schools and 16 primary schools.

1.11 CONTRIBUTION OF THIS RESEARCH PROJECT

The findings from this research could be useful to the following:

- National and provincial policymakers when developing quality assurance management programmes at departmental level that will enhance professional competences and growth in education management and policy implementation.
- Regional education managers in focusing on those areas of management that inhibit efficiency and delivery of quality education in schools.
- All departmental officials in conducting a self-introspection that will ultimately lead to improvement in policy implementation and monitoring.

1.12 CONCLUSION

In this chapter the background and the reasons for conducting the study on the effectiveness of the implementation and monitoring of education policies in schools were discussed. It was also mentioned that the development of the full potential of our learners hinges on the provision of quality education by the education system and that provision of quality education is dependent squarely on the proper and correct implementation of education policies in schools.

The remainder of the study can be outlined as follows:

In Chapter 2 literature on the study the effectiveness of the implementation and monitoring of education policies in schools will be reviewed.

Chapter 3 will then discuss the research design and methodology employed for the study

In Chapter 4, the results of the study will be presented and discussed.

Chapter 5 covers the conclusion whereby the summary and the discussion of the salient points on the study will be highlighted. It also contains the recommendations flowing from the study by the study.

CHAPTER 2

LITERATURE REVIEW ON THE STUDY OF THE EFFECTIVENESS OF THE IMPLEMENTATION AND MONITORING OF EDUCATION POLICIES IN SCHOOLS

2.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter presents the literature review on the effectiveness of the implementation and monitoring of education policies in schools. Local and international literature on the phenomenon under study was reviewed. The review focused on the roles of district officials, educators, school principals and the support provided by education departments locally and internationally in enhancing effective implementation and monitoring of policies in schools. Both the positives and the challenges experienced are also explored. The findings are then discussed.

2.2 THE ROLE OF THE DISTRICT OFFICIALS

The current literature on “the implementation and monitoring of education policies in schools” in South Africa has been found to be limited. Age (1990) in his dissertation “The optimal functioning of the Inspector of education as educational leader with special reference to curriculum development” argues that because of the relative position of authoritativeness that the Inspector (Superintendent) of education assumes or ought to assume in the teaching hierarchy, he is the obvious person to command a special educational leadership position which can fulfil a particular important liaison, consolatory and facilitation role.

The above-mentioned leadership culminates in a renewed view with respect to staff development, clinical supervision and the maintenance of greater and effective educator professionalism. Although the study brought about

important changes in the role and functions of the inspectors in the pursuit of effective leadership, it was, however, based mainly on the experiences of the education department of the erstwhile House of Representatives which happened to have been more privileged during the apartheid era and it further lacks the basis for recent empirical studies.

The current South African discourse on education districts oscillates confusingly between districts as support centres for schools, and districts as administrative and management arms of the provincial departments of education. The primary purpose of districts, therefore, remains contentious: do districts exist primarily as a base for professional services to schools or are they established to ensure policy and administrative control?

The international literature points to a number of possibilities for the role of the districts – those of active support bases for the schools or those of aggressive school monitoring agents. The literature suggests that districts could, alternatively, play a facilitation role in service delivery and school support or be merely passive mediators between schools and provincial head offices (Emore, 1993b, O'Day & Smith, 1993). It is of course quite possible for districts to undertake, to varying degrees, all of the roles proposed above. However, these roles are distinctive and subject to the vagaries of contesting demands as well as competing priorities and practical realities that districts have to contend with on a daily basis.

Since the dawn of democratic South Africa in 1994 there has been considerable interest in the nature and form of local education in South Africa. Coombe and Godden (1995), as cited by Narsee (2006), undertook a significant initiative in this regard in their research into the local and district governance of education, wherein they explored possibilities for local governance of education. This initiative was followed by a brief period of silence on districts in the education policy agenda, which perhaps led Roberts (1999) to describe districts as the 'orphans' of the education system.

Miller (2004) argues that quantitative and qualitative evidence supports the notion that many principals are not adequately trained to cope with the demands of their positions. In their study; *Making sense of leading schools: A study of the school principal* conducted in the USA, Portin, Schneider, DeArmond, and Gundlah (2003), as cited by Miller (2004), report that "principals generally characterised traditional principal preparation as middle management training which did not include substantive mentorship". The majority of the principals surveyed for the report noted that most of the skills they needed to run their schools effectively were learned "on the job".

Complicating matters is the fact that a spate of new federal and state accountability mandates has fundamentally changed the job. No longer are principals simply responsible for managing the day-to-day operations of the school. Now they must also be school improvement experts who are able to motivate staff to make any necessary changes.

Miller (2004) argues that in some states in the USA principal preparation programmes have not been revised to reflect the above mentioned changes. At the annual policy forum of Mid-Continent Research for Education and Learning (McREL) it was recommended that districts review their principals' preparation policies to ensure that they effectively prepare principals to be instructional leaders – leaders who have skills and knowledge that are correlated with increased learner achievement.

Districts might consider tracking the performance of principals who graduate from specific preparation programmes and gauging their success over time. As part of this process districts should review programme design to determine if they include research-based leadership practices correlated to school improvement and learner achievement. Though factors other than preparation also are likely to impact on a principal's success, compiling data on the components and effectiveness of specific programmes can help districts tailor their preparation policies and programmes to be most effective.

Miller (2004) states that districts' role has emerged as a key issue in shaping the conditions under which principals can do their most productive work. Districts must set their priorities in view of what research has shown to be effective. As part of that process, districts should review the research on effective leadership and determine whether their principals have the authority and support necessary to implement the leadership practices that have been identified as effective.

It is clear from the above discourse that the role of the district office is paramount in the successful implementation of education policies in schools. District offices provide an intermediary role between the schools and the provincial departments of education. It is therefore vital that the district offices be supported extensively by the provincial departments in proper policy implementation and also by the NGOs that have vested interest in school education to enhance quality teaching and learning. Currently the situation at our district offices is far from what the situation is like in the USA in terms of providing the necessary support required for the provision of quality education in schools. It therefore stands to reason that the study is vital in order to identify policy gaps and apply corrective measures in pursuit of quality education for the learners that will match the standards set in the USA.

2.3 THE ROLE OF THE PRINCIPALS

Miller (2004) argues that school principals also need support as they enter into their leadership roles. Though principals must be accountable to districts for their performances, districts too must be accountable to their principals; in other words, they must determine what tools and support their principals need to be effective and find ways to provide principals with those supports. A number of state education departments and professional organisations (e.g. administrator associations) have begun to sponsor principals mentoring programmes in which new principals are paired with veteran principals for guidance and support.

Features of effective mentoring programmes, as described in Making the Case for Principal Mentoring (The Education Alliance of Elementary School Principals, 2003), include organisational support, clearly defined outcomes, screening and training of both mentors and protégés as well as learner-centred focus. Studies suggest that implementing mentoring or peer coaching programmes can reduce professional isolation, boost collegiality and encourage reflective thinking. By pairing new principals with veterans, districts are likely to mitigate some of the stresses that beginning principals face which in turn may help reduce turnover (Miller, 2004).

Districts also might tap into resources available from professional organisations. The National Association of Elementary School Principals (NAESP), for instance, recently instituted a member principal “help line” on its website www.naesp.org. Association members can post questions about a variety of topics related to the principalship, which are answered by the cadre of veteran principals who have been trained to staff the help line. Inquiring principals promptly receive a response to their questions, generally within 24 hours. In the alternative, districts might use resources such as this as a model for developing a local, collegial network of their own. These professional groups could provide additional support and much-needed collegiality, particularly in instances where formal mentorship programmes might not be practical – for example, in smaller districts or districts with vast geographical distance between schools.

The situation in our education system with particular reference to the district in which the study on the effectiveness of implementation and monitoring of education policies in schools was conducted is totally different to what is happening in the USA. Principals do not receive that intensified support from the district office in order for them to manage their schools effectively to enhance quality teaching and learning in their schools. Most of the principals are not familiar with the strategic objective of the department of education and that makes it difficult for them to provide proper guidance and direction in their schools. The workshops and other training initiatives by the district office organised for principals in the current form seem not to be adequately

addressing the problems. The study is again vital in that it will help to identity policy gaps in the role of principals in implementing and monitoring education policies in schools.

2.3.1 Focusing On Academic Achievement

It is not only new principals who may benefit from increased support at the district level. Veteran principals may be adept at the juggling act of the principalship, but likely still consider it difficult to find time for each of the many responsibilities they face each school day. A number of districts are addressing this issue by actively re-orienting the principalship toward what matters most. In Talbot County, Maryland, for example, the district has hired "school managers" to handle some management tasks that previously fell to principals. Now principals in the districts are free to focus on tasks such as instruction and professional development.

As districts consider such options, it is important to note that some management tasks are in fact correlated to learner achievement. For example, one of the 66 responsibilities that are part of McREL's Balanced Leadership Framework is "Order'. This responsibility is defined as "the extent to which the principal establishes a set of standard operating principles and routines" (Waters &Grubb, 2004). The practices associated with this responsibility include providing and enforcing clear structures, rules, and procedures for both learners and educators, and establishing routines for running of the school that educators and staff understand and follow. Given its correlation to learner achievement, this management task should remain in the hands of the principal.

For example, one of the leadership responsibilities identified in McREL's Balanced Leadership Framework is "Focus", which is defined as "the extent to which the principal establishes clear goals and keeps those goals in the forefront of the school's attention" (Waters, Marzano & McNulty, 2004). Practices associated with this responsibility include establishing high,

concrete goals and expectations for learners, curricula, instruction, assessment and the general function of the school – and keeping everyone's attention focused on these goals.

Marzano (2003), as cited Miller (2004) has documented the importance of establishing a "guaranteed and viable curriculum"; indeed, he identifies it as the most important school-level factor in increasing learner achievement. Principals need district support to attend to this vital task effectively; aligning a curriculum to state standards, for example, is a tremendously time-consuming and detailed process. Requiring each school in a district to undertake this process may be unrealistic. Therefore, whereas the scope, sequencing, and pacing of the curriculum should be district based, the implementation of that curriculum is entirely a school-level focus.

Another example of an area in which districts may need to provide further support to principals relates to the responsibility that McREL calls "Monitors/evaluates", which is defined as "the extent to which the principal monitors the effectiveness of school practices and their impact on learners' learning" (Waters & Grubb, 2004). The practices associated with this responsibility include monitoring and evaluating the effectiveness of the school's curriculum, instruction, and assessment. This practice is wanting in our principals as they are not equipped with the necessary skills to perform such a task. They cannot effectively attend to this responsibility without appropriate support from the district. The district's role, in this instance, is to create an infrastructure that allows principals access to the data they need to monitor and evaluate curriculum, instruction, and assessment effectively.

Miller (2004) points out that if principals are to create the conditions that lead to improved learner learning, districts must consider the research on school and leadership practices that are correlated to learner achievement. It might be a daunting task for districts at this point for our district to take such an initiative as they are dependent mostly on the instructions provided by the provincial department. However, should such opportunity be presented to district offices in the province, it would make a big difference in the quest for

quality education for all by finding ways to support their principals – by aligning training to job responsibilities, by providing support and freeing up principals to attend to important leadership practices, by making clear and logical distinctions between the responsibilities of the district and the job of the principal, and by ensuring that principals have the resources necessary to get their jobs done – districts will be well on their way to helping principals focus on their most pressing task: helping all learners reach high standards.

2.4 THE ROLE OF EDUCATORS

The role of educators in the implementation and monitoring of policy also requires consideration. Their role as educators has changed considerably within the new system of education, which has led to some confusion. Educators are also expected to play a role in policy, which needs clear clarification and must go beyond vision and platitudes. For example, comments such as 'Educators should be involved in all levels of decision making' are counterproductive and insulting if there is no system for them to participate in.

There is also a need on the part of policy makers to understand the beliefs and motivations of educators in their employ and to understand the context in which they work. This includes the nature of training they receive and their understanding of the overall policy intentions of the education department. Once policy is implemented, the responses of educators need to be understood (Karavas-Doukas 1998). It is possible that new policies may be in conflict with some of the initial training that educators received. This difference is particularly apparent in what are considered to be the core tasks and motivation that an educator takes into the classroom (Kiely 1998).

Joyner (2000) also raises the point that it is difficult to demand a lot from educators if they are not given support during implementation. This support needs to be provided by both the DoE and the unions, especially in periods of significant change. This requires an understanding of what policy changes

actually mean in reality for the educator on the ground, especially when there are a number of changes being effected simultaneously.

The identity of educators needs to be taken into account when considering introducing new policy. Jansen (2004a) identifies the educator's professional, emotional and political bases of identity as central. These shaped by experiences of life outside the realm of policy and need to be aligned with new policies that are introduced. From October Household Survey (OHS) data, Crouch and Lewin (2004) identified the following factors as part of the professional identity of educators:

- Educators comprise 20-25% more females than the rest of the labour force.
- Educators work fewer hours per week than the rest of the labour force.
- Educators earn a higher income, even when years of education are taken into account. This increases when based on hourly rates. Over time these differences even out.
- Educators are more educated.
- Educators are being unionised at a faster rate.
- The average age of educators is increasing.
- The proportion of white educators is increasing while in the rest of the labour force this proportion is decreasing.

Training of educators has changed considerably over times. New models have been developed, colleges of education have closed down, many educators have been retrenched, and under-trained educators have been brought back to educational institutions for further training. This draws considerable energy away from the implementation of other policies (Parker 2004).

McDonnell and Elmore (1987) identified four approaches that can be used to direct the implementation of policy in the context of the role of educators taking issues raised by educators into account. These include establishing

rules and regulations, use of conditional financial grants, investment in future capacity and removal of those blocking implementation from positions of authority. Regulations can be enforced by investigations, the reporting of officials and the embarrassment of those who are blocking implementation.

However, a better approach for ensuring the adequate fulfilment of policy is usually to skill educators and administrators and resourcing the context. Stout (1996) recommends motivating educators to participate by offering salary increases, encouraging participation in the development and implementation of policy, and linking participation to career development which could contribute to their classroom technique or to their teaching context.

The authority of policy documents differs. There are legislations which are promulgated by parliament, regulations and policy documents. The Constitution is the supreme law of the Republic; law or conduct inconsistent with it is invalid and the obligation imposed by it must be fulfilled. Second in seniority are the Acts (such as the South African School Act), SASA and other education related Acts are promulgated by parliament and are enforceable and must be adhered to and implemented verbatim. Other policy documents and circulars provide guidelines on operational matters.

In the communication of policies it is not the content of the policy that needs to be made known, but the intention and substance of policy. This allows for a better appreciation of the role and function of the policy and its place within the education system. A formal and fairly detailed approach is required to keep all the stakeholders on board.

Darling –Hammond (2000) summarises this issue well as follows:

In devising new policies for educational change, policy makers need to understand that policy is not so much implemented as it is re-invented at each level of the system. What ultimately happens in schools and classrooms is less related to the intentions of policy makers than it is to knowledge, beliefs,

resources, leadership and motivations that operate in local context (Darling-Hammond 2000).

Therefore to ensure that the aims of policy are realised it is insufficient to just write the policy. The policies makers need to consider what changes need to be effected in the education system as well as the support role that each level – from the provincial offices to the educators in the classroom – needs to play in adding value to the successful implementation of the given policy. This support needs to include changes in structures within the education system, further education and training for the educators, implementing the more difficult tasks in the policy (Manganyi 2001).

In the words of Darling-Hammond (2000) policy makers who want educators to succeed at new kinds of teaching must understand that the process of change requires time and opportunities for educators to reconstruct their practices through intensive study and experimentation.

A number of writers have raised particular criticism of the policy and the development process drawing on a political analysis. De Clercq (2002) is critical of the overly political bias that she feels exists in the appointment of officials, especially as many do not have the bureaucratic experience and skills necessary for their post. This limits both the development of policy and communication through the system. Steele (2004) argues that one of the problems experienced in the implementation of the new policy for the training of educators is that many of the deliverers of educator education are not drawn into the transformation process. He is concerned about the confusion between paradigms that are currently in play and apparent contradictions between policies introduced at different times, particularly in relation to the development of educators.

A concern is that many policy developers assume that most of the educators are political activists wanting to change the society and working hard within the system to develop new and better teaching and learning approaches. While this may apply to some educators, it is difficult to assume as a

generalised position (Fullan, 1985). Even when educators were in the highly politicised environment of the apartheid struggle, there were in fact few changes to educational systems and pedagogic approaches (Jansen, 2004a).

De Clercq (1997) further argues that the relationship between policy formulation and implementation, policy and practice, has been the subject of much debate in the literature. Policy is often presented as a process made up of four distinct stages which follow a logical sequential order: Policy initiation, formulation, implementation and evaluation. More specifically, policy formulation and implementation are conceptualized as two distinct and separate activities that have to be studied in their own right. It is argued that policy formulation is the responsibility of the politicians and their representative institutions and that policy implementation is the rational, technical, administrative activity of a politically neutral bureaucracy whose actions are directed at the achievement of the policy objectives or directives of the politicians.

According to de Clercq (1997) the assumption of this perspective is that the translation of policy into action is an unproblematic and smooth process which requires strong controls to ensure that the bureaucracy executes faithfully the directives of their political bosses. When a discrepancy develops between intended policies and implemented policies, it is attributed to the lack of institutional and resourcing capacities of the state bureaucrats or the inadequate control systems over the bureaucrats.

2.5 EFFECTIVENESS, EFFICIENCY AND JOB SATISFACTION

The ensuing discussion looks at what needs to happen in order for educators to perform to the best of their ability. Policies might be there but it would also need best management strategies that will inspire and motivate subordinates to have those policies effectively implemented.

Coetsee (2001) argues that managers, especially those with a strong autocratic approach, succeed in getting their ‘subordinates’ (because this kind

of manager often treats his people as subordinates and not as team members) to do things. They achieve this by planning the work of subordinates, by controlling and directing them and by rewarding or punishing them. This kind of manager usually uses his positional power (he pulls rank) to get his subordinates to do things. This can lead to efficiency, because efficiency means to do things. This is the practice of many officials and principals in the district.

Many managers see productivity as doing more in less time, or as increasing production (output) with less waste (breakages, stoppages, waste products). Productivity not focused on goals can at the most be regarded as being inefficient.

The key to management success is not to get subordinates to do things but to create and structure an environment (a school) in which team members want to do right things right. This can be described as the long-short route and that is effectiveness. Effectiveness is not only to do things right – but it is to want to do the right things right. The long-short route implies empowering your team members to want to do the things that have to be done and to do them correctly. This route, the peak performance route, is characterised by an orientation towards longer term goals, shared values, quality and service. The focus is on what is important and not on what is urgent.

Coetsee (2001) further argues that organisational effectiveness or peak performance is the ability of an organisation to:

- adapt to present and future internal and external demands, expectations and constraints;
- inspire actions and create outcomes which satisfy stakeholders (clients, shareholders, owners, employees);
- realise the vision, and
- survive

The internal and external demands and expectations referred to above include the following factors:

Internal (factors within the organisation)

- Quality of manager-leadership;
- Knowledge, skills, commitment of employees;
- Corporate climate and culture
- Processes, structures and technology.

External (factors outside the organisation)

- The economical, socio-political and technological environment;
- Competition;
- Stakeholders, shareholders
- Customers

From the discussion on the difference between effectiveness and efficiency it is clear that motivation − that is to lead people in such a way that they want to do the correct things and keep on doing them − is a key activity of management and supervisory work and is also a prerequisite for being a successful manager-leader. This can be achieved by applying motivational principles to create and maintain a motivating climate.

The effective application of motivation principles makes a motivating climate possible, which then results in making your team members, your organisation and yourself far more successful.

It is often stated in review of policy in South Africa, especially in relation to the education sector, that the policies themselves are wonderful and are intended to provide an excellent, equitable educational service. However, there are problems with the implementation and provision of resources and the DoE has been heavily criticised in this regard (Jansen 2004a; Sayed & Jansen, 2001). While this is a useful general statement and provides the focus for efforts in the immediate future, it belies some of the complexities within the context and the processes underway.

Motala (2001) is critical about many of the current critiques of policy, noting that they do not take structural constrains into account, are restricted to observable and quantifiable measures and do not address process, do not recognise conflicts within the system around policy and are too narrow in their identification of solutions. To develop a better understanding of the current context requires an understanding of policy and the situation that South Africa has found itself in over the last decade. The area of policy review is becoming increasingly essential with a number of references appearing recently and many people working actively in the area.

Policies serve different purposes and are constructed for different reasons. There are distinct linkages between the policies. Some are more detailed strategic plans for the implementation of higher level policy initiative. (See Table 1 below)

To provide order and facilitate an understanding, the "policies" will be divided into a number of categories in terms of their role, status and the nature of their linkage to other policies.

Table 1: Types of policy documents

TYPES OF POLICY	POLICIES IN THIS CATEGORY
Acts are designed to guide and facilitate the running of the education system and establish the policy framework for the DoE. These can be divided further into those that take a more visionary and idealistic approach, practical targets for future, and others that take a more practical approach and implement processes to attain these goals. Within these policies will be immediate-term objectives to sustain and maintain the system, and longer-across all	Constitution of the Republic of South Africa Act 108 of 1996 National Education Policy Act 27 of 1996 South African Schools Act 84 of 1996 Employment of Educators Act 76 of 1998 Skills Development Act 97

schools in South Africa.	of 1998 South African Qualification Authority Act 58 of 1995
Regulations set precise methods for how certain tasks should be done, what minimum standards are required in terms of education and safety in schools, and guide the immediate maintenance of the school.	Terms and Conditions of Employment of Educators; Personnel Administrative Measures at Schools; Regulations for Safety Measures.
The norms and standards for educators are defined in their policy that provides direct guidance as to what is expected of educators in their roles.	The norms and standards for Educators

2.6 DESCRIPTION OF POLICIES RELATED TO EDUCATION

The Constitution of the Republic of South Africa Act 108 of 1996 is the supreme law of the country and all other legislation and policy documents: (i) emanate from and (ii) are subject to its stipulations. Chapter 2, the Bill of Rights, is of cardinal importance to schools. This chapter emphasises the importance of democracy and its contents should at all times be taken into account when formulating and implementing school policies, systems and structures. The rights of the individual are particularly important, since these rights also apply to learners. It is also important for the school leadership to have a good understanding of constitutional values such as democracy, equality, efficiency, accountability, transparency, fairness, integrity and respect for the rule of law.

The National Education Policy Act allows the National Minister of Education to promulgate policy pertaining to educational issues such as facilities, finance and development plans. It also establishes the minimum hours per day, and

the minimum day per year, during which education must be provided at schools. The act covers the management and governance of schools as well as the Norms and Standards of School Funding.

The South African Schools Act promotes access, quality and democratic governance in the schooling system. It makes schooling compulsory for children aged seven to fifteen, or learners reaching the ninth grade, whichever occurs first. It also provides for two types of school – independent schools and public schools.

The South African Qualifications Authority Act serves to promote, enable and manage a common system for assuring quality, as well as a common framework of qualifications, in all educational and training programmes in South Africa.

The Skills Development Act encourages employers to participate actively in skills development; to use the workplace as an active learning environment; to provide employees with opportunities to acquire new skills; and to provide opportunities for new entrants into the labour market so that they may gain work experience.

The Public Finance Management Act regulates the financial management of public institutions (excluding schools), with special emphasis on the accountability of the accounting authority. It sets the duties and responsibilities relating to budgets and budgetary control, reports and reporting, as well as assets and liabilities.

2.7 COMPONENTS OF THE EDUCATION SECTOR

The Constitution has vested substantial power in the provincial legislatures and governments to run educational affairs, subject to a national policy framework. The national department of education is responsible for

formulating policy, setting norms and standards, and monitoring and evaluating all levels of education.

The national department shares a concurrent role with the provincial departments of education for school education, Abet, Early Childhood Development (ECD) and FET colleges. The South African Schools Act of 1996 further devolves responsibility to school level by delegating the governance of public schools to democratically elected school-governing bodies (SGBs) consisting of parents, educators, non-educator staff and (secondary school) learners.

Relations with provincial departments of education are guided by national policy, within which the provincial departments have to set their own priorities and implementation programmes. The National Education Policy Act, 1996 formalised relations between national and provincial authorities and established the Council of Education Ministers (CEM) and the Heads of Education Departments Committee (Hedcom) as intergovernmental to collaborate in developing the education system.

The role of the national department is to translate the education and training policies of government and the provisions of the Constitution into a national education policy and legislative framework.

The department must ensure that:

- All levels of the system adhere to these policies and laws.
- Mechanisms are in place to monitor and enhance quality in the system.
- The system is on par with international developments.

The core activities of the department are to:

- Provide research and policy review
- Provide planning and policy development
- Provide support to the provinces and HE institutions in their implementation of national policy, norms and standards

- Monitor the implementation of policy, norms and standards to assess their impact on the quality of the educational process, and identify policy gaps.

The department of education has six branches:

- Administration
- Systems Planning
- Quality promotion and development
- GET
- FET
- HE

Administration

This branch provides for policy formulation and sound financial management of the Department.

Systems Planning

The Systems Planning Branch provides strategic direction in the development, implementation and monitoring of education policies, programmes and projects.

Quality Promotion and Development

The Quality Promotion and Development Branch provide strategic direction for the development of policies and education programmes to ensure continuous improvement in the quality of learning.

General Education and Training

The GET Branch provides leadership through the management and evaluation of programmes for ECD, school education, learners with special

needs, education management and governance programmes, district development and education human resources. Key priorities of the branch include expanding programmes; providing Grade R to all children; further developing a truly inclusive system of education, including the consolidation of special schools, ensuring that there are no under qualified educators; co-ordinating the implementation and provision of education to children up to the age of four; and successfully implementing the Revised National Curriculum Statement (RNCS)

The department must also develop the capacity of district managers to support and ensure quality teaching and learning in schools through its district development programme.

Through this branch the department further aims to remove all barriers to learning so that children with special needs, including the most vulnerable, are able to participate fully.

Further Education and Training

The FET Branch is responsible for the development of policy for Grades 10 to 12 in public and independent schools, as well as in public and private FET colleges. It oversees the integrity of assessment in schools and colleges and offers an academic curriculum as well as a range of vocational subjects. FET colleges cater for out-of-school youths and adults.

The branch also oversees co-ordinates and monitors the system's response to improved learner participation and performance in Mathematics, Science and Technology (MST). It devises strategies aimed at the use of information and communication technology (ICT) and supports curriculum implementation through the national educational portal called Thutong.

Higher Education

HE is central to the social, cultural and economic development of modern societies. The HE Branch provides strategic direction and institutional support for the development of a single co-ordinated system.

There is an attempt by the DoE to integrate all the different levels so that the department is seen as a single unit. However, there are variations, with core policy being developed at the national level, and the provincial and district offices interpreting and implementing these policies (http://www.info.gov.za/aboutsa/education.htm)

2.8 ISSUES FOR IMPLEMENTATION

There is also a constant message in the literature that policy does not directly translate into practice on the ground (Jansen, 2004b). This is the role of implementation, which also requires extensive development as a process. At the same time policy is important as it guides what people are expected to do and how resources are to be allocated (Lewin, Sayed & Samuel, 2004b). However, the introduction of new policy takes time and often has to coexist with existing practices. This combination of foci is often the key to the confusion and difficulty that comes with implementation of new policy (Lewin et al, 2004b).

In preparing a policy and structure for implementation there are a number of factors that need to be in place. Schwahn and Spady (1998) argue that there are five elements necessary to ensure policy implementation:

- Purpose – a clear and compelling purpose for the desired change.
- Vision – a concrete and inspiring vision of the desired change in ideal form.
- Ownership – strong ownership for the desired change among those affected by it.

- Capacity – broad capacity and skills for implementing the desired change.
- Support – tangible organisational support for making the desired change happen.

Joyner (2000) points out those policy makers need to be aware that often, for a policy to work, there need to be changes at all levels in the system. Otherwise blocks to the implementation will emerge. In an ideal situation, for a policy to be implemented at a systemic level, the following eight contextual elements need to be considered: (1) leadership; (2) political stability; (3) expected levels of co-operation; (4) knowledge of the reform; (5) understanding of processes and relationships; (6) ability and willingness to support the change; (7) overall administration capacity; and (8) fiscal capacity (Joyner 2000). Capacity and motivation at a local level are also essential for implementation. This needs to be led and inspired from a national level.

Many policy analysts have attributed the poor policy implementation and service delivery in schools to the lack of departmental capacity and resources, which puts severe limits on capacity to make adaptations at all levels of the department and schools. Educational bureaucrats have pointed out the problems of policy overload, unfunded mandates, lack of policy prioritisation and strategic planning as well as severe inherited backlogs, inadequate provincial resources and managerial capacity (De Clercq, 2002). This requires a different kind of consideration to the political problems of implementation, as providing the wherewithal can solve the problem of insufficient resources (Gallie 2004).

Sayed and Jansen (2001) raise a number of problems that can occur with implementation. Firstly, there are differences between policy ideas and classroom realities undermining policy right at the formulation stage, so issues of context are inadequately dealt with. This creates particular concerns when policy ideas are imported from other contexts. In addition assumptions of a direct connection between policy intentions, practice and effects mean that policy is not evaluated at all phases and the unexpected situation may not meet the conditions for institutional change. Finally, the authors have realised

that some of the problems may lie with senior bureaucrats in the DoE who are familiar with policy debate, but less well-versed in systems management.

An alternative perspective is that both capacities are required for a readiness for change. This has to be planned strategically and pre-implementation work must be done before the introduction of policy (Welton, 2001). Part of the pre-implementation planning has to be the setting of timelines and short-term objectives. This provides clear indications of progress in the implementation process. The sheer size and complexity of the education sector means that a considerable amount of inertia also has to be overcome in changing the policy environment, especially in South Africa where fundamental changes are being considered.

Once the documents are complete the policy makers are at the mercy of those implementing the policy. A core issue in implementation of policy is the influence of the people in the provincial and district offices, and ultimately in the schools and communities, that have the task of making the policy reality. These individuals and institutions are going to be maintaining their own interests and protecting themselves during the implementation or lack of implementation of policy. Enormous power to block or reinterpret what comes to them lies with those who are implementing policy (Jansen, 2001).

Policy development and implementation are also dependent on a wide web of other policies and legislation, including those outside the DoE, such as the Child Care Act, the Constitution, the Bill of Rights, and the Occupational Health and Safety Act (Parker 2004).

Soudien, Jaclin, and Hoadley (2001) have identified a number of key continuities and discontinuities between policy formulation and implementation. These include ideology in which social equality is key, finance and economics which decide on resource allocation, and politics which include battles over ideas, especially around the pace and nature of social reconstruction. Even if policy is drawn up to respond to particular ideological positions and set of resources that is defined in the national office, the reality

of the context in the district where it is being implemented, and the set of activities and people that influence this process, mean that policy implementation may not, and will in fact often not, reflect the original intention.

McLaughlin (1987) on the other hand problematises the implementation process in order to explain the inevitable gap that develops between intended and actual policies. For him, implementation is not about automatic transmission but is a process of bargaining and negotiation between the various local and national actors. According to him the implementing bureaucrats will always put their own interpretations and meanings to the intended policies and, in the process, will use their power or discretion to subvert or transform the original goals of the policy makers. Recognising the power of the implementers, the new generation of policy implementation analysts argue that effective policy making should reckon with and anticipate implementation problems in order to strategize accordingly and influence or constrain the agents of the implementation process (Gunn and Hogwood 1982, Sabatier & Mazmanian 1979).

De Clercq (1997) argues that the ability of policy makers to have decisive control over the organisational, social and political processes that affect implementation can never be sufficiently close or rooted in the dynamics on the ground to produce anything but vague, ambiguous recommendations which are in conflict with one another. It could be argued that symbolic or substantive policies are not meant to engage with implementation issues. However, the result is very problematic and confusing for the implementers as they are left with difficult choices and decisions.

Elmor (1980) as cited by De Clercg (1997) believes that the best way to approach policy implementation is through the backward mapping approach which he defines as:

…backward reasoning from the individual and organisational choices that are the hub of the problem to which the policy is addressed, to the rules, procedures and structures that have the closest proximity to those choices, to

the policy instruments available to affect those things, and hence to feasible policy objectives (1980:1).

Backward mapping starts with the lowest level of the implementation process in order to generate a policy and establish a policy target at that level. It will then back up through the structure of the implementing agencies and be directed by two questions: what is the ability of this unit to affect the behaviour that is the target of the policy? What resources does the unit require to affect this behaviour? In other words, this approach advocates a decentralisation of power and a maximisation of discretion at the lowest point of the implementation process because it believes that the closer one is to the source of the problem, the greater one's ability to influence it.

2.9 STRUCTURES FOR MONITORING AND EVALUATION

The complexities and need for ongoing information during implementation of policy make accurate and holistic evaluation essential. Evaluation has to be continuous and has to begin before the implementation of the policy begins. This allows for continuous feedback and for the original intentions of the policy to be continuously evaluated against the reality of events on the ground. Rapid feedback can also allow for the early detection of problems arising from issues such as lack of information, inadequate resources and the misinterpretation of policy or direct attempts to block its introduction.

Thus far evaluation of policy has not been done systematically within the education sector in South Africa. Review committees have been set up to evaluate some policies after four or five years of implementation (Jansen, 2002). The role and functioning of these review committees needs further understanding but a more systematic process is required if a policy and its implementation are to be adequately evaluated.

Scheerens (2000) makes a key point that policy needs to be evaluated against its specific intentions and aims. This allows for a more accurate

understanding of policy. However, the general impact of policy should still be evaluated as there may be unexpected effects and impacts that also need to be considered, including the context in which implementation is taking place, who is doing the implementation, the issues emphasised in the policy and where the policy is seen as having its impact.

Crouch (1998) identifies three areas of monitoring and evaluation:

- Preventive, i.e. routine use of monitoring: for example, keeping track of dropout and repeater rates to yield a general impression of quality in terms of school retaining its learners and enabling them to progress in their learning.
- Diagnostic use to illuminate identified trends or problems: for instance analysing learners' test answers to identify domains of subjects where educators' content knowledge and/or pedagogic practices need to be strengthened.
- Corrective use to follow up on specific problems: for example, conducting a comprehensive audit of financial management in a school as a basis for disciplinary action.

The monitoring and evaluation approach requires the use of a range of methodologies. Dominantly these would include indicators that comprise quantitative measures taken regularly; qualitative data comprising largely descriptive data including interviews; analysis of documentation, particularly reports and minutes; cross-sectional surveys (which can be kept small) and directed evaluations of specific programmes, resources or events.

2.10 CONCLUSION

The preceding chapter discusses the literature on the phenomenon under study. Some of the salient points which were argued in the review are that it is difficult to demand much from educators if they are not given support during implementation. This support needs to be provided mainly by the DoE through

their district offices, especially in periods of significant change. This requires an understanding of what policy changes actually mean in reality for the educator on the ground, especially when there are a number of changes being effected simultaneously. It is also argued that it is not always the content of the policy that needs to be made known, but the intention and substance of policy. This will allow for a better appreciation of the role and function of the policy and its place within the education system.

A formal and fairly detailed approach is required to keep all the stakeholders on board. It has also been found that policy makers need to understand the beliefs and motivations of educators in their employ and to understand the context in which they work. This includes the nature of training they receive and their understanding of the overall policy intentions of the education department. The identity of educators needs to be taken into account when considering introducing new policy, (Jansen, 2004a).

During the review it was discovered that much has been written on policy and its, purpose both internationally and locally. Although the local literature is substantial, it is lacking in the implementation and monitoring strategies that will make these policies effective in the teaching and learning process at our schools. This policy gap in implementation and monitoring of education policies in schools will be explored in the study to find ways that could improve teaching and learning in the schools within the Moretele district.