

CHAPTER THREE

3. EMPOWERMENT AND CAPACITY BUILDING AS A MEANS TO RETAIN TEACHERS IN THE CLASSROOM

3.1 INTRODUCTION

The current emphasis on competencies might be seen as creating a technology of management and leadership as well as teaching with the balance of opinion moving towards specific components of the role which can be defined, assessed or measured. There is no doubt that managers need knowledge (or access to knowledge) and a range of skills in order to be effective (or remain in the classroom). When contextualising this emphasis on technical competency, it becomes evident that technology translates into personal values, self-awareness, emotional and moral capability. This is to argue that teaching requires technical competency (Davies & Ellison, 1997:141). In terms of Marais in Garbers (1996:83) the technology of teaching denotes the application of knowledge for practical purposes through particular methods and approaches to develop and provide commodities for the convenience of society. A crucial fact emerging from this supposition is that teaching technology should satisfy the needs of the society in keeping with (economic) market forces.

Therefore, teaching would entail a kind of philosophical withdrawal from traditional perspective into a fresh perspective which is skills-based or competency-based. As such there is a need for better or quality teachers. This calls for ways to unleash creativity and innovation to enable individuals to make a full and effective contribution in schools (Morgan in Riches & Morgan, 1989:32). There are basic questions which can be asked as to how do we organise our institutions to face change? How do we harness individual innovation and creativity into broad needs of the organisation? How can managers make innovation the lifeblood of their organisations, and how to promote the ability to learn and change on a continuous basis? Answers to these questions points to different factors the total sum of which is empowerment. The imperative of empowerment addresses several issues such as harnessing parental

contributions for effective public schooling, creating and developing high performance teams, utilising staff development and performance management.

These programmes should be translated into action. Proper implementation of the above programmes depends on the ability of persons involved to correctly carry out assigned tasks with efficiency. This reiterates the need for technical competency which implies the need for specific skills, aptitudes and knowledge. Where technical knowledge is lacking capacity building programmes should be introduced. It is thus, the brief of this project to outline the relevancy of empowerment and capacity building in the retention of teachers in the classroom. The purpose of this chapter is to identify objectives and assumptions to empowerment, to describe the logic of empowerment, aspects and programmes that are associated with empowerment. Furthermore, the researcher shall probe the imperative of capacity building. Issues that comes to the fore in the investigation includes the legacy of apartheid, objectives, programmes and approaches to capacity building. The ultimate aim will be to outline not only the relevancy of empowerment and capacity building to the retention of teachers, but also the impact of both imperatives on improvement of quality education, and finally establish how empowerment and capacity building are complementary to recognition of competence.

3.2 EMPOWERMENT

3.2.1 Aims and perspectives of empowerment

The notion of empowerment, as it was defined in Chapter 1, is founded on enablement and transfer of power and control – which is essentially the prime aim of empowerment in education. These aims are not diametrically divorced from each other. Hence Jack (1995:1) is of the opinion that empowerment aims at authorisation, licensing or make able a process whereby someone uses his or her power to enable someone to do something; what that something is – its nature, goals and extent is controlled by the enabler. Thus the process of enablement is circumscribed by the power of the enabler and does not involve giving power over that process to the enabled.

In contrast, empowerment can be described as the process by which individuals, groups and/or the entire workforce become able to take control of their circumstances and achieve their own goals, thereby being able to work towards maximising the quality of their output. Here the emphasis is on power being transferred, devaluated, decentralised and delegated (Maile, 1998:80) to support teachers' commitment to quality classroom practice. The process of empowerment should be equated to lifelong process of personal and professional development. Ultimately, the aim of empowerment is to rekindle the love of learning and the love of teaching; to ignite the process of teachers becoming learners and our learners bringing their own knowledge and experiences actively into the classroom and the school. This is part of rebuilding the culture of teaching and learning (Davidoff & Lazarus, 1997:XVI).

Empowerment is a process which has no end. Teachers don't stop learning to become good (and excellent) teachers once they have received their initial training. This is possible when teachers have control of resources at school and have the ability to mediate the flow of resources (Richmond & McCroskey, 1992:2). It means that teachers should have authority and influence in the way schools are managed. According to Jacobson & Conway (1990:61) the notion of giving power to teachers is derived from:

- (i) The psychological factor – whereby power is derived from the kind of self-respect that comes from being respected and from being a competent and effective person;
- (ii) The social-political factor – which embodies holding office as a teacher, from the nature of one's relations with others as they are shaped by that office, from awareness of the socio-political environment and thinking critically about it; and
- (iii) The instrumental factor – whereby power is derived from one's capacity to extend a positive influence from self to the larger context of other individuals, one's institution and the entire education system.

In consideration of these dispositions, it is necessary to address the fear of school managers who feel threatened when power and influence are transferred to teachers. The perception created is that they (school managers) no longer have power – which is wrong in terms of the perspectives purported in empowerment. This view is held by Kotter (1979:5) who posits that:

"Ambivalent attitudes toward power, together with the lack of useful information about power and management, breed both naïve and cynical beliefs about what effective and successful managers do".

These beliefs can be very costly in both career problems and organisational problems. For instance, people who are successful early in their management careers sometimes fail to continue to grow into positions of greater management responsibility because of a lack of appreciation for, or skill at, power-oriented behaviour. Therefore, it is crucial to note that the argument is not that skills on power are all that is necessary for success in management, nor that power is always good when given to teachers. The point to be driven home is that to what extent is a manager able to perceive teacher's power as the extension of his or hers? To answer this question there is a need to reassure the school manager that his or her power to control and manage empowered teachers is borne out of:

- (i) Charisma – when teachers believe that the manager's special characteristics qualify him or her to lead and act on their behalf;
- (ii) Tradition – when people have respect for customs and patterns of behaviour, and grant authority to those who symbolise these traditions and values; and
- (iii) The rule of law – when people believe the proper exercise of power is a function of adherence to procedure and the following of rules (Richmond & McCroskey, 1992:4).

The presence of one or more of these conditions is found teachers grant social approval necessary to stabilise power relations. That is, they recognise that someone has the right to rule and they consider it their duty to obey. Thus, the school manager, whose power is manifested in the following ways

- power of reward;
- power of force;
- lawful power;
- power of reference;
- power of competence; and
- expert power (Van der Westhuizen, 1991:172; Richmond & McCroskey, 1992:5).

is able to perform managerial functions at the peak. And his or her performance and influence is a reality as a result of

- (i) compliance – when teachers follow him or her;
- (ii) identification – when the principal's behaviour resonates with the 'feel' of the institution; and
- (iii) internalisation – when one accepts influence because the induced behaviour is consistent with her or his value system.

Thus, such power is actualised through the modes of persuasion and inducement, and is founded on resources available, technical skills, a body of knowledge, legal prerogatives and access. The conclusion that can be drawn from this debate is that empowerment is a complex process which requires collective efforts at understanding its aims and perspectives. Empowerment of teachers is perceived to have value in restoring the culture of teaching and learning. Hence more resources must be invested in it. In this way, the aim of empowerment can be defined as having individual and social benefits (Claassen, 1995, in Botha, 1998:65). The individual teacher benefits of empowerment can be discerned through the development of the teacher's personality, his or her critical insight and by providing a person with appropriate skills from which he or she can perform at his or her peak and earn a living.

Social educational benefits are varied. Drucker in Riches & Morgan (1989:25) summarise them as the need for better educators who are businesslike, results-oriented, effective and efficient. And it is in the interest of the economy that teachers are empowered. In the same vein, Bock (1994:78) posits that empowerment

..... is called upon to alleviate poverty, to serve as the vanguard in directing social and economic change, and as the means of individual improvement. Particularly in new nations that are attempting to merge diverse and often competing ethnic and tribal groups into a unified nation, empowerment is charged with providing the young with competencies required for productive participation in the modernising economy; with mobilising previously parochial populations to purposiveness; and with reforming the inequities of distribution by levelling the presently affluent and highly educated while elevating the powerless.

From this quotations it can be deduced that empowerment, with the aim of allocating social benefits, has to do with education as a social agency, cultural mediator and constitutive activity (Mehan, 1992:1). Empowerment in education as a social agency aims at stabilising relations between home and school. As a cultural mediator it entails that education aims at creation of harmonious relation between different cultural groups so that groups should learn to co-exist. And finally as a constitutive activity it means that schools should be characterised by a vibrant life whereby their (schools) processes and practices respond to competing demands that often unwittingly contribute to inequality.

Empowerment makes it possible for teachers to exercise power and have more control over their professional lives. That means having a greater voice in institutions, agencies and situations which affect them. It also means being able to share power or exercise power over someone else, as well as them exercising it over you. As such, empowerment designates partnership or involvement. In this project, empowerment is unfolded in programmes which develop from a particular paradigm and perspectives which underlie the empowerment logic. It is evident that empowerment is central to teacher support, education, training and development (Mda in Pretorius & Lemmer, 1998:78). Furthermore, empowerment is critical to the country's response to globalisation (Claasen in

Pretorius & Lemmer, 1998:119). Classrooms are not islands. Teachers cannot simply teach what and how they like, oblivious to outside influences. What happens outside the classroom strongly influences what happens inside the classroom. This is described by Saddler in Dekker & Van Schalkwyk (1989:307) as follows:

"The things outside the school matter more than the things inside the school".

Outside influence is enormous in education, and brought changes on traditional education. Changes brought by globalisation include:

- Curriculum changes;
- Introduction of multiculturalism;
- Technological education; and
- The changing face of the workplace.

The aims and perspectives outlined above are rooted on the following assumptions of empowerment.

- (i) Organisations use only a fraction of the mental resources represented in their people.
- (ii) Control is not the only or the best way to achieve organisational goals and it is an impossible way to achieve superior performance and continuous improvement.
- (iii) Individuals grow better in teams, partnerships and networks.
- (iv) Individuals and teams will perform more effectively and efficiently when they are given the chance to exercise maximum control over their work.
- (v) Competence is not the private preserve of a few experts. Competence is widely diffused in an organisation at all levels.
- (vi) People have greater personal ownership and demonstrate greater responsibility for that over which they have influence and which they experience 'as theirs' (Kinlaw 1995:2-3).

Finally, it can be concluded that empowerment is carried out so that more work can be accomplished. Everyone and every team exert competent influence to some degree. Thus, empowerment harnesses the already existing process to help organisations to compete and survive. This is possible because competent influence is developed and deployed in areas where it is critically needed. It involves the distribution of power to individuals or groups. New competencies are unlocked and applied across the entire range of tasks and processes. Empowerment is a direct response to transformation. It makes change more meaningful because change processes are undertaken proactively by those directly involved.

3.2.2 Objectives

The aims of empowerment outlined above are general statements that designate the intention of educational managers. In the section the general statements are clearly reflected in the following objectives:

- (i) To define and describe change in terms of transformation;
- (ii) To analyse the paradigm shift that impact on education;
- (iii) To describe programmes that help define competent influence in organisations; and
- (iv) To present mental dispositions that describe the model of empowerment for the retention of excellent teachers.

These objectives are explicitly discernible in concepts such as teacher involvement, collaboration, joint-decision making, increased teacher autonomy and professionalism, participative management, development programmes, lifelong learning, devolution of power, site-based management, self-managing schools, etc. These concepts will be used very often in the ensuing discussion.

3.2.3 The empowerment logic

3.2.3.1 *Paradigm shift*

Managers in schools are faced with the challenge of operating in a rapidly changing world. In this world the globalisation in education systems has increased expectations that society has of its education system. Past uncertainties are replaced with new frameworks. Dynamic change has become the order of the day (Davies & Ellison, 1997:11). Therefore, the question is how do managers meet this challenge? How do they respond to economic expectations on education, society anticipation of technological advances and their appreciation to them. Answers to this questions invokes questions such as:

- what is a paradigm and a paradigm shift?
- why are paradigm shifts important?
- what are the barriers to new paradigms?
- What is the relationship between paradigm and change?
- are there any paradigm changes in education?

(a) Definition

The term paradigm has become increasingly popular among contemporary researchers in South Africa. Consequently, several writers have attempted to present a scientific exposition of the term paradigm. Among them, Kuhn in Arjun (1998:viii) defines paradigms as

"universally recognised scientific achievements that for a time provide model problems and solutions to a community of practitioners".

Arjun (1998:21) conceptualises paradigms as

"a philosophical scheme of thought or a theoretical formulation on a subject which relates to the set of concepts, categories, relationships, values and methods which are generally accepted by a community of practitioners at any given period of time".

The Department of Education, RSA (1997:6), after grappling with the need to effect changes in the education system so that it moves in the same pace and rhythm with the broader transformation, defines a paradigm as:

- a shared set of assumptions.
- a framework of thought.
- a game with a set of rules.
- a basic way of perceiving, thinking and doing – associates with a particular vision of reality.
- a set of rules and regulations that first define boundaries and tell you what to do to be successful within those boundaries.

The problem with this latter definitions is that they tend to adopt a loose usage of the term paradigm whereby almost anything began to be called a paradigm. This is accounted by usage of terms such as assumptions, game, perception, laws or rules. A paradigm cannot be everything or about everything. It has the following characteristics:

- It is constituted by the constellation of beliefs, values and techniques shared by members of a scientific community.
- It reflects our most basic beliefs and assumptions about the human condition (Arjun, 1998:21).

Therefore, a paradigm cannot be a game. Schools cannot be managed through games, although games are an aspect of education. Perhaps it is essential to distinguish between paradigms to unravel where games can fit as a paradigm. Basically there are two main types of paradigms:

- the dominant paradigm, in which researchers work from an orthodox ideological position, determining the identity of a discipline; and
- the emergent paradigm, which is established by non-orthodox researchers and which succeeds the dominant paradigm in a tradition shattering scientific revolution (Arjun, 1998:21).

Furthermore, there is a need to identify and distinguish the scope of paradigms.

The following is the scope of paradigms:

- Macro-paradigms: are worldviews. That is, they are applied globally by the scientific community.
- Meso-paradigms: Is an overarching frame of reference shared by the scientific community.
- Micro-paradigms: Are used when detailed solutions are required on a parochial scale (Arjun, 1998:21).

A paradigm shift refers to a move from one paradigm to another; from one way of looking at something to a new way. It means a move to a new mindset, a new attitude, a new way of thinking; a change to a new game with a new set of rules – when the rules change then part of our world changes (Department of Education, 1997:6).

(b) Why are paradigm shifts important?

Paradigm shifts are important because most significant changes are driven by a shift in paradigm. In our education system this shift is inevitable because there is a need for learning on global awareness; on helping the learner to recognise their responsibilities; and on opening up access while ensuring that people have access to quality (Department of Education, 1997:7).

(c) Barriers to new paradigms

Changing to a new paradigm would mean setting a new vision and adopting new approaches, models, theories, dispositions, hypothesis, basic assumptions and axioms. This would constitute a drift away from common practices. Consequently, a new way of thinking and doing things is critically needed, lest the benefits of the new paradigm may elude us. However, people tend to be comfortable with what they know and develop fears for the new and unknown (Department of Education, 1997:7). As such, there are a number of reasons which would be negative towards new paradigms. Sentiments such as —that's impossible, its radical, its not realistic, we've tried something like that before and it didn't work – are common.

In addition to these, the main reason why new paradigms are rejected is the psychological barrier. Anxiety becomes common. People are sceptic of their ability to succeed. Some would have fear of losing their power. People are peeved when their expertise are made irrelevant. These barriers are confirmed by Machiavelli (1552) in Day, Whitaker & Wren (1987:44) who says that:

"It must be considered that there is nothing more difficult to carry out, nothing more doubtful of success, nothing more dangerous to handle, than to institute a new order of things. For the reformer has enemies in all those who profit by the old order".

The anxiety mentioned above comes when people fear to be out-competed by their adversaries who may have laws in their favour. Some are incredulous to the new order and do not truly believe in anything new until they have actual experience of it.

(d) Relationship between paradigm and change

Change is initiated as a result of a shift to a new paradigm. When a new set of assumptions, basic beliefs, fundamental values, techniques, etc are accepted by scientific community, a new way of doing things emerge. Thus, paradigms guide people's actions and decisions. They provide a new focus, conceptual framework or way of seeing the world. As a result of a new way of seeing things being adopted, change is introduced. Therefore, change is based on a new set of assumptions, theories, hypotheses, axioms, laws and constellation of beliefs, values and techniques.

(e) New paradigm in education

A shift from a paradigm characterised by discrimination and inequalities of the past to a new paradigm is not only a necessity in ensuring that the education resonates with the broader transformation of the South African Society, but also epitomises the task of education managers in moving forward with changes despite the hindrances conspicuous. The rationale for moving to a new paradigm includes:

- Changing theories of language; learning and cognition.
- Recognition of prior experiential learning.
- Recognition of the achievements of learners with specialised educational needs.
- Transparency of the empowerment process and support of learning through agreed performance or assessment criteria.
- Acknowledgement of competence at every level.
- Flexible credit accumulation allowing portability and progression (Department of Education, 1996:30-31).

Central to a shift to a new paradigm in education is curriculum development initiatives. Curriculum policies are developed and changed in specific circumstances involving political and economic considerations. The curriculum of the former dispensation has been regarded as irrelevant and producing distorted

labour force. Coupled with the transverse challenges of globalisation it means that the knowledge and skills of teachers has to be massively upgraded.

The changes in the curriculum are guided by certain paradigms. The essential features of the new curriculum are outcomes-based learning, a model which focuses more on learning, acquisition of competencies and a contextualised curriculum (Arjun, 1998:24). Most of the details of the new curriculum have been dealt with in Chapter 2 of this project.

3.2.3.2 Empowerment and capacity building

There is a mutual relationship between empowerment and capacity building. Although the details of each concept are dealt with separately, we need to remember that one can seldom separate any element from another as they are intertwined in so many ways. It is therefore difficult to talk about any one element without referring to the other. So, while the separation of these elements in this discussion is done for the purposes of analysis, their interdependent nature must be kept in mind at all times. In particular, the dynamic relationship between development of individual educators and the reconstruction and development of institutions is a thread which runs through the entire analysis.

Empowerment and capacity building arise as a result of transformation, which involves every aspect of South African life. Major steps are being taken to transform the economy so as to promote growth with equity and justice. In each sphere there is a need to change, not simply the scale of provision and access to services, but the very nature of those services and the way they are conceptualised, resourced and delivered. Therefore, the task of transformation is greater than reconstructing the systems and structures which sustain any society. It requires a fundamental shift in attitudes, in the way people relate to each other and their environment, and in the way resources are deployed to achieve the society's goals (Department of Education, 1996:11). Thus, empowerment and capacity building are a means used to address the imperatives for change in education.

Education and educational institutions are empowered and capacitated in order to play a meaningful role in the transformation agenda. Both empowerment and capacity building have proportionate effect as catalyst for school improvement (Fullan, 1997:21). The search for "quality school", "school effectiveness", and school improvement invokes empowerment and capacity building whereby performance of educators, the institution and the system at large is placed under scrutiny with the purpose of establishing conditions of schooling, ethics and standards of the profession and reviewal of outcomes (Smith, 1997:137-139).

Empowerment and capacity building are employed to enable individual educators and institutions to meet challenges they face in their everyday practice, and to cope with changes that underpin the current initiatives at teacher development.

3.2.4 Empowerment programmes

3.2.4.1 *Site-based management (SBM)*

Developments in school autonomy has received little promotion and support from educational managers. As such, very little research was done in this aspect. Perhaps one can say that at the moment what is needed is a framework to examine whether any fundamental reengineering changes in school decision making practice have taken place. This section examines what is meant by site-based management or self-managing schools highlighted in the Department of Education (1997)'s National Norms and Standards for School Funding in terms OF The South African Schools Act, 1996. This document represent a shift in paradigm from a paradigm of centralised management of schools to a decentralised one whereby schools retain autonomous status.

(a) Definition

The concept of site-based management has been developed from corporate experience whereby schools are equated to small business which is autonomous to other business, responsible for its own financial system (Davies & Anderson, 1992:07). There are different, yet implying the same thing, terms used for SBM such as delegated school management, Local Management of Schools, school-based management, school-site management, autonomous schools, self-managing schools, etc.

(b) Background

Currently the South African education system is centralised. The Department of Education maintains control of large administrative and professional structures – which control and manage education policy, budget and operations. This means that schools are mainly responsible for curriculum implementation and classroom learning and teaching.

However, with the promulgation of the South African Schools Act, 1996 the pendulum is swinging towards decentralisation where decision-making powers are transferred at the ground where educational activities take place (Department of Education, 1998:1). This is what I referred to earlier as a shift in a paradigm of centralisation to the one which is largely decentralised. This often called self-managing schools (SMS) or site based management (SBM).

(c) SMS or SBM and change

SMS or SBM is a process which epitomises the broader changes taking place in the society. This process invokes fundamental changes which include:

- representation of a shift of decision-making power towards decentralisation;
- alteration of the governance of education;
- identification of the school as the primary unit of educational change; and
- and a move towards increased decision-making power to the local school.

(d) The essence of SBM

The essence of SBM is that:

- Educational problems are attributable more to the failure of the system of schooling than to the shortcomings of individual educators;
- Empowerment is a more effective tool than prescription;
- Bottom-up, school based solution strategies will lead to more satisfying results than will top-down mandated ones; and
- It changes the entire system of district and school organisation and restructures more roles in the district and head office (Department of Education, 1995:1).

(e) The rationale for SBM

Education is a shared responsibility. It means that all stakeholders must be accorded a certain measure of power in order to make the machinery of education moving. According to Potgieter et al (1997:9) schools are given power to manage themselves because "the State cannot do everything for the school". Parents, learners, teachers and other stakeholders cannot expect the State to give everything and do everything for the school. It is the responsibility of all stakeholders to see what the school really needs and what the problems in the school are. The other logic is that schools operate in different contexts, and thus, have different needs and unique problems. In this way, SBM allows local managers to address their local and unique needs and wants without restraints from the central managers.

The issue of SBM as a means to share responsibility is endorsed by the South African Schools Act, 1996 which accord the school governing bodies (SGBs) governance and management of schools. The SGBs are given powers to formulate and adopt policies which enable schools to function according to local circumstances but consistent with the Constitution of 1996. It is believed that if management of day-to-day education activities becomes the prerogative of local managers, school effectiveness will be increased (Van Wyk, 1998:21).

(f) Prerequisites for the effective SBM

- (i) Consideration of teacher's view and perception of the proposed change;
- (ii) Consensus on the objective of change;
- (iii) Taking individual differences into account;
- (iv) Sensitivity to past differences affecting change;
- (v) Careful implementation of change;
- (vi) Expecting resistance to change;
- (vii) Preventing misunderstanding when new ideas are introduced;
- (viii) Awareness of differences which may lead to conflict and resistance;
- (ix) Considering timing and time scheduling;
- (x) Mutual trust between the principal, parents, staff and other stakeholders;
and
- (xi) Following a specific strategy and framework (McLennan, 1997:49-50).

(g) SBM framework

Generally, the framework for site-based management revolves around governance and management. These are interwoven elements in the transformation that is aimed enabling schools to provide effective and efficient education. Governance is widely concerned with the formulation and adoption of policy; whereas management deals with actual day-to-day running of the school (Van Wyk, 1998:21). It will be simplistic and naïve to conclude that the framework is governance and management. There is a need to delineate the policy responsibilities of the principals. It means that there must be a structural framework indicating powers and limitations of the SGBs and the principals.

However, under normal circumstances and according to the provisions of the South African Schools Act, 1996 the SGB retains all powers currently held in relation to the educational policies of the school, including budgeting and school development planning. Structures can be created within the ambit of the SGB to plan and monitor

- Resources;
- Management;
- Curriculum;
- Educational environment; and
- Accountability (Department of Education, 1998:8).

On the other hand, the principal of the school, as the operational leader must assume responsibility for the implementation of the school policy and development plan. This would require of the principal to create working committees that would include teachers, parents, and learners in case of Further Education and Training (FET) institutions. These committees will include:

- School Finance Committee;
- Curriculum Committee;
- Student Welfare Committee;
- Supplies and Services Committee; and
- Professional Development Committee (Department of Education, 1998:2).

In order to forestall conflicts at schools, it is necessary that structures with interest in education be represented in these structures. However, this is not a precondition. Ultimately, SBM will have powers over

- Budgeting and expenditure;
- Finance;
- Administration;
- Personnel;
- Curriculum; and
- Parental involvement.

In conclusion, it can be mentioned that institutional autonomy is a precondition for empowerment and developing excellence in education. The rationale behind it is that better quality will be obtained when decisions are made by those who have to deliver the services and who, from a professional point of view, know best how

to respond in the most efficient way to the clients' demands. The reasons for a move to SBM are varied. However, it is crucial that when local authorities are given powers to determine their own policies, goals, standards, objectives and targets, they must focus on critical areas such as

- enrolment, attendance and retention;
- student achievement;
- school facilities;
- student discipline and health; and
- redress and equity issues (Shaeffer, 1997:223).

And finally, SBM must, if it is to survive and contribute to quality education, address questions such as: Whom do we teach? What do we teach? How do we teach? How much is it going to cost? (Baily, 1991:1). Otherwise the challenges of the twenty-first century may overwhelm us.

3.2.4.2 Empowering partnerships

(a) Nature and definition

Partnership is taken from the business whereby a number of people, who have a common goal, co-operate with one another by contributing something of value (for example, money, skills, etc) to a relationship with the aim of making a profit (Potgieter, et al, 1997:8). Simply put, partnership involves two or more individuals working collaboratively toward a desired outcome (Sujansky, 1991:3).

In education management the motive of profit in partnership is understood to be quality education for all. Therefore, partnership should be characterised by a collaborative, collegial mode of working together resulting in a win-win situation whereby the primary objective will be the transfer of power and decision-making to subjects so that they retain authority and autonomy in their sphere of operation (Maxcy, 1991:146). Power in this regard refers to the capability or potential to effect change. Research findings (Richmond & McCroskey, 1992:83) reveal that despite the notion of teachers being accorded power in their sphere of operation,

teachers still remain impotent as they use their capacity in affinity-seeking rather than exerting their power. Hence the entire culture of learning and teaching has deteriorated.

To overcome this problem, there is a need for partners to share common vision and mission, create a flexible working environment in which authority is shared, each person is challenged to do his or her best and earnest commitment to quality (Sujansky, 1991:3). Partnerships create a supportive organisational environment that benefits everyone. Such an environment ensures that all people, regardless of their levels in the organisation, have the following experiences:

- Understanding how their work fits into the big picture and being challenged to make significant contributions;
- Believing in the organisation and in its desire to produce the best services;
- Feeling recognised for their talents, experience and contributions;
- Knowing that making mistakes is part of the process of growing and innovating (empowerment);
- Seeing that success is celebrated and that rewards are given to those who earn them;
- Accepting workforce diversity as an advantage to the business; and
- Knowing that the quality of each employee's work life is to those who earn them;
- Accepting workforce diversity as an advantage to the business; and
- Knowing that the quality of each employee's work life is important to the organisation (Sujansky, 1991:5-6).

An empowering organisation should develop a climate that recognises, nurtures, and encourages the effort of partnering.

(b) Underlying assumptions

When beginning any collaborative effort, it is useful to develop a list of assumptions to guide management empowerment activities. The following assumptions are useful:

- People are kind and want to do the right thing.
- People are very busy and often under a lot of pressure. If you provide them with some warm, human understanding and can show how working with you will make life easier for them, they will probably be more inclined to work with you.
- Establishing a co-operative working relationship is a process.
- Turf issues come with the territory and should be expected.
- The individual with whom you are trying to work has knowledge and expertise and should be respected (Steffy & Lindle, 1994:40-41).

When clear underlying assumptions are established, partners are more productive and are able to withstand the inevitable conflicts that surface over time.

(c) Areas of partnership

While it is important to note that partnerships can be developed at any level of the organisation and any situation in the organisation, the following areas of partnership are selected for their relevancy and importance to recognition of competence and empowerment:

- Teachers and their colleagues (Teams)
- Teachers and parents (Parental involvement)
- Teachers and the business
- Teachers and managers
- Teachers and educational institutions
- Teachers and consultants.

When partnerships are established in these areas the organisation will have a mine wealth of skills, expertise and even resources to draw from. Everyone will have a monolith of power to draw strength and grow professionally. What follows will be a discussion of each area of partnership.

(i) Teachers and managers

A partnership between managers and teachers is a primordial upon which empowerment is unfolded in organisations. The manager-teacher partnership originates from the powers the managers have (which were discussed in section 3.2.1 of this project), and the leadership style of the manager. It means that, with regard to the latter, collaborative, collegial, democratic and participatory leadership styles are the ones that will feature predominantly in empowering teachers. Since the concept manager is embracive and mean a lot of things, in this instance it refers to the school manager (the principal).

Legislation and policy provisions imposes rights and responsibilities on both parties. The duties and responsibilities of teachers include:

- promotion of the intellectual and personal development of learners;
- promotion of a culture of learning and teaching;
- fostering in learners a culture of human rights;
- acting in a just and impartial manner in their dealings with learners; and
- taking the appropriate measures to attain and maintain a high level of professionalism (Van Wyk, 1998:27).

In the same vein, Nxesi (1998:6) is of the opinion that teachers enter into partnerships with managers because of the following reasons:

- Search for the most effective and appropriate methods of teaching and learning.
- Search for new, progressive and innovative methods of assessing student performance.

- Provide guidance to all students without prejudice in the face of the difficult and emotional trials of youth.
- Refer students with specific learning, emotional or socio-economic problems to professionals in the field.
- Develop students' sense of self-discipline and responsibility so that they can become active, independent and responsible members of the society.
- Facilitate communication with other stakeholders on progresses and developments made in education.
- Participate in broad policy formulation, and curriculum planning and evaluation.
- Participate in decision-making structures.

These reasons also apply to teachers' partnership with other stakeholders, and help in defining the teachers' role in the partnership. In that way, a clash of roles will be averted. It is crucial to note that the other precondition for this partnership is a democratic culture (Maxcy, 1991:157) whereby the manager is open and fair, consistent and focused, flexible and firm in ensuring that the partnership is goal focused, communication adequate, optimally equalises power, cohesive and innovative (Sergiovanni & Starrat, 1993:84).

Likewise, the duties and responsibilities of school managers must include:

- Ensuring that educational services provided in the school are of a high quality.
- Carrying out management activities (planning, leading, organising and control) with regard to educational activities at school, professional administration and policy implementation.
- Promoting the culture of teaching and learning at the school.
- Promoting a high standard of professionalism and management at the school (Van Wyk, 1998:27).

The essence of manager-teacher partnership lies in investment in the teachers the right to participate in the determination of school goals and policies and the right to exercise professional judgement about the content of the curriculum and means of instruction. This assumes that empowerment is fundamentally a value-based activity, and as such, it requires that teachers have expertise to engage in thoughtful deliberations and professional authority to participate in decisions taken about their schools and classrooms (Blasé & Blasé, 1994:4).

In this way, the principal will accord teachers dignity and will help them to be more fully responsible for work-related decisions.

Teacher empowerment is founded on democratic principles of seeking mandate through consultation, shared decision-making and participatory management. In the same vein, the manager(principal)-teachers partnership represents a shift in paradigm from a paradigm whereby schooling was characterised by a long and nefarious legacy of autocratic control. In the past teachers were not generally seen by managers as active agents who should be encouraged to innovate and seek to bring about change. Thus, consultation was regarded as a necessary evil (Van den Berg in De Wee, 1994:11).

The shift to a new paradigm of democratic management of schools entails that

"No longer can the principal make decisions in a vacuum. There must be input from all stakeholders the decisions will affect" (Shortt, 1994:45).

As such, this shift is "one of tapping teachers' expertise and experience to facilitate enlightened decisions and build better educational programmes" (Blasé & Blasé, 1994:5). And finally, it must be considered that teachers are indispensable resource that have expertise and skills that form a professional basis for helping solve organisational problems.

(ii) Teachers and their colleagues

No teacher can remain an island in his or her professional life in the wake of proliferation in scientific discoveries, technological advancements and globalisation. Consequently, there is a need to establish teams or groups. The formation of teams help to create a new frame of reference, make joint decisions on policy issues that affect classroom practice, mobilise resources for the transformation process and increase a high level of professionalism (Whitaker, 1997:112).

The isolation among teachers should be destroyed if empowerment is to be a reality. Squelch & Lemmer (1994:70) find that "teachers spend most of their time in the classroom with their pupils. They are accustomed to working next to one another in separate classrooms but are not used to working in teams. Teachers often feel threatened by the thought of sharing ideas (or failures) and co-operating professionally". This kind of attitude is a major drawback in the restoration of the culture of learning and teaching. In contemporary times an individual is no longer regarded as the primary source of change, innovation and seat of expertise. Today teamwork is highly valued, not only for its benefits to teachers but also for its enhancement of quality education.

The serious challenge facing managers is to see to it that effective teams are established to overcome isolationist attitudes among teachers, and doing away with unilateral power tendencies in themselves that restrain consensual management, participative management, joint-decision making, collaboration and co-operation. This is necessary because of "an increasing disdain for authority", and "misuse of power inherent in positions of authority", and "resistance to authority has become pervasive" (Wynn & Guditus, 1984:3). This attitude emerges when people are meeting as unequals.

Therefore, authority should be built upon subordination. People must be willing to accept subordinate roles. There is a need to move from competition to co-operation (Steffy & Lindle, 1994:19) on the side of teachers. And management team members who find themselves by 'stamping' their authority within the group

(Wynn & Guditus, 1984:3). In this way a team will be a team not a group of individuals. Teams should be characterised by a high degree of unity and commitment to common vision and mission. In terms of McEwan (1997:35) teams experience unity when team members share:

- a willingness to put group goals above personal goals;
- a feeling of confidence and support on the part of group members for each other;
- understanding of what the team's mission is;
- the ability to handle conflict, decision making and day-to-day interaction;
- enthusiasm about involvement; and
- equally the resources and recognition.

Table 3.1: Roles of team members

CONTRIBUTOR		COLLABORATOR	
Positive Traits	Negative Traits	Positive Traits	Negative Traits
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • dependable • efficient • logical • pragmatic • systematic 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • compulsive • perfectionistic • uncreative • data-bound 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • co-operative • conceptual • visionary • flexible • imaginative 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • over committed • insensitive • over involved • too global
COMMUNICATOR		CHALLENGER	
Positive Traits	Negative Traits	Positive Traits	Negative Traits
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • supportive • encouraging • relaxed • helpful • considerate • patient 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • aimless • foolish • placating • manipulative 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • candid • ethical • outspoken • adventurous • principled 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • rigid • arrogant • self-righteous • contentious • nit-picking

Source: McEwan (1997:36)

This table leads us to another technical requirement of empowering teams, and that is roles of team members. The roles identified are:

- Contributor
- Collaborator
- Communicator
- Challenger

Roles of team members are not limited to the above. Other roles include:

- isolator – one who just sits in and do not participate;
- facilitator – one who makes sure everyone gets a chance to talk;
- dominator – one who speaks too often and for too long;
- harmoniser – one who keeps tension down;
- free-rider – one who fails to do his or her share of work;
- detractor – one who constantly criticises and complains;
- digressor – one who diverts the discussion;
- air head – one who is never prepared for group meetings; and
- socialiser – one who is a member of the group for social and personal reasons. (Squelch & Lemmer, 1994:79).

What must be established is that while roles may be given to members by the group leader, some members may use their roles for negative things or may assume negative roles to the detriment of the group. Consequently the team will not gel and good time is wasted. To circumvent this, there is a need for identification of roles such as a specialist who will meticulously observe activities of the team in conjunction with the implementer, co-ordinator and shaper. (Everard & Morris, 1990:175).

When a team works collaborately, the members develop an identity of its own. It is this identity that enables the team to work through the inevitable differences in opinion that occur over time. If the team is able to establish answers that everyone can agree on, there is a greater likelihood that the team will establish



good working relationships among members. Therefore, it is crucial to consider the four stages of team growth such as:

- forming – whereby members grapple with mechanism of working together;
- storming – the difficulty of the task ahead begins to become more fully understood;
- norming – team members reach maturity and develop a strong sense of collegiality, common identity and common spirit; and
- performing – the team takes action to deal directly with their goal or purpose (Steffy & Lindle, 1994:43-48).

Teachers are empowered as collectives who interact with one another. The advantages and benefits of such collectives are wide ranging and include:

- sharing information;
- accessing resources, special talents and strengths;
- creating supportive environment;
- better quality decisions are arrived at;
- rekindle teachers' morale in caring for each other; and
- joint effort in restoring the culture of teaching and learning (Squelch & Lemmer, 1994:71).

(iii) Teachers and parents

One of the reasons why the culture of teaching has declined is because there is a gap between teachers and parents. Teachers do not have knowledge of the child's home background (which can be furnished by parents), on the one hand. On the other hand, parents tended to stand far away from schools and watch. Consequently, a huge problem on what is taught and how is education taught arose. Learners became uninterested in education and teaching was relegated to mere 'depositing' whereas learning became regurgitation of what has be deposited (Maile, 1998:12; Lethoko, 1999:32).

This problem can be tracked down from the circumstances prevailing in the past whereby parents were reluctant to become involved in the education system they considered illegitimate and alien to them. However, current legislation (White Paper on Education and Training, 1995 and South African Schools Act, 1996) ushered in a new era whereby teacher(s) – parent partnership is not only a necessity in the restoration of the culture of teaching and learning but also an imperative in empowering teachers. The aspects of such empowerment includes:

- monitoring school attendance of learners;
- payment of school fees so that more resources can be made available to the school (Van Wyk, 1998:30-31); and
- providing additional skills (professional parents invited to contribute seminars, workshops, etc.).

The strength of teacher(s)-parents partnership is based on areas such as:

- Communication – whereby school problems can be communicated to the entire organisation through relationships with parents.
- Mutual assistance – manifested in teachers helping parents on problems of their children with their professional knowledge, and parents helping teachers on the social background of their learners.
- Learning at home – helping parents with strategies that will enhance the learner's performance in homework. Parents are enabled to supervise learners' homeworks while teachers' problem of learners not writing homeworks will be minimised.
- Decision-making – most decisions on school activities do not materialise because parents are not involved. Involvement of parents in decision-making increases legitimacy and mandate.

Evaluation of this partnership reveals the following advantages (Van Wyk, 1998:32-33):

➤ Advantages for students are:

- Students' academic achievements improve.
- Students' experience increased self-esteem and decreased behavioural problems.
- Improved attitude to school.
- Increased commitment to school work.

➤ Advantages for parents are:

- Feel more positive about the abilities to help their children.
- Greater understanding of teachers and their problems.

➤ Advantages for teachers and schools are:

- Decreasing teachers' workload.
- Teachers understanding of children in their care increases.
- Teachers feel more positive about their work.
- More resources are made available to the school.

(iv) Teachers and the business

- The introduction of an integrated approach to education and training, in the White Paper on Education and Training, 1995, represents a partnership between teachers and the business which reflects a rigid division between academic and applied learning, theory and practice, knowledge and skills, and head and hand. The integrated approach is closely linked to the National Qualifications Framework which is based on a system of giving credit for learning outcomes achieved by the learner, both in and out of formal education sector (Van Wyk, 1998:33).



What is entailed in the above paragraph is that teachers who had qualifications from outside of teaching are now given recognition. The new system makes it possible to credit learners' achievements at every level, whatever learning pathway they may have followed, and at whatever rate they may have acquired the necessary competence (Department of Education, 1996:30). The new system also provides for the recognition of prior experiential learning. This comes at the crucial time when the need for excellent teachers is based on qualifications. It means that underqualified teachers with at least REQV of 10-12 and with teaching experience spanning 10 uninterrupted years (ELRC, 1997:6) are awarded credit for unit standards which they are able to meet registered outcomes for those unit standard.

Thus, the partnership between teachers and business consolidate the former's place in the education system. Thus, this represents a move away from the traditional concept which involved spending a specified period of time in an institution. It will benefit teachers who can demonstrate through agreed procedures that the knowledge, expertise and skills that they have acquired in churches, Adult Basic Education and Training (ABET) centres, industrial training institutions, vocational training institutions, etc. meet the required learning outcomes. Such credits count towards a given qualification if they are relevant to that qualification (Malan, 1997:7-8).

The teacher's partnership with business is crucial in addressing the backlogs in education. Given the fact that "the State cannot do everything for the school" (Potgieter et al, 1997:9), this partnership will benefit the education system in general. The umbilical cord between teachers and business naturally emanates from the school's expectation for the business to supply, jobs to graduates while business is dependent on education to supply literate and learned workforce with specific expertise, skills and attitudes. Thus, education and industry are mutually dependent (Van Wyk, 1998:34), and both equally benefit from such a partnership.

Opportunities which will benefit learners include:

- visit industrial sites – to gain valuable insight into the exact requirements of a particular job and understand how academic work relates to the demands of the working world as well as being motivated by coming into contact with their role models;
- use industrial resources much needed in poorly resourced schools; and
- explore opportunities for career advancement, counselling and development (Van Wyk, 1998:34).

Benefits for teachers are:

- being invited to attend company training courses;
- attending further training courses with industrial contributions;
- having access to the use of technology not available in the school;
- being able to make use of expert assistance from business for policy making, resource allocation and plannings;
- receiving up-to-date information about the needs of the workplace that will enable educational institutions to develop their programmes; and
- making use of experts from business and industry as part-time advisers or teachers and trainers in the school (Van Wyk, 1998:34).

Further benefits for teachers and education in general include having the opportunity to gain first-hand experience and knowledge of a variety of careers. The teacher's counselling skills are enhanced with that diverse knowledge. The school's curriculum can be developed according to labour market forces, and the same applies to individual lessons. In that way, business will benefit from well-prepared labour and reap the benefits of high-production labour force.

(v) Teachers and educational institutions

The task of management, at all levels in the education system, is ultimately the creation and support of conditions under which teachers and their students are able to achieve learning. This becomes a reality when management commit themselves to development, education and training of teachers. Teachers can be empowered through partnerships with excellent teachers in other schools. What is crucial with regard to empowerment is that teachers must continue to teach within the available standards. It means that there is a need to consider the limitations of teachers. This is called sustainable development.

Sustainable development refers to meeting the needs of the present situation without compromising high standards and quality needs of the future to meet the present needs (Winberg, Douglas, Van Heerden, Van Heusden & Pointer, 1997:57). In other words, managers must ensure that the present standards and quality of teaching have to be managed in such a way that the future generation of teachers will continue to build on, and develop the education system to greater heights. Beside supplying educational resources, teachers' self-esteem must be enhanced. This refers to the teacher's identity, dignity or respect. An essential element of empowerment is the development of the teacher's self-esteem so that he or she value him- or herself and recognise his or her skills, expertise and attitudes.

In that regard partnership with tertiary institutions is essential if empowerment is to be a reality. Schools, together with tertiary institutions, can tackle educational problems that plaques education and maximise opportunities for growth. Therefore, it is important to look at the structural aspects of this partnership. Firstly, there is a need to identify tertiary educational institutions that are potential partners. They include:

- Teacher Education Colleges
- Technikons
- Universities

- Non-Governmental Organisations which offer short courses and tertiary qualification.

Although school-tertiary institution partnership has a certain uniqueness with regard to empowerment of teachers, a few specific considerations are worth to be noted. Technically, this partnership can be barred by geographic separateness with the wherewithal constraining on school-university relationships. Another barrier identified by the National Teacher Education Audit (1995) is that preservice teacher education (PRESET) and inservice teacher education (INSET) are not linked in a continuum of professional development (Hofmeyr, 1997:47). There is a notion of teacher quality which is equated with qualifications (often irrelevant) and rewarded with an automatic salary increase. Further anomalies to address include:

- The teacher education is fragmented, with tertiary institutions (Higher Education) operating largely in isolation from one another.
- Most institutions adopt distance education model without student support. As a result, good teacher education is rapidly being driven out of existence by poor teacher education as more institutions turn to correspondence education.
- The problem is exacerbated by this institutions who are inclined to measure their quality in terms of how many students (teachers) pass, rather than the standard of their courses and examinations.
- The professional mission of many teacher education institutions is being subverted by the presence of large numbers of students who have no desire to teach but want an affordable route to a higher education qualification. Once they obtain their qualifications, these students abandon the profession.
- The quality of education is uneven in all sectors of providers. There is a huge disparity across higher education institutions with the Historical White Institutions (HWI) staffed with highly qualified academics and well resourced, while Historically Black Institutions (HBI) are laced with underqualified staff and are under resourced (Naidu, 1999:6).

However, experiences in Canada (the Quebec Learning Consortium in Lennoxville; Learning Community Partnerships McGill University in Montreal; McGill University – School board agreements on teacher education; Advisory Committee on Teacher Education – McGill University in Montreal; the Centre for Educational Leadership – McGill University in Montreal, etc.) clearly demonstrate the practicality and possibility of school-university partnership. Therefore, the lessons learned from these partnerships are that:

- A climate for change is the context for effective partnerships.
- Managing the relationship is the key to effective partnerships.
- Shared values are the soul of effective partnerships and networks.
- Systemic change is the goal of an effective school-university partnership.
- A new paradigm of professionalism is the foundation of an effective school-university partnership.
- A bias for action is the strategy of an effective school-university partnership.
- Membership privileges are the benefits of an effective school-university partnership (Keyserling, Baker & Peter, 1997:235).

Today's trends in education appear to be moving away from isolationism to collaboration where individuals are empowered through partnerships. Like any human creation, partnerships have problems. However, the benefits of partnership are more than the disadvantages. Therefore, where problems persist outside help may be sought. This leads us to a partnership with consultants.

(vi) Teachers and the consultant(s)

Consultancy is a helping relationship provided by people or a person who have a particular range of skills for helping managers and teachers in schools to understand more clearly what their business is about and how it might become more effective (Gray, 1988:7). Consultants convey a range of affective matters such as skills, competencies, attitudes, values, understanding and creative insights. Consultancy can be equated to the task of subject specialist who offer guidance, remedial and counselling services to schools (Dekker, 1994:3).

Teachers' partnerships with consultants is characterised by development and empowerment activities which adopt the following approaches:

- Consultative assistance – which brings technical skills to a problem situation, but does not change the expertise of organisational members, nor affect the inter-personal relations among them.
- Content consultation – which aims at educating members in a substantive area and seeks to bring out individual changes in understanding, attitude or skill, but does not focus on the organisation.
- Process consultation – which focuses on such organisational phenomena as communication patterns, planning, decision making and interpersonal relationships (Gray, 1988:180-181).

The role of consultants is important in schools to tackle technical challenges imposed on teaching by technological advancement, curriculum developments, globalisation and transformation issues. Because schools are fraught with challenges and problems, the support of consultants is necessary to provide expertise and skills to enable teachers to meet those challenges and problems head-on. Therefore, teachers may draw 'power' from internal and external consultants to stand firm and develop their current practices. The problems which teachers face cannot be dealt with effectively unless an 'objective outsider' is invited to the school. Thompson (1984) in Day et al (1987:74) concur with this idea when saying that:

"If one is on one's own, one will only see what one is ready to see; one will only learn what is on the edge of the consciousness of what one already knows".

Partnerships with consultants is based on the following aims (Day et al, 1987:74):

- To review classroom events and their context.
- To audit the education process.
- To inculcate reflective skills in teachers.
- To provide reflexive resources to be used by teachers from time to time.
- To share expertise with teachers in their self-development.

- To provide feedback in enhancing teacher's professionalism.

Internal consultants at school are identified as inspectors, subject advisors and specialist teachers – which include heads of department, subject heads or any specialised skill. Internal consultancy is relevant and seem to be well accepted by teachers who:

"argue that if a consultant cannot tell them what to do in their classrooms to solve their immediate problems, then he or she should not be working in schools" (Letiche, et al, 1991:109)".

What teachers need is relevant and direct expertise and skill not generalisations and inferences about their problems. Therefore internal consultants will provide hand-on solutions and quick fixes.

Another option to explore is the use of the services of external consultants. External consultants are a rare resource in education. However, they may be identified as field-workers, experts in non-governmental organisations (NGOs), and intellectuals in colleges, technikons and universities (lecturers, doctors and professors). As 'objective outsiders', consultants are impartial, fair and frank because they are not involved in organisational politics of the school (Letiche, Van der Walt & Plooy, 1991:110). Hopkins (1986) in Day, et al, (1987:74) finds that teachers prefer outsiders because asking help from a peer might be regarded as a sign of weakness and interpreted as self-indictment; it reduces competition (which often leads to rivalry) and comparison, and the impartial ideas of external experts can be of credit to the new user.

An evaluation of partnerships between teachers and consultants reveal advantages and disadvantages (Day, et al, 1987:75). The advantages for teachers and the organisation at large include:

- Enables the teacher to carry on with his duties while a remedy is searched.
- Reports from consultants are not biased and are more objective.
- Can offer a wider comparison of experiences gained somewhere.

- Can move freely and see the children working in different situations.
- Can focus on a specific problem without being obstructed by internal conflicts.
- Can provide post-lesson critical dialogues.
- Can be used to check against biased self-reporting, and to assist in more lengthy processes of self-evaluation.

Disadvantages are:

- Unless a regular visit is made their interpretations may be out of context.
- Children may not be open with an outsider.
- Teachers, if not assured of confidentiality, may not be open to consultants.
- Observers will have their own biases and over-generalisation.
- It is time consuming – observer and teacher must spend time together before and after the work observed to negotiate and fulfil the contract.
- Resources may limit the consultation.
- It is hard to find consultants, especially in education.

Table 3.2: Advantages and Disadvantages of:

INTERNAL CONSULTANTS	
ADVANTAGES	DISADVANTAGES
Understand the organisation's politics, budget constraints, and goals.	May have a biased approach or a limited range of experiences to bring to the partnership.
Are already working in the environment and know the policies and procedures.	May already have a preconceived notion of what works and what does not work.
Are committed to the organisation and its strategic plan.	May be too threatened or influenced by top management, the manager, or their own managers to be objective.
Usually cost less than external consultants.	May be involved in other projects and unable to make a full-time commitment.
EXTERNAL CONSULTANTS	
ADVANTAGES	DISADVANTAGES
Can bring a fresh approach and varying experiences to the partnership.	May not know the environment, politics, budget constraints, goals, policies, procedures, or organisational background and may need to be given such information.
Have no preconceived notions about what works within the environment.	Are committed to the organisation and its goals only from the standpoint of committing to the project and providing a service.
Are not threatened or influenced by members of the organisation.	May cost more than internal consultants.
Can concentrate their energies on the project.	May be available with only long-term notice

Source: Sujansky, (1991:86).

When teachers are partnering with consultants their skills, expertise and knowledge are enhanced. However, sometimes they may benefit and gain a better approach to their work. Consultants are change agents who analyse problems or opportunities and recommend courses of action. In this way the organisation (school) is improved through constructive change.

3.2.4.3 Joint-decision making

According to the Gauteng Department of Education (1996:1) education management has been recognised as an important area of development. However, given the throes of transformation at school level, the establishment of democratic governance and implementation of a capacity programme is the priority of the department to enable schools to meet the transformation needs, build ethos of the organisation and development of leadership capacity, management competencies – more job specific and technical skills. Sustainable development is more realistic through participative decision-making. Joint or participative decision-making entails making decisions on needs from teachers, parents, students and other stakeholders.

The greatest challenge is how to exercise influence over others, affecting their perceptions, filling any vacuum and make them do something that they will otherwise not do? At least joint decision-making promise to meet the challenge as it provides decisions with more technical quality. That is to say decisions are taken by people who are involved with implementation (Kinlaw, 1995:61).

The paradox of this practice is that:

"If a decision by the cadre resulted in a major blunder, it would be the principal who would be held accountable, not the cadre. For this reason, some principals retained veto power over cadre decisions – in effect, reducing the cadre to an advisory committee. Other principals restricted the jurisdiction of the cadre to areas they considered safe, such as curriculum issues. This solution eased some anxieties, but in the process, these principals might have undermined shared decision-making". (Hess, 1992:80).

This problem emerges from the perception that management is "the task of the few" (Department of Education, 1996:27). Instead, management should be seen as an activity in which all members in the school are actively engaged. If collective responsibility is sought, then no individual will be blamed if anything go wrong. It is unlikely that blunders will be committed when decisions are made by people closest to the student (Shortt, 1994:40). With inputs from all the stakeholders it is impossible to make blunders. Therefore, it is important to tap



from teachers' expertise and experience to facilitate enlightened decisions and build better education programmes.

Perhaps a huge challenge is how to transform and develop management from the long and nefarious legacy of autocratic control – whereby the teachers are not seen by school managers as active agents who should be encouraged to innovate and seek to bring about change (Van den Berg in De Wee, 1994:11). What is needed is basically about having the ability to influence and to be influenced by individuals and groups to take them in a desired direction (Open University, 1988:14). No longer can principals make decisions alone and in a vacuum because:

"education is inherently a difficult and complex process and because circumstances are constantly changing, problems will inevitably arise in individual schools and classrooms. These problems are best diagnosed by the teachers most closely concerned because they know the students and the context sufficiently well" (Eruat (1985) in Hewton, 1988:6)".

Power should be utilised in decision-making to influence management outcomes such as (Department of Education, 1996:4).

- Capacity to deliver : to create an environment conducive to quality education; to organise, plan, co-ordinate, systematise and structure; to facilitate; guide, support and enable; and to provide effective leadership in achieving educational goals – in getting things done;
- Capacity to learn and reflect: to assess and monitor systems and processes, and to learn from that evaluation;
- Capacity to mobilise and use resources efficiently : to harness new resources while at the same time making best use of existing physical, financial and human resources, and to work in partnership in so doing;
- Capacity to innovate : to work effectively towards paradigm shifts; to organise the process of transformation and change.

Therefore, joint decision-making is an element which steers empowerment and capacity building. When reflecting on the above outcomes the following premises of decisions (Newton & Tarrant, 1992:96) become conspicuous:

- Organisational constraints;
- Assumptions;
- Conscious manipulations;
- Values and beliefs;
- Practices about 'who we are'; and
- How we do things 'round here'.

In the same spirit decision-making involves processes that are ground rules which guide decision-makers. These rules or principles directly answer questions such as:

- How should a decision be made and who should be involved?
- When will it be made?
- When should the decision be discussed?
- At what point on the agenda?

Answers to these questions are embodied in specific decision making techniques. Joint decision making starts with value development – which is founded on relationships with parents, teachers, learners, and other stakeholders. McEwan (1997:4) identifies three phases of value development :

- (i) Acceptance – the individual is willing to identify with the value, but can quickly reassess its worth if more desirable options present themselves.
- (ii) Preference – the individual is committed enough to the value to pursue it.
- (iii) Commitment – the individual has such a degree of certainty about it that he or she will always act upon it with firm conviction and certainty.

Values are motivational factors, serve as reference points for self-reflection, are standards to judge decisions of others, and triggers creativity among partners or in the team. The hallmark of joint decision making lies in creativity which offer practical ideas to get the job done (McEwan, 1997:65). The productivity of organisation is enhanced when critical information is shared, and depressors are avoided when members of the organisation reach consensus. The question of how is joint decision making is arrived at will be answered in Chapter 5. At least joint decision-making addresses the happiness of teachers. It ensures that teachers who are retained are those who are motivated to perform at their peak. Teachers who are retained require programmes that will enhance their skills, expertise and attitudes. And these competencies should be regularly developed to guarantee teachers a place in the classroom. This is the object of discussion in the topic below.

3.2.5 Empowerment models

3.2.5.1 Orientation

In addition to the programmes outlined above, there are empowerment models which seek to address the problem of retention teachers in the classroom. Among them, the list include:

- Life-long learning;
- Professional and competence development;
- Human development; and
- Induction

The nitty-gritty of each model will be discussed below and guidelines as to how to implement the theories attached to this model will be provided in the next chapter.

3.2.5.2 *Lifelong learning*

(a) Why the commitment to lifelong learning

In order for educators to be guaranteed a place in the classroom they must commit themselves to continuous learning – which is often referred to as lifelong learning. Hence, Caldwell (1989:86) believes that

“Teachers should be learners. They should be continuously refining their skills”.

Likewise, Foks (1997:131) agrees that “one burst of education and training early in life will simply not be enough. Instead, this initial learning should be seen as part of a lifelong learning process where new knowledge, skills and attitudes are developed as acquired”. Individual educators should seek to rekindle their skills for various reasons, including the need for personal development, changing jobs and within society, and changing technologies. The call for educators to commit themselves to learning is emphasised by Rebore (1991:162) who states that:

“It is literally impossible for any individual to take on a job and remain in it for forty years with his/her skills basically unchanged”.

Furthermore, Steuteville-Brodinsky, et al, (1986:6) cautions educators that:

“old facts are dying, new facts are being discovered. Old concepts are becoming obsolete; new concepts are coming to the fore”.

In the same vein, Veldsman in HSRC (1997:5) alludes that:

Current jobs would no longer exist in their present form ... Sixty-six percent of the technology that would be in use by 2000 is not currently in use ... And that professional skills become obsolete after each year of graduation”.

The turbulence of change on education compels educators to stand on their toes and commit themselves to lifelong education. These unprecedented onslaught on teachers skills, knowledge and expertise poses a huge challenge on the quality of education. Therefore, the biggest challenge to educators is how to remain knowledgeable and continue serving in the classroom. The answer to this question lies in lifelong learning because the current-workplace is marked by change.

(b) Over-arching framework for lifelong learning

Lifelong learning is premised on the following overarching framework:

(i) Continuous learning marked by:

- a system for continuous renewal;
- inquiry;
- complex decision making;
- self-knowledge;
- courage to risk failure; and
- critical thinking

Reflective practice embodied in:

- disposition of keen sense of curiosity;
- high degree of intellectual honesty;
- reflection;
- systematic inquiry and judgement; and
- certainty of ability to solve problems.

(ii) Curiosity characterised by:

- inquiry; and
- risk taking.

(iii) Efficacy which includes:

- teacher certainty;
- links to innovation, risk and joint decision-making; and
- human interaction (Collinson, 1994:8-14).

(c) Implications for practice

The notion of lifelong learning involves the idea of educators assuming the roles of learners. This has implications to the management of lifelong learning process. The following are the implications:

- (i) Educators' needs must take a primacy, hence Licklider in Maile (1998:7) is of the view that traditional models of learning based on the "one-size-fits-all" theory did not succeed. Teachers' needs should not be ignored. Teachers must judge what the teacher is doing.
- (ii) The process of lifelong learning must capitalise on the teacher's strengths. It means that the teacher's skills, attitudes and knowledge should be refined according to current needs of the school. Hence Imenda (1995:178) is of the view that lifelong learning or continuous learning should not "subvert essential academic standards but rather contribute to the development of a learning environment which in turn genuinely facilitates the academic growth of talented students".
- (iii) Schools should become learning organisation which is manifested in personal habit of continually clarifying individual vision and aspirations to take charge of and responsibility for individual actions (personal mastery); allowing individuals in an organisation to examine their assumptions

critically and to expose their thinking to others so that they can influence or learn from it (mental models); generation of individual commitment and creation of a coherent increase in organisational effectiveness (building shared vision); allowing groups to discover understandings and accomplish goals which the individuals could not attain on their own (team learning); and systems thinking whereby an individual's contribution is viewed as part of the whole (Clark, 1996:115). Schools are learning organisations when:

- teachers continually expand their capacity to create the results they truly desire;
- new and expansive patterns of thinking are nurtured;
- collective aspirations are set free; and
- people are continually learning how to learn together.

(d) Advantages of lifelong learning

Lifelong learning exhibits the following advantages:

- (i) Invest in teachers' future through education and training.
- (ii) Create opportunities for and encourages all teachers to realise their potential and capabilities.
- (iii) Encourages contribution by all learners as they share common vision and mission.
- (iv) Integrate work and learning and inspire all to seek quality, excellence and continuous improvement in both.
- (v) Mobilise all their human talent by putting emphasis on education and training.
- (vi) Empowered all to broaden their horizons in harmony with their preferred learning styles.
- (vii) Enables teachers to learn and relearn constantly in order to remain innovative and invigorating.

- (viii) Respond proactively to the wider needs of the environment and society in which organisations operate and encourage teachers to do likewise (Van der Bank, 1997).
- (ix) Stimulates further renewal, self-knowledge and professional interaction (Collinson, 1994:14).

(e) In conclusion, one can say that lifelong learning remains the ideal to today's changing world of work and complex demands of teaching. Hence, even "if teacher colleges did a perfect job preparing teachers, if knowledge did not change, if technology remained the same, if students all learned the same way, teachers would still need to continually upgrade their skills" (French, 1997:38). Lifelong learning perceives teachers as "knowledge workers". (Duffy, 1997:78), whose needs and interaction are key to effective schools. It is for this reason that lifelong learning, as an empowerment model, is employed to facilitate innovation, reform and improvement of schooling.

3.2.5.3 Human development

In terms of Steffy (1989:8) there is a need for empowerment to improve the whole teacher not only his or her skills, knowledge and expertise. What Steffy (1989) suggests is a paradigm shift in the way teachers are developed – from behaviourist orientation to human development for "it makes little sense to try to improve the technical skills of a teacher apart from the way a teacher feels about himself or herself". While it is necessary to look at the organisational life, consideration of the individual teacher's well-being is increasingly critical if human resources managers (HRM) intend turning their organisations into world class institutes (Pont, 1995:42).

The influence of psychology is centrifugal to this emerging paradigm. The human development model begins from the assumption that human learning is far too complex to be observable, measurable, terminal behaviour. Consequently it is necessary that when a teacher is underperforming, HRM should not only evaluate him or her on the technical aspects, but also on social factors that

impact on his or her performance. Table 3.3 gives a clear illustration of this model.

Table 3.3: A comparison of the behaviourist and humanistic approaches

	Behaviourist or stimulus-response	Humanistic
Nature of human beings	Human behaviour is shaped by environmental forces (reinforcement) and is a collection of learned responses to external stimuli. The key learning process is conditioning	The individual is unique, free, self-determining, Free will and self-actualisation make human beings distinct from animals. Present experience is as important as past experience
Nature of psychological Normality	Possession of an ad-equately large repertoire of adaptive responses	Ability to accept oneself, to realise one's potential, to achieve intimacy with others, to find meaning in life
Nature of psychological Development	None as such. No stages of development. Different behaviour is selectively reinforced at different ages, but the differences between the child and the adult are merely quantitative	Development of self-concept with age, especially self-esteem. Satisfaction of lower level needs are a prerequisite for higher level (growth) needs
Preferred method of Study	Experiments in controlled situations (animals and humans)	Experiential
Major causes of abnormal behaviour	The learning of mal-adaptive responses or the failure to learn adaptive ones in the first place, to distinguish between symptoms and the behaviour disorder	Inability to accept and express one's true nature, to take responsibility for one's own actions and to make authentic choices. Anxiety stems from denying part of self (referred to as identity crisis)
Preferred method(s) of Treatment	Behaviour therapy or modification, e.g. aversion therapy, behaviour shaping	Client-centred therapy; insights from the client come from the client as present experiences are explored with the therapist

Source: Pont (1995:44)

Human development is based on the premise that one begins with the person, the whole teacher. Behaviours are simply very limited extensions of a belief system, a concept of self and an orientation to life and work which can be misinterpreted as correctly as gauged. Behaviours are not ends in themselves, but a means to an end in empowerment. The 'end' of empowerment is a confident, competent, energetic and vibrant teacher who positively impacts children in the classroom as a real example of living and learning. This model links very well with the dimensions of empowerment – subjective and objective empowerment (Davidoff & Lazarus, 1997:162). Subjective empowerment refers to personal power where a teacher believes he or she can make the difference, where he or she feels confident, assertive to participate, innovate and engage in constructive development as a knowledge worker. Objective empowerment involves taking of power and creation of an enabling environment whereby teacher can participate and share in decision-making.

This inspirational, inquisitive and dynamic teacher is the ideal teacher who should remain in the classroom. The fact that there are some good teachers in schools, means that human development is possible (Steffy, 1989:8). The challenge remains to increase their number. This model continues to built on section 2.4 whereby the growth of teachers is dichotomised into career stages for the recognition of competence. Thus empowerment of teachers should be according to stages so as to make empowerment programmes more relevant, and the human development model takes into account the teacher's career stage.

The essential elements of this model include the assumption that people are basically good, that they self-actualise (Maslow, 1954), and become confident, contributing adults through the work environment. The relationship between the teacher and his/her immediate environment is crucial to the success of the organisation and central to the attainment of this model's outcomes:

The significance of this model is that it considers the human aspects of teachers that shape up teaching. The human aspects are discernible when teachers work within their roles and within schools – through their orientation toward work, their ideas of self, their vibrancy and their enthusiasm. However, these aspects change with time. Hence it is necessary to dichotomise the teacher's career into stages, not only for reward purposes but also for development. This model does not accept the existing working conditions as inevitable. Proponents of the model (Steff, 1989:xi) believe that a teacher is not the same all throughout his career life. His or her internal orientation is not the same (Brighouse, 1995:71). The same sentiment is cited by Jaworski (1993:37) who alludes that:

“no one can really change others, nor can they change one; people can only change themselves. The best that anyone can do is to provide a structure which helps other to change ...”

The teacher's internal orientation is fragile, permeable, regenerative and expandable. Because teachers are human, their orientation to work is renewable. Therefore, this model perceived changes in teachers' roles and their incessant quest for quality as fundamentally anchored in their internal orientation to work. Thus, motivating teachers is not a matter of immersing them in new approaches, rewarding them only, but recognition of the need for growth. People enter into teaching for various reasons. Therefore, monetary rewards are not the only means to maintain the teacher's level of motivation. Hence Steffy (1989:3) posits that:

“Over an extended period of time, repetitious tasks become less challenging. Less energy is expended. Excitement wanes. Enthusiasm slackens. Like any other human on a repetitious job, teachers get stale. They can lose interest”.

This may affect their classroom teaching. Therefore, the human development model promises to keep teachers' interest and enthusiasm on par with quality demands and immerses them in regular renewal programmes.

3.2.5.4 Professional and competence development

While the above model seeks to develop the internal orientation of teachers, this model enhance the teacher's technical skills, knowledge and attitudes. Although this model commits teachers to continuous development (Mda, 1998:77), it differs with lifelong learning in many respects. Its difference shall be established in the discussion below. In terms of Nolder (1992:37) this model is influenced throughout by the needs, interests and abilities of the person and by institutional constraints. And it also focuses on the teacher's ability to perform a task satisfactorily and encompasses intellectual, cognitive, and attitudinal dimensions as well as performance (Bridges & Kerry, 1993:12). Its critical outcomes are

- quality of teaching; and
- morale, motivation and professional status.

(a) The nature of this model

Professional (and competence) development is a whole-school activity. Therefore, everyone has the responsibility. However, for proper management of this process there is a need to appoint someone to steer the process – commonly known as development co-ordinator (Dean, 1992:102). Professional development stems from policy which sets priorities, creates structures, clarify roles and allocate resources for this policy. Basically, the success of professional development depends on the school climate which is founded on perceptions such as:

- respect for adults;
- genuine participation in decision making;
- interaction with peers which encourages innovation;
- a high sense of efficacy;
- opportunity to use and develop skills and knowledge;
- sufficient resources to support teacher experimentation; and
- reasonable congruence between teacher's personal goals and goals of the school in general (Collinson, 1994:31).

Professional development prospers in an open climate and very little in a closed climate (Calitz & Shube, 1992:32). The consideration of school climate entails that the individual teacher's values and experiences are taken into account. In this way, professional development becomes a combination of social system factors manifested in the culture of the school. This is to say that the social milieu also plays a significant role in the development of teachers (Open University, 1988:6). Furthermore, in terms of Trethowan (1991:59), Emmerson & Goddard (1993:16), Everard & Morris (1990:16) and Whitaker (1993:89) leadership style(s) play a major role in professional development depending on the person responsible.

Professional development involves a combination of methods, for

“any assessment measure taken alone is flawed because it is incomplete” (Bradley et al, 1991:140).

Different skills, knowledge and attitudes need different approaches. And also the individual aspect in teachers imposes different approaches, in pursuance of the following outcomes.

(b) Professional and competence development outcomes

Although the primary aims have already been outlined, it is necessary to demarcate professional and competence development activities taking into account the individual differences of teachers. Furthermore, there is a need to distinguish between individual and institutional aims. However, the divisions will not be spelt out here except for those related to professional development and those for competence development. Professional development activities are founded on the following objectives:

- (i) To maintain appropriate staff expertise and experience for current and projected courses.
- (ii) To ensure that each member is or becomes and remains a fully competent and responsible teacher of his or her subject.
- (iii) To encourage teachers to contribute to innovation in their own subject(s) and its teaching.
- (iv) To enable teachers to broaden and update their knowledge and to advance their personal development and their academic and professional achievements.
- (v) To permit teachers to change their subject and/or level at which they teach in order to cater for changing patterns of courses.
- (vi) To equip staff to cater for the social welfare as well as academic needs of students (Main, 1985:5).
- (vii) To recognise and employ teachers strengths in seeking the best teaching practices.
- (viii) To identify staff needs (Alyward, 1992:145).
- (ix) To improve communication and personal relationship and to encourage teachers to contribute to the maintenance of an academic community.
- (x) To enhance personal satisfaction gained by teachers from completion of tasks (Maslow's theory of motivation).
- (xi) To acquaint staff with changes taking place in the system and in their organisation.
- (xii) To provide feedback on individual progress and establishing needs for further development (Main, 1985:6).

These objectives have to be seen against the broad aims mentioned earlier, and they define development in terms of a person (the teacher) not an institution – that is, growth of the individual. The focus is on the individual-within-the-organisation and individual-within-the-community. It means that individual development is organisational development because these individuals will serve in the organisation. The reason why the emphasis of development is on the individual not the organisation is that quality is not produced by buildings or structures but by individual professionals. Hence professional development is preferred for high quality education. The notion of quality education invokes

competence which deals with an individual's ability to perform effectively in the context of an employment area. Quality demands in education require flexible and versatile teachers who are capable of responding to change, meeting change with enthusiasm and willingness to innovate (McAleavy & McAleer, 1991:20). Inherent in this postulation is that each individual teacher can fulfil effectively his or her role or function within an organisation. Hence professional development and competence development are intertwined, and are therefore not diametrically opposed to each other. Each complement the other as the following objectives of competence development illustrate:

- (i) Extension of knowledge.
- (ii) Consolidation and re-affirmation of knowledge.
- (iii) Continual acquisition of knowledge.
- (iv) Familiarisation with curricular development.
- (v) Acquaintance with psychological development.
- (vi) Introduction of new methods.
- (vii) Understanding cultural revolution.
- (viii) Familiarity with changes in local and national policy (Mohlakwana, 1996:23).

The notion of individual development is still maintained in these objectives. It represents a candid and sincere way of keeping track with weaknesses, failures and shortcomings in a teacher (Walker, 1993:50). It is relevant to the South African human resources management context which is predominantly characterised by redress and equity to develop the disadvantaged groups so that they will offer quality education.

(c) Basic assumptions

Effective professional and competence development are based on the assumption that individual teachers learn to design, develop and offer quality lessons in the classroom when their development:

- (i) provides focused direct instruction on the procedures of sound assessment practice;
- (ii) provides classroom practice in applying quality principles;
- (iii) gives teachers responsibility for managing their professional and competence development;
- (iv) involves educators in collaborative learning activities and collegial support groups;
- (v) encourages a healthy concern for student well-being; and
- (vi) provides maximum impact for teachers in terms of the efficiency and effectiveness of their practices while minimising the amount of time and energy invested (Stiggins, 1995:15).

What is acknowledged here is that some practices will be counterproductive such as disadvantages of external consultants (see section 3.2.4.2(vi) of this chapter), giving teacher short courses with no linkage to classroom practice, no follow-up and continuity. Therefore, it is important that, when engaging teachers in development activities, the areas relevant for teaching should be of primary value.

(d) Areas of development

Although development focuses on skills, knowledge and attitudes, one finds that (McAleavy & McAleer (1991:20) development is a wider concept, its relevancy is shown by responsiveness to:

- (i) Technical or task skills – those specific skills which enable the job holder to deliver the key purpose of the role.
 - Relevant teaching skills – the basic teaching skills of questioning, explaining, tutoring, discussing, demonstrating, analysing, comparing, synthesising, facilitating, etc.

- (ii) Contingency management skills – those skills needed to manage variance and unpredictability in the job role and the wider environment.
 - Relevant teacher skill – flexibility of response including, management and control skills, a willingness to conduct self-monitoring/self-evaluation and undergo professional and/or competence development.
- (iii) Task management skills – those skills which are overarching and which integrate the various technical and components into the overall work role.
 - Relevant teacher skill – the ability to plan, implement, assess, evaluate, to identify areas which require improvement and develop methods of self-evaluation; to make best use of new and existing technology and work with others.
- (iv) Role or job environment skills – those skills which are used to integrate the work role with the context of the wider organisational, economic market and social environment.
 - Relevant teacher skill – developing an awareness of the importance of the social context of the curriculum.

Therefore, development (professional and competence) is an all-round concept which covers a wide range of areas in the context of education. These areas are practically expressed, for the recognition of competence, as (Tomlinson, 1995:308):

- (a) Explicit knowledge base which includes:
 - subject knowledge and skills, curriculum resources;
 - pupils and pedagogy; and
 - professional matters and commitment.
- (b) Planning and preparation which embraces:
 - clear learning goals appropriate for pupils, context, resources; and
 - adequate range of learning activities and resources for pupils, goals and resources.

(c) Interactive teaching which is manifested in:

- intelligent and effective assistance on pupil learning, organisation and resourcing;
- effective assessment and monitoring of pupil learning activities and progress;
- appropriate relating to and influencing pupils, the behaviour, motivation and well-being.

(d) Wider professional roles which entails:

- wider educational role fulfilment through effective collaboration with various others.

(e) Professional self-development which covers:

- development of explicit knowledge base of subject, pedagogy and professional matters; and
- improvement of professional capabilities through appropriate mentoring, reflection and change.

3.2.5.5 *Induction*

It is commonly held that induction is meant for newly employed individuals (Finnigan, 1983:86; Everard & Morris, 1990:89 and Rebore, 1991:136). This perception stems from the idea that new appointees need to be acquainted with the reins of the profession. Their package includes: textbooks, logbooks, description of the school, mission statements, school policy, guided tour on the school premises where they are shown toilets, classes, sports ground, administration offices, other teachers, etc. However, Büchner & Hay (1998:19) contend that induction is meant for old staff members as well because they have to cope with increasingly complex situations in terms of multicultural classrooms, new methods of teaching, new curriculum, new paradigms, etc. Furthermore, when a staff member is promoted (mobility within the career ladder), he or she need to be schooled on the elements of his or her new job. Therefore, induction

is meant for both new appointees and 'old' staff members. In that note induction can be defined as

"a systematic programme of professional initiation, guided experience and further study (Morant, 1981:6)".

Thus, induction is appropriate to teachers who starts to work in a new environment – new appointments, reassignment to a new school, promotion as head of department, deputy principal or principal and a sideways move from one job to a similar one elsewhere. Hence, according Emmerson & Goddard (1993:89) induction encompasses the familiarisation process and is a continuous process of development. Induction enables individuals to take increasing responsibility for the satisfying of the personal and professional needs. It is a mode which the HRM use to create conditions for growth, for defining challenges, setting goals and targets. Induction is premised on the following key assumptions:

- (i) Each person is a unique individual, worthy of respect.
- (ii) Individuals are responsible for their own actions and behaviour.
- (iii) Individuals are responsible for their own feelings and emotions for their responses to the behaviours of others.
- (iv) New situations, however unwelcome, contain opportunities for new learning and growth.
- (v) Mistakes are learning experiences and are seen as outcomes rather than failures.
- (vi) The seeds of growth are within us. Only we ourselves can activate our potential for creativity and growth.
- (vii) We can all do more than we are currently doing to become more than we currently are.
- (viii) Awareness brings responsibility and responsibility creates the opportunity for choice.
- (ix) Our own fear is the major limiter for growth.
- (x) Growth and development never end (Whitaker, 1993:44-45).

In a similar manner, the notion of induction continues to build on what the other models have developed. Likewise induction programmes are aimed at empowerment of teachers by explaining job elements to them.

(b) Aims of induction

The following are universal objectives common to induction programmes:

- (i) To make employees feel welcome.
- (ii) To help the employee become a member of "the team".
- (iii) To inspire employees towards excellence in performance.
- (iv) To help employees adjust to the work environment
- (v) To provide information on the community, the school district, systems, building, department and students.
- (vi) To acquaint the individual with other employees with whom he or she will be associated.
- (vii) To facilitate the opening of school each year (Rebore, 1991:137).

(c) Essential components of induction

The essential components of induction include support, time, information (about the school, district, job description), familiarisation (with the school, its routines, its buildings, its staff and its learners), training and development opportunities (Emmerson & Goddard, 1993:89).

(d) Essential elements of induction

Essential elements of induction refers to the mode in which induction is unfolded to socialise personnel to gain their commitment and confidence, clarify goals and values (Kinlaw, 1995:10). These elements are a capital invested with the projected dividends being connectedness, belonging and self-confidence in staff. Among others, these elements or modes include : mentoring, counselling, tutoring, coaching.

(i) Mentoring

Mentoring is the process through which recruits are supported in the organisation by a colleague allotted to fulfil that support role (Büchner & Hay, 1998:20). Turner (1993:36) sees the role of a mentor evolving into the role of an exemplar – who demonstrates teaching and management techniques; peer supervisor – who observes and gives feedback; curriculum management adviser – who helps with lesson and longer term planning, “supervisor of classroom researcher – who encourages teachers to become reflective practitioners who engage in continuous self-evaluation; and also provider of a resource and consultancy service. In the same vein, Pont (1995:97) defines mentoring as:

“a process in which one person (mentor) is responsible for overseeing the career and development of another person (protégé) outside the normal manager or subordinate relationship”.

Mentoring is a protected relationship in which learning and experimentation can occur, potential skills can be developed and in which results can be increased in terms of competencies gained rather than curricular territory covered.

There are various reasons why mentoring should be introduced in organisations besides the general reason of empowerment. Among others, the following suffices :

- To support a self-development programme.
- Faster induction.
- Increased retention of staff.
- Better identification of potential.
- Ensuring professional qualifications are maintained.
- Development for the mentor.
- Building relationships (Pont, 1995:99).

Given the commitment, mentoring can work in schools.. It proves to be the cost-effective way of developing talent and increasing staff awareness of what is taking place in the organisation. Its common benefits to organisations include:

- Improved succession planning and management development.
- Faster induction of new employees.
- Better communications.
- Reduced training costs.
- Increased productivity.
- Reduced labour costs (Pont, 1995:99).

Likewise, the protégé also benefits from mentoring in form of receiving support for professional, teaching, career planning, knowledge of the organisation, role modelling and commitment.

(ii) Counselling

While for most of the time most teachers can deal with their own problems, everyone at some stage of their career life is in need of help. No man is an island and no one is in the situation where they will never need the help of others. The range of problems that affect teachers is very wide, hence it is necessary to give them an opportunity to explore, discover and clarify ways of living more resourcefully and towards greater well-being. This requires a set of techniques, skills and attitudes for teachers to manage their own problems using their own resources (Pont, 1995:137). Consequently, counselling comes in handy to facilitate in teachers self-knowledge, emotional acceptance and growth, and helps them deal with problems such as:

- employment – rationalisation; redeployment; strikes; dismissal; transfer; relationships with colleagues, principals, learners and parents.
- physical – AIDS/HIV, TB, cancer, disability, etc.
- emotional – depression, anxiety, threats, trauma, etc.
- family – aged parents, child abuse, domestic violence, etc.
- marital – divorce, separation, impotence, etc.

- relationships – partners, neighbours, racial/sexual harassment, etc.
- crime – burglary, hijacking, etc.
- substance misuse – alcohol, drugs, etc.
- bereavement/loss of next of kin.
- having – repossession, homelessness, etc (Pont, 1995:137).

Becoming aware of these problems does not mean that managers must become counsellors. However, it is necessary that managers:

- develop an awareness and use of basic counselling skills which will probably be used in developmental appraisals and in addressing minor problems affecting the employee;
- become aware of the power of consoling and its benefits; and
- become aware of their own limitations and know when to request external help.

The following are the counselling outcomes for managers:

- (i) Accurate descriptions of problems and their causes;
- (ii) Technical and organisational rights;
- (iii) Venting of strong feelings;
- (iv) Changes in points of view;
- (v) Commitment to self-sufficiency; and
- (vi) Deeper personal insight about one's feelings and behaviour (Kinlaw, 1993:22).

Counselling can help people with personal problems which may range from severe to minor. At some time one may need merely the opportunity to talk to someone and put the issue in perspective. We all need to unload on someone else and find a sympathetic ear. This may bring positive results in teachers. There is a need to establish therapeutic relationships whereby teachers with problems are made to feel the warmth and acceptance within the organisation. Therefore, there should be the freedom to express ideas, feelings and attitudes

(Burger, 1994:16). This will foster a balanced approach to development and empowerment, and having respect for the teacher's viewpoint and approaches.

By counselling one does not suggest that managers must go all out to look for 'affairs of teachers', but it means that managers have to be objective by maintaining a psychological distance and yet being sensitive and patient to teachers. As such the teacher(client)-manager(counsellor) relationship should be characterised by:

- An empathetic attitude
- Staying the client's problem
- The client feel free to say what he or she wants
- An atmosphere of mutual trust
- Rapport
- The client is free to make his or her own choices
- An atmosphere of tolerance (Burger, 1994:18)

Teachers and managers should know that asking for help is not a weakness but a sign of strength in that it opens our limitations, and ventures into a mine-wealth of new possibilities for growth and development. Hence it is necessary to explore other modes of induction such as coaching and tutoring.

(iii) Coaching

Coaching is a process by which managers stay in touch with subordinates. In terms of Sebolai (1995:53) coaching is an informal system whereby a manager transfer knowledge, skills, attitudes and standards to a subordinate or whereby he or she provides feedback. Coaching is relevant to empowerment when seen as:

"the process of achieving continuous improvement in an organisation's performance by developing and extending the competent influence of individuals and teams over the areas and functions which affect their performance and that of the total organisation" (Kinlaw, 1995:37).

The power to improve teachers performance requires managers to systematically increase the ability and the experience of teachers by giving them planned tasks coupled with continuous appraisal advice. Coaching will release the latent talent and skills, previously untapped by training (Pont, 1995:148). Coaching has as its primary goal the achievement of individual potential rather than giving basic skills as it is the case with training. Coaching helps teachers go beyond the basic requirements to release the skills that have not yet been released. In other words it develops the individual's potential to the full. Therefore, coaching will help in the retention of excellent teachers in the classroom.

The benefits of coaching are wide and varied and relevant to all educators – old and new. Coaching allows individuals to improve their performance on the job. To new recruits it is a means of familiarisation and orientation into the new organisation, new culture, new systems and procedures. For longer serving employees, it is a means of stimulation and tune-in to offer satisfaction and credibility of new systems, new culture effected by changes and developments. It ensures that years of accumulated experience are passed on to others. Coaching enable individuals who possess the potential to deliver excellent performance. People usually have greater aspirations than a manager realises and most want to be excellent performers. Coaching opens up the communication channels between the manager and the subordinate, usually making for improved relationships. Good relationships, in turn, make for a better and more productive working environment. And finally, the costs are low, so that a return on investment should soon be evident.

(iii) Tutoring

Induction may also take a form of tutoring. A tutor is an individual saddled with the responsibility to supervise initial training students on teaching practice; he or she inducts, supports and evaluates probationary teachers and is responsible for continuous development (Turner, 1993:36). Kinlaw (1993:22) identifies the outcomes of tutoring as:

- Increased technical competence;
- Increased breadth of technical understanding;
- Movement to expert status;
- Increased learning pace; and
- Commitment to continual learning.

All these modes are attributes of induction. The manager may decide to use any of these or a combination. Each has its own benefits. What remains is to establish who is responsible for induction because it appears that induction is critical to the restoration of the culture of teaching and learning and to development and empowerment of teachers as excellent practitioners who are to remain in the classroom.

(e) Who should induct teachers?

The act of induction requires someone who has been there for a long time. Someone who can guide and is trusted because of accumulated experience (Büchner & Hay, 1998:22). Turner (1993:41) suggests that the role of a mentor, counsellor, coach or tutor should not be assumed by the headmaster except where there is no alternative. This is because the headmaster is often viewed as authoritative and new recruits may not be free to actualise themselves fully. Ideally, any member of staff who has earned the respect of his or her colleagues is eligible. However, delegation of mentorship to a member of staff who is

uncertain and unscrupulous should be discouraged as their influence on the mentee and the organisation may create dysfunctionalities.

Quality mentors should incorporate the following requirements:

- (i) The ability to listen, observe and diagnose, and knowing when to interrupt and intervene.
- (ii) An understanding of human nature and psychology – in areas such as motivation, skill acquisition and goal setting.
- (iii) Recognising the importance of individual feelings and knowing when to spend time dealing with these feelings rather than directing efforts towards improved performance alone.
- (iv) Having awareness of one's own strengths and weaknesses. Self-awareness is recommended.
- (v) A caring, supportive and patient nature.
- (vi) Good verbal skills, especially in feedback (Pont, 1995:154).

In addition, the officer should exhibit the following values in his or her conduct:

- Empathy
- Genuineness
- Warmth and respect (Burger, 1994:20)

Thus, in that way teachers will be empowered. It has been noted from the above discussions that empowerment is generally about power relations – about influence. This affects the way an organisation is structured and the way people in leadership positions relate to other members of the school community. If too much power is held within the leadership and management structures of the school, it is likely that the school will not be functioning optimally, because the contributions of others will be constrained by this imbalance of power. The challenge is that people who hold positions of power should ensure that all other

role-players in the school feel able to participate meaningfully in the life of the school (Davidoff & Lazarus, 1997:162).

This requires the transformation of schools from a collection of "I's to a collective "we", and this will provide all other role-players a collective sense of identity and belonging. For the purpose of the above transformation there is a need for a shift in paradigms of power from a paradigm of "power over" to a paradigm of "power to". In terms of Sergiovanni (1994:198) such a change requires bonding and binding in which "communities" are established in schools. Once a community of mind emerges, schools become a place where people care for each other, help each other, devote themselves to their work, and commit themselves to a life of inquiry and learning. In this way leadership will be viewed as an influence relationship among leaders and followers who intend real changes that reflects their mutual purposes.

Empowerment is important simply because it is a basic human need to feel a sense of control over your life. Without this assurance, people tend to feel disconnected, undervalued and ultimately they become less engaged in their work. It is very difficult to put your heart fully into something if there is a fundamental sense of lack of control. It is very difficult to give fully in any context if people are lacking in confidence and assertiveness. The programmes and models discussed above have clearly indicated the role of confidence and assertiveness in the restoration of the culture of teaching and learning. Teachers who are to be retained in the classrooms should be the ones who are confident and assertive. Thus, empowerment is fundamentally geared towards attainment of confidence and assertiveness.

Likewise, effective managers should have self-confidence, self-knowledge and willingness to share with others. Empowered leaders should recognise that they cannot do everything in their own, and that far more is achieved by working collaboratively with others. Finally, educational managers should note that power

is something that is to be shared with different members of the staff. When people participate in shaping the life and direction of their institutions, the capacity is enhanced. Therefore appropriate structures and processes need to be put in place to facilitate such participation. This is referred to as capacity building – which is the topic for discussion below.

3.3 CAPACITY BUILDING

3.3.1 Orientation

The imperative of transformation of the education can be understood from the persistent legacies of apartheid in education: “One of the most visible legacies of apartheid is the complete fragmentation of the education system. The fragmentation went deeper. Education was sharply separated from the world of work and training; schools had very little contact with institutions responsible training teachers; in-service educators had little or no contact with colleges of education; technical colleges and technikons had very little to do with each other or with universities (Department of Education, 1996:17).

Apartheid led to an education system characterised by racial, region and gender inequality as well as ideological distortions in teaching and learning. The neglect of the quality of African education led to the disintegration of learning environments and the death of a culture of learning and teaching. The demise of the culture of learning and teaching was exacerbated by irrelevant curriculum (Flurry, 1996:26). Schooling was provided on racial biaseness – with White schools getting more key resources while black schools were the most disadvantaged. In African schools, the inadequate supply, low qualifications and poor morale of black teachers took its toll (Ashley, 1993:9; Department of Education 1997; Department of Education, 1998:50), creating despondency and apathy in many school communities. Students and schools in rural areas were, and still are, the hardest hit. High repetition and dropout rates are common.

There was insufficient support for teacher except in form of short in-service courses in didactic matters. The education system was fraught with problems ranging from education management, poor working conditions, and inadequate resources to discrimination. Hence, “during the 1970’s and 1980’s the school itself became a site of struggle in the resistance to apartheid. In many cases the resources and relationships which make the school an institution were almost completely destroyed. In other cases new patterns of conduct and networks emerged – some moulded in a culture of resistance, some strengthening resistance to change”. While these may have been effective in the years of struggle, they require reconstruction as well as transformation if the imperative of quality learning and teaching is to be achieved.

In order to facilitate quality teaching and learning, there is a dire need for management, institutions and personnel capacity to be enhanced. This ideal is steered by policy which:

“provided the historic bridge between the past of a deeply divided society characterised by strife, conflict, untold suffering and injustice, and a future founded on the recognition of human rights, democracy and peaceful co-existence and development opportunities for all South Africans, irrespective of colour, race, class, belief and sex” (The White Paper on Education and Training, 1995:17).

This statement provides a vision which explicitly commits educational managers to redress past imbalances and inequalities. However, capacity building seems to be a mammoth task when viewed in the light of challenges ranging from:

- dysfunctional structures,
- work ethos,
- appropriately skilled people,
- confusion of roles and responsibilities at different levels of management,
- poor coherence and co-ordination of resources,

- crisis management,
- poorly articulated programmes,
- mix of old and new styles of leadership,
- separate education and training tracks,
- weak linkage with industry,
- adverse organisational ethos and the culture of teaching and learning,
- a distorted labour market,
- inadequate and skewed funding, to
- weak and perverse incentives, etc. (Department of Education, 1996:28; Department of Education, 1998:8-9, 50-51).

3.3.2 Capacity building outcomes and basic requirements

The central thrust of capacity building is to improve the quality of teaching and learning by enhancing and developing the capacity of institutions and individuals who serve in those institutions. Therefore, the aims of capacity building are focused on addressing the following basic requirements:

- Strategic direction
- Organisational structures and systems
- Human resources
- Infrastructure and other resources
- Networking, partnerships and communication (Department of Education, 1996:10)

Thus, capacity building is explicitly linked to Reconstruction and Development Programme (RDP) capacity building aims at:

- (i) The development of an integrated system of education and training that provides equal opportunities to all irrespective of race, colour, sex, class, language, age, religion, geographical location, political or other opinion.

- (ii) Education must be directed to the full development of the individual and community, and to strengthening respect for human rights and fundamental freedoms.
- (iii) Designation of a new national human resources development strategy that is based on the principles of democracy, non-racism, non-sexism, equity and redress.
- (iv) Provision of development opportunities in accordance with national standards.
- (v) And education management development (EMD).

Consequently, the outcomes of these activities include enhancing:

- (i) the capacity to deliver by creating an environment conducive to quality education; to organise, plan, co-ordinate, systematise and structure; to facilitate, guide, support and enable; and to provide effective leadership in achieving educational goals;
- (ii) the capacity to learn and reflect by assessing and monitoring systems and processes, and to learn from that evaluation;
- (iii) the capacity to mobilise and use resources efficiently by harnessing new resources while at the same time making best use of existing, financial and human resources, and to work in partnership in so doing; and
- (iv) the capacity to innovate as shown when teachers work effectively towards paradigm shifts; organising the process of transformation and change.

Therefore, the prime aim of capacity building is to ensure that teachers and together with their environment are developed by creating an enabling environment whereby teachers are able to excel. In this way, their competence is enhanced. Table 3.4 clearly illustrates capacity building programmes in the Ministry of Education.

Table 3.4: Capacity building in the Ministry of Education

POLICY OBJECTIVES	PROGRAMMES	TARGETS	INSTITUTIONAL REFORMS	LEGISLATIVE PROGRAMME	FINANCIAL ARRANGEMENTS
1. Improved access to all levels of education	1. School building and rehabilitation	1. More equitable student-teacher ratios	1. Reorganise divided education depths into single national dept and 9 provincial depths	1. Single national education department	1. Education budget
2. Provide high quality education	2. Teacher education and development	2. Improved rural class ratios	2. Establish council of education ministers	2. National qualifications framework	2. RDP – supplement
3. Provide increased equity and efficiency	3. Electrify schools	3. Improved learning outcomes	3. Derive new system of consultative bodies of stakeholders	3. Provision of training in collaboration with the department of labour	3. Develop funding – partnerships
	4. Education quality improvement programme (EQUIP)	4. Improve attendance, participation and retention rates	4. Review current institutional forms of delivery, i.e. schools, colleges, technikons, universities, etc.	4. Consultative framework	4. Grant & Loan finance in consultation with RDP and finance
	5. School governance	5. Reduction of age profile of students		5. Employment and conditions of service	5. Private household financing especially of higher education
	6. Student health promotion and nutrition	6. Reorient enrolment towards science, maths and technology			
	7. Adult basic education	7. Internal & external efficiency in teacher and technical college			
	8. Early childhood development				
	9. Tertiary education loan and bursary fund				

Source: White Paper on Reconstruction and Development (1994:62).

This table illustrate direct and certainties of development in education, and they will dictate future education management development practices and policies. Equally, recognition of competence will be influenced in institutions. Hence, Combs (1981:369-370) posits that capacity building has the following educational implications:

- (i) We can never again hope to design a curriculum to be required of everyone. A common content is simply no longer a valid goal of education.
- (ii) The new goal of education is intelligent persons. Tomorrow's citizens must be effective problem solvers, persons able to make good choices and to create solutions on the spot. Hence the need to retain excellent teachers in the classrooms.
- (iii) Education must be a creative process not tied to any particular subject. One can solve problems effectively in any area of human endeavour.
- (iv) Education should emphasise democratic values so that a future of choices becomes a reality.
- (v) A future of change demands lifelong learning. The idea of an education completed at any given age or within any finite period is obsolete for the world in which we are moving.

Therefore, capacity building should resonate with economic changes whereby professions (including teaching) should be geared towards the rapid development economic fabrics. That is to say that the agenda for capacity building needs to address both qualitative as well as quantitative changes (Christie, 1996:408) if it is to succeed. Equally, it should commence by addressing the legacies of apartheid.

3.3.3 The Legacies of apartheid

Although section 3.3.1 of this chapter has endeavoured to address this issue, the following issues merit attention.

3.3.3.1 *The education management legacy*

In terms of the Department of Education (1996:18) the crisis in schools can be attributed to the lack of legitimacy in the education system as a whole. In the majority of schools this led to poor management and to the collapse of teaching and learning. In many schools, decades of resistance to apartheid discredited many conventional education practices such as punctuality, preparation for lessons, innovation, individual attention and peer group learning (Lethoko, 1999:26-36). To aggravate matters, some school principals were discredited as being 'sell-outs'.

Recent changes to the system of governance in education have resulted in school heads being unprepared for their new role as 'chief executives'. Consequently, the information systems in a large number of schools have broken down, and the necessary management competencies for professional growth, incentives and assessment are non-existent. Principals and teachers have been at the receiving end of the system failure even though they worked in regulated environment whereby the top-down structure was used. They consistently received instructions from the officials of the department with little input from them. As such, the departmental administrative units (District and Circuit Offices) were unable to respond to local needs.

Furthermore, the situation was exacerbated by the rejection of school inspectors who tended to be authoritarian bureaucrats engaged in 'policing' teachers and principals. As a result, many schools have no contact with circuit or district

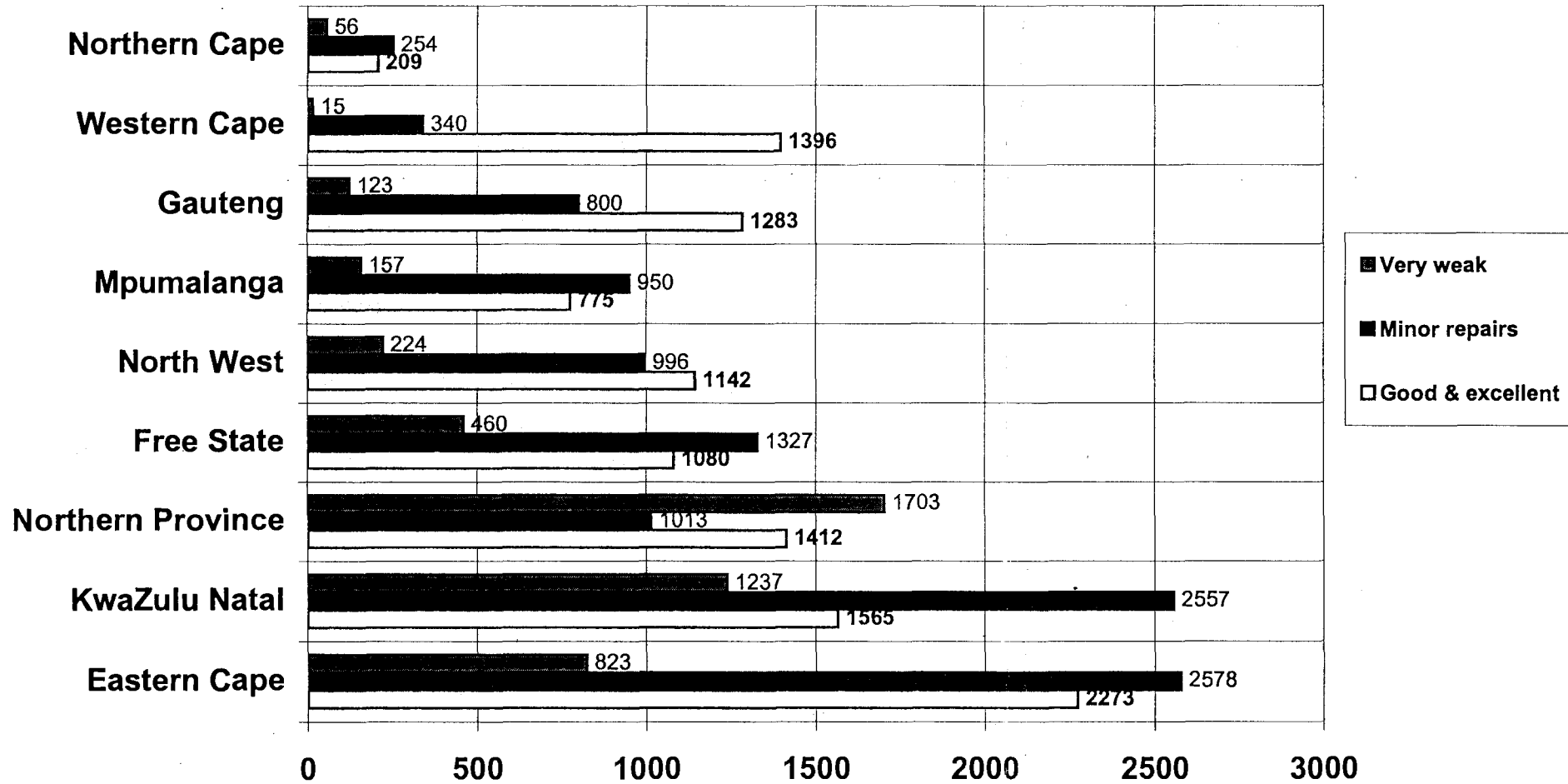
offices (Department of Education, 1996:20). Therefore, capacity building must address these anomalies in education management.

3.3.3.2 *The legacy of allocation of resources*

The way in which resources (teachers, classrooms, books, expenditure, etc.) were allocated during apartheid reflect a skewed approach. It means the present system is faced with a huge disparity between races as the methods used were race biased. Furthermore, the situation differs from urban townships to rural areas. The latter's problems seem to be out of proportion while the former's problems were aggravated by arson, violence, vandalism and crime (Metcalf, 1995:3). According to Metcalfe (1995) many schools need repairs and renovations and more money should be 'pumped' in for day-to-day maintenance.

The national picture, in terms of the Department of Education (1997)'s School Register of Needs Survey reveals a glaring disparity in individual provinces – with provinces which are predominantly rural suffering the aftermath's of apartheid. However, the Northern Province, as shown in figure 3.1, appears to be severely affected.

Figure 3.1: Number of schools according to condition of buildings (National)



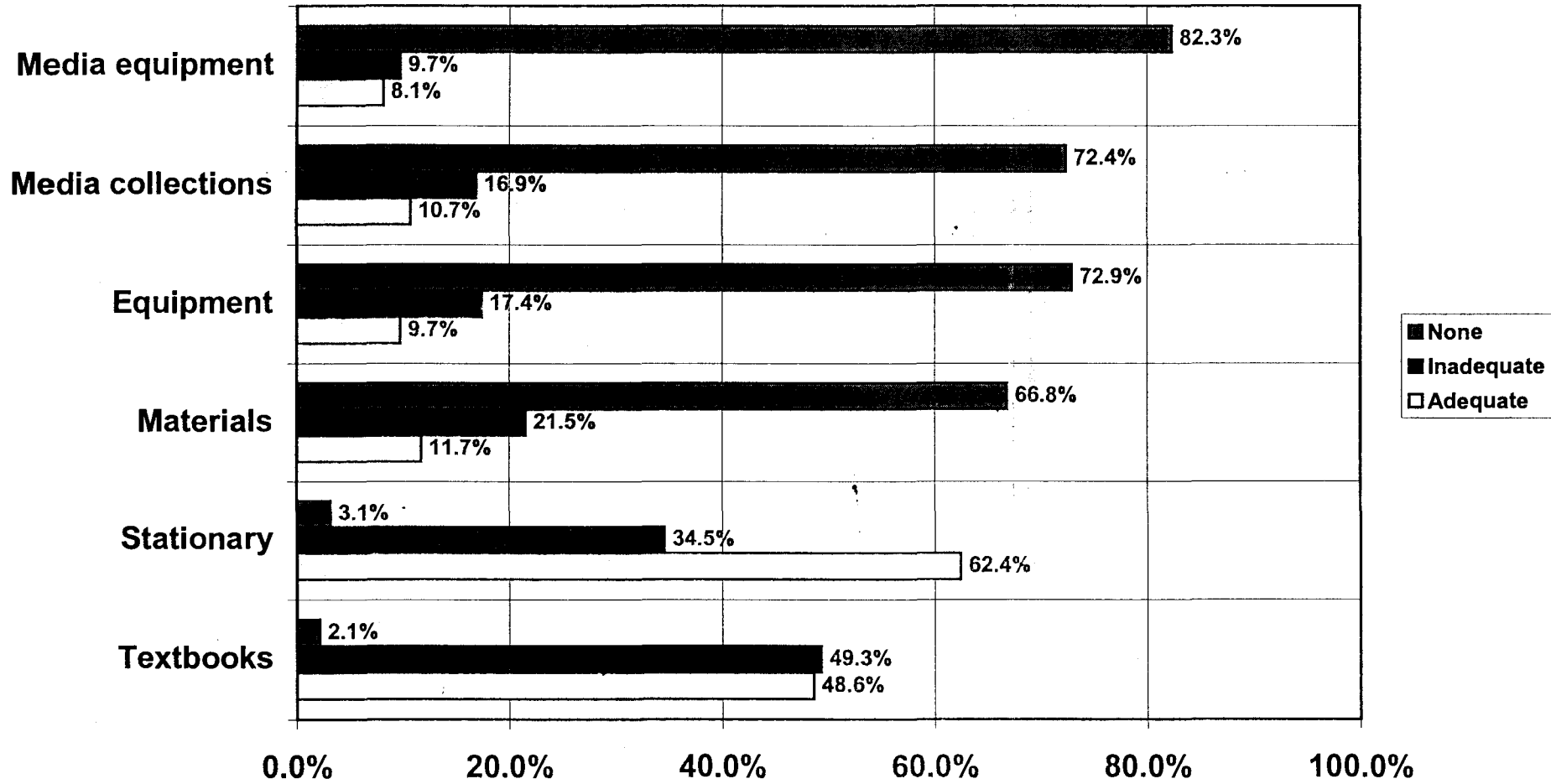
Source: Department of Education , 1997.

The way education in South Africa has developed historically means that we are confronted by serious inequalities of provision between different sections of the population. While it is clear that apartheid is dead, its legacy remains to haunt democratic endeavours. Hence it is necessary that the manifestations of inequality in the following areas must be addressed:

- (i) Expenditure : Even though equitable funding is contemplated in the new policy (Department of Education, 1996), there is a need for a rigorous programme because according to Thompson et al (1994:57) "providing equal dollar inputs for unequal students produces unequal results. Equal spending does not make education the great equaliser of the conditions of men. ... If education is to facilitate the movement of the poor and disadvantaged into the mainstream of social and economic life, if it is afford everyone equal probability of success, then equal facilities, teaching skills, and curriculum's are not the answer. Additional resources must be made available to" the disadvantaged groups. This is necessary and critical even though the gap in the per capita expenditure has been narrowed (Ashley, 1993:8). The situation is obviously still substantially unequal.
- (ii) Provision of School Buildings, Classrooms and Equipment

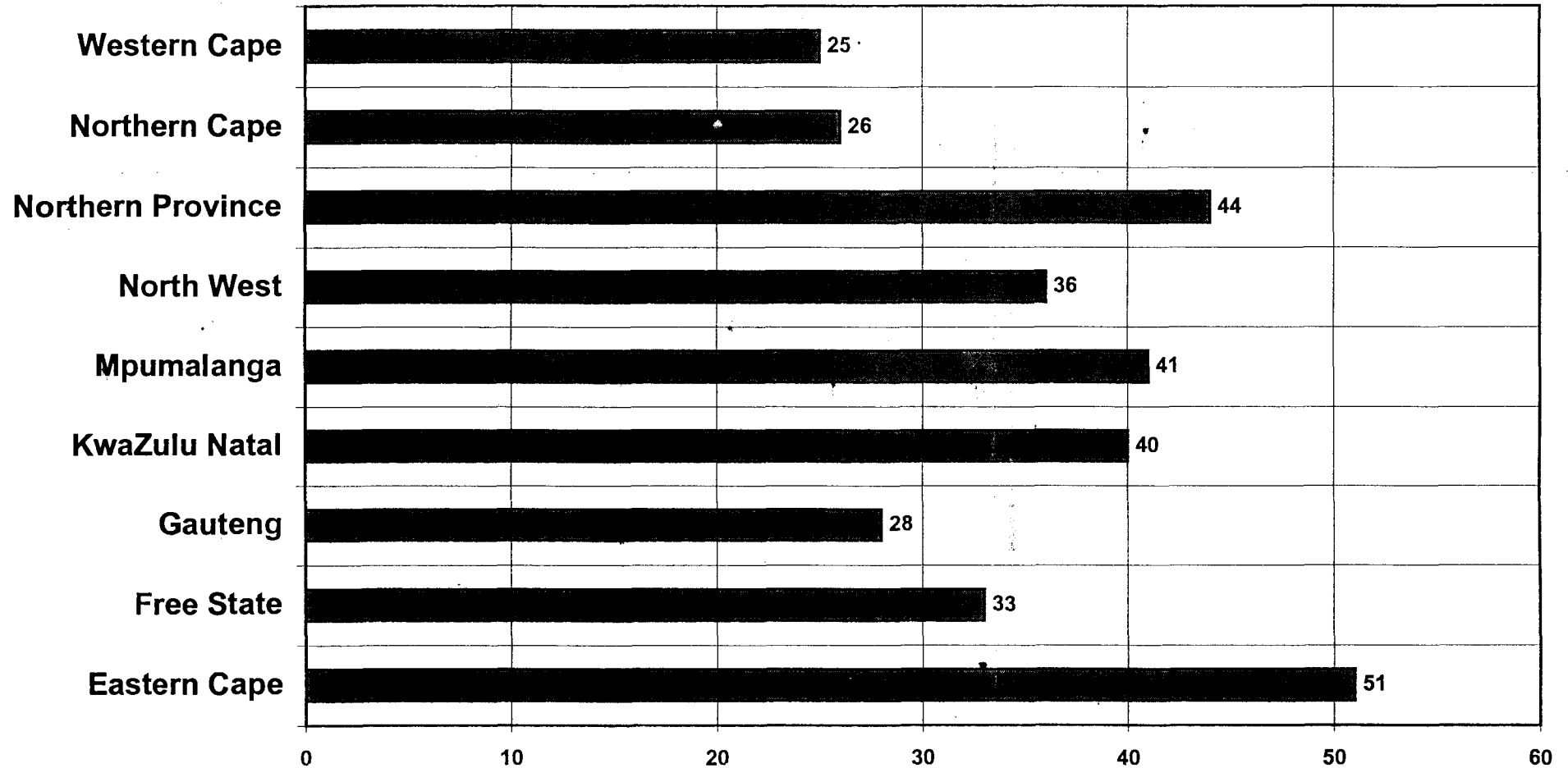
The following figures reveal that capacity building remains a daunting task.

Figure 3.2 : Provision of resources to schools (National)



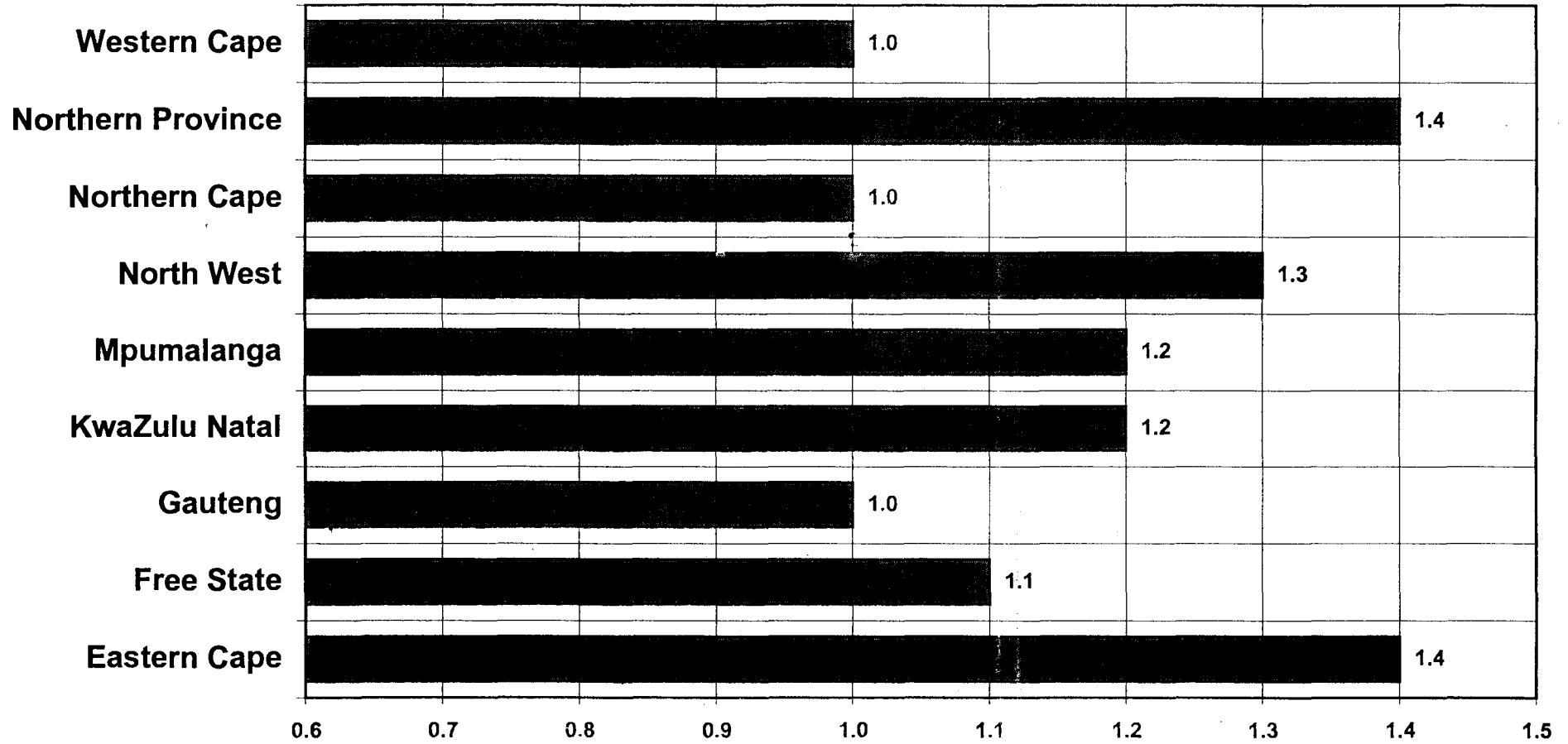
Source: Department of Education , 1997.

Figure 3.3: Learner-classroom ratio (National)



Source: Department of Education , 1997.

Figure 3.4: Educator-classroom ratio (National)



HSRC, Education Foundation, RIEP, Department of Education

However, Black schools are hopelessly under-provisioned. These figures portray the national situation, but not individual race cases. The greatest challenge is to apply the principle alluded to by Thompson et al (1994). The status quo cannot be maintained. Policy endeavours must be translated into action whereby critical resources are allocated to all equitably. Without such allocation the ideal of quality teaching and learning will elude us.

3.3.3.3 *The gender legacy*

Past practices in education management reflect broader discriminatory tendencies against women. Women remain invisible in management positions even though they are a majority in the society (Central Statistical Service, 1996 – shows that they constitute 51% of the population) and in the profession (Department of Education, 1997:198).

Table 3.5: Educators according to Rank and Gender 1994

	Female		Male		Total	
	Count	Percentage	Count	Percentage	Count	Percentage
Principals	9 790	42%	13 798	58%	23 588	100%
Deputy Principals	2 045	31%	4 480	69%	6 525	100%
Heads of Department	13 452	50%	13 676	50%	27 128	100%
Teachers	194 125	68%	90 537	32%	284 662	100%
Total	219 412	64%	122 491	36%	341 903	100%

Source: Edusource Data News. No. 10. October (1995).

While men make up 36 percent of all teachers in South Africa, they hold 58 percent of principal posts, 69 percent of deputy principal posts, and 50 percent of head of department (Department of Education, 1997:198). These statistics reveal a glaring discrimination against women. It has become part of the

organisational culture and is entrenched in hidden and basic assumptions which drive the invisible life of the organisation (Mitchell & Correa, 1997:84).

As such capacity building should be seen as a critical intervention to normalise the situation and enhance the capacity of women to assure them leadership positions in schools.

3.3.3.4 *The legacy in training and development*

Training and development practices of the past have tended to focus on the collection of qualifications and certificates with little attention being paid to actual competence to transfer this newly acquired knowledge in the classroom. This narrow focus on training and development is reflected in many of the courses and programmes offered by NGOs and Higher Education (Department of Education, 1996:24; Hofmeyr, 1997:47).

This is due in part because South Africa lacks a national strategy for dealing with the development needs of teachers. Courses tend to be menu-driven and not relevant to teachers' needs. The problem is exacerbated by lack of financial resources and infrastructure (Department of Education, 1996:24). The National Teacher Education Audit (Hofmeyr, 1997:47) made an investigation into this area and finds that:

- Teacher education is fragmented – no link between pre-service teacher education (PRESET) and in-service teacher education (INSET).
- There is a proliferation of private pedagogy and distance education – thus resulting in overproduction of teachers often in one stream.
- Most teachers enter teaching out of frustration and failure to meet requirements in other fields – so education provides them with an easy entry to tertiary education.

Therefore, capacity building must address these inefficiencies. Quality teacher education will ensure quality education in the classrooms. And this is the brief of the following programmes.

3.3.4 Capacity building programmes

Capacity building should be associated with the notion of utility in education, whereby the main concern is usefulness but not knowledge for the sake of knowledge (Brann 1979:24). In terms of this predisposition teachers should be regarded as worthy resource than merely a means to quality education. Utilitarianism should govern capacity building and permeate education in general. Utility in education has three aspects, namely:

- learning undertaken for use in further learning;
- education regarded primarily profitable to oneself;
- and education intended to fit one to serve others.

Issues related to this aspects were discussed in section 3.2.5 of this chapter. This section will continue to build on this sections. Capacity building should be seen as a submodel of empowerment in that it also addresses the issue of improving the teacher's professionalism by focusing on the teacher's academic development, professional and career development, management skills and coping with changes in education (Reddy, 1992:5). However, the main thrust of this section will be equity considerations, and other related issues.

3.3.4.1 *Anti-discrimination programme*

Historically South Africa emerges from the debris of apartheid whereby development of skills, knowledge and expertise were afforded certain groups while the large section of the population was sidelined. Hence the misconception of competence is associated with certain groups. As such, the backlogs created

by the erstwhile dispensation should be addressed as matter of urgency. The education system should refrain from withholding or limiting access to opportunities, benefits and advantages that are available to other members of the society. It means that discrimination should be rooted out in education. Education cannot afford:

“the practice or act of making distinction between people based on such characteristics as race, ethnicity, nationality, language, faith, gender, disability, or sexual orientation, which leads to the inequitable treatment of individuals or groups” (Mitchell & Correa, 1997:84)”.

While South Africa’s new democracy has meant that “the doors of learning shall be opened to all”, (ANC; Freedom Charter) the sight of developments in education is that some institutions are still basking on practices of the past (Eyber, Deyer & Versfeld, 1997: Introduction). Therefore, the programme of anti-discrimination should be intensified in educational institutions so as to harness competencies which were sidelined for a long time. However the paradox with this kind of a programme is that it may revert to discrimination when people are considered for positions or development merely because they belong to a certain group. Therefore, there is a need for careful advancement of certain groups. This requires good judgement from the management to avoid any distinction, exclusion or preference in respect of a particular job based on inherent requirements (Du Plessis et al, 1994:322).

Mitchell & Correa (1997:84) observed the situation in educational institutions and found that discrimination is compounded by race, gender, disability, sexual orientation, age, weight, etc. Discrimination is deeply rooted in culture, tradition or religious beliefs. Discriminatory practices are explicitly reflected in the value assigned to education assigned for girls, delegation of the reproductive role of women and the productive role of men, prescriptions regarding appropriate jobs for women and men, and the perceptions of women as secondary earners and

non-committed members of the work force (Lim, 1996:22; Lundy & Younger, 1994:11; Department of Education, 1997:85-86).

Discrimination disadvantages other groups and if continued it results in:

- unequal hiring standards;
- unequal opportunities for training and retraining;
- unequal pay for equal work, let alone for work of equal value;
- occupational segregation;
- labour status segregation;
- unequal promotion opportunities; and
- unequal vulnerability to retrenchment.

Therefore, the brief of capacity building will be to level the playing fields so that equality for all is achieved.

3.3.4.2 *Equality for all*

The notion of equality is invoked in education as a result of changes effected in education policies so as to resonate with constitutional requirement. Hence Ramphele (1995:6) posits that:

"Equality is non-negotiable with respect to rights of citizens before the law. All citizens ... have to be treated equally".

Although equality is laced with paradoxes and often seem difficult to practice, human resources managers are countenanced to persist in implement it. In the same vein, De Waal, Currie & Erasmus (1999:188) contend that "it is not the basic and abstract idea of equality that is so difficult and controversial", but what is so taxing is determining the similarity of peoples' situation and the treatment of people in a similar situation. With regard to the former notion it can be asked, for

example, if it is possible for a man to be allocated supervision of girls' hostels and a woman to supervise boys' hostels? With regard to latter, it can be argued if it is possible to expose a blind teacher to similar development programmes with normal ones? Answers to these questions leads us to two different types of equality, that is substantive equality and procedural equality.

(i) Substantive quality

Substantive equality refers to a contextual or purposive endeavours to equality. Bray & Maile (1998:8) allude that substantive equality requires examination of the actual social and economic conditions of groups and individuals to determine whether the Constitution's commitment to equality is being upheld. Consequently, one has to consider unique circumstances of persons. Therefore, to realise the ideal of equality in education it may be necessary to differentiate. Hence differentiation in this instance does not constitute discrimination. It is a fair discrimination.

(ii) Procedural equality

Procedural equality is often referred to as formal equality. This form of equality requires that all persons are equal bearers of rights irrespective of the actual social and economic disparities between groups and individuals (Bray & Maile, 1998:8; De Waal et al, 1999:190). Therefore, procedural equality promotes sameness of treatment. The paradox remains. Clearly such treatment may in fact discriminate against persons who are disadvantaged, thus resulting in unfair treatment of and unequal opportunities for them.

3.3.4.3 Equity

What has been noted above is that equal treatment in all cases, especially in our situation where the education system is still reeling from discriminations, also has the potential of reinforcing inequality. On the other hand, equity incorporates both equal treatment and preferential treatment. For instance, women as bearers of children have certain demands made on their time and bodies (Ramphela, 1995:6). Women cannot attend over-extended meetings because they have to look after children and have to breast feed their children. As such, these group of teachers need preferential treatment to allow them to cope with their biological demands. They need flexi-time and flexible career advancement.

Equity also concerns the need to set standards and to reorganise the nature of workplace environments which were previously the exclusive preserve of the advantaged group by ensuring that they support the development of all. For instance, breast-feeding and baby-sitting areas should be created for women, while ramps in educational buildings should be created for the proper functioning of the disabled.

Finally it can be concluded that equality and equity do not prevent education managers from making classifications and from treating some people differently to others. Managers may, therefore, classify people for a variety of legitimate reasons including recognition of competence. Legitimate differentiation is based on identifiable criteria – which is unfair discrimination. In other words, differentiation is permissible if it does not amount to unfair discrimination. Therefore, more differentiation should not deny equal protection or benefit of the law (De Waal et al, 1999:197).

3.3.4.4 Affirmative action

Affirmative action can be described as a systematic, planned process whereby the effects of racial discrimination are being reversed in all areas of life (Qunta, 1995:1). It provides opportunities not previously available to the disadvantaged groups through proactive programmes. Its antithesis is tokenism whereby members of the previously disadvantaged groups are 'sprinkled in the organisation in visible positions with no role to play. On the contrary, affirmative action is a carefully thought-out strategy, structured in such a way that it maximises the skills and potential for everyone.

Affirmative action is a programme of capacity building which branches out from equality to address the legacies of apartheid in the labour market. In the labour market the disparity in the distribution of jobs, occupations and incomes reveals the effects of discrimination of jobs, occupations and incomes reveals the effects of discrimination against the disadvantaged groups – Blacks, women (Black and White) and people with disabilities. Like it is indicated in section 3.3.4.1, these disparities are entrenched by social practices with perpetual discrimination in employment. These disparities cannot be remedied simply by eliminating discrimination. Policies, programmes and positive action designed to redress the imbalance of the past are therefore critical.

According to Mandela (1991) affirmative action does not entail giving handouts nor privileging skin pigmentation as it was the case in the past. It does not aim to do away with qualifications, and standards in education, but it is premised on justice and equality. Its aims are clearly spot-on in the Employment Equity Act, 1998 as:

- (i) To promote the constitutional right to equality and the exercise of true democracy;
- (ii) To eliminate unfair discrimination in employment;

- (iii) To ensure the implementation of employment equity to redress the effects of discrimination.
- (iv) To achieve a diverse workforce broadly representative of our people; and
- (v) To promote economic development and efficiency in the workforce.

When evaluating the programme of affirmative action, the following criticisms come to the fore:

- It constitutes reverse discrimination.
- It lowers standards as the affirmative action appointees underperform.
- It undermines merit and qualifications.
- It leads to incompetence.
- It increases tension in the workplace.
- It is equal to nepotism and cronyism (Quanta, 1995:17-28).

Despite these criticisms affirmative action is necessary to address the legacies of the past. If practised competently, as it shall be shown in the next chapter, affirmative action may yield positive results especially when it adopts a holistic approach driven by democratic principles, human rights and objectives outlined above.

3.3.4.5 Diversity management

Broadly speaking diversity management refers to the process whereby organisations with a diverse workforce employ mechanisms to enable everyone to perform at their peak and to contribute their own special skills and expertise. Diversity management does not seek to acculturate the minority or different racial groups into the culture of the dominant group within the organisation, but rather to harmonise the different cultures to the advantage of the organisation (Quanta, 1995:41).

In reality, schools, as organisations, enrol learners from diverse cultures and employ educators from different cultures as well. Therefore, diversity management should be a programme to which schools should pursue to assure quality in education. To ensure effective management of the system, diversity managers are needed to assess the constraints and possibilities of diverse groups in the population in terms of access as well as assessment and quality assurance through the NQF (see chapter for this). According to the Department of Education (1997:204) the education system is obliged to recognise the contribution which men and women with different skills, attitudes, knowledge and cultures can make in improving education quality. It is thus, important to focus on anti-discrimination, equality, equity and affirmative action programmes to meet diverse needs of the system and organisations.

Quality education is attained when friction from cultural and racial stereotyping and conditioning, and from victimisation are reduced. Diversity management aims not to ignore racial, cultural and gender differences but to prevent these from making a section of the workforce unhappy and unproductive, and thus harming the organisation's business. Therefore, diversity management is a programme which complements the others.

3.3.5 Capacity building quality contributors

In the South African context, the commitment to quality education requires capacity building in schools. This entails that managers must seek ways to encourage, identify and develop individual human talent. As schools strive to retain excellent teachers in the classrooms, potential quality assurance mechanisms become critical. Quality embodies widely differing conceptualisations, such as exceptionality, perfection, fitness for purpose, value for money or transformation. According to Fourie & Bitzer (1998:29) an appropriate system of quality assurance must embrace a transformative notion of quality and it should facilitate and ensure a process of continuous quality

improvement. When relating quality to capacity building the following aspects are relevant: accountability, professional capital, well-behaved teachers and nation building. Each will be discussed individually.

3.3.5.1 Accountability

Accountability is a set of commitments, policies and practices that are designed to heighten the probability that good practices will occur for students; reduce the probability that harmful practices will occur; and provide redress and internal self-correctiveness in the system to identify, diagnose, and change courses of action that do not promote good practices for students (Urbanski, 1998:452). In this the South African context (with particular reference to Gauteng Province), accountability in education is necessary in learning sites without a sound culture of learning and teaching. Gauteng Education and Training Council (GETC)(1999:29) probed the culture of learning and teaching and found that it is characterised, in some schools or sites, by:

- declining work ethics, waning self-discipline and social problems which impact negatively on teaching.
- teachers who are not punctual and do not make their own teaching materials.
- teachers who are content with the status quo.

In short, these schools lack in accountability which is founded on elements such as planning, reporting, monitoring, assessment, communication and responsiveness (Kuchapski, 1998:193). The decline in teaching and learning culture is thrown in the deep end of the sea when everybody is not focused and directional. This does not mean that there should be 'policing' in teaching as it was the case in the past whereby school inspectors were bent on witchhunt (The Teacher Organisations Working Committee, 1994:3). The challenge of improving the culture of learning and teaching requires motivational and developmental approaches to accountability because:

"What impedes effective teaching and learning is not that teachers are the problem; it is that teachers work within outmoded, unprofessional systems" (Urbanski, 1998:449).

By taking responsibility for redesigning schools and abandoning unexamined practices and policies, we can restructure the teaching profession in ways that promise more productive teaching. Accountability is a shared responsibility which is driven by the quality of purpose among all the stakeholders. That is to say, all members of the school are driven by common vision (Fourie & Bitzer, 1998:29). The reason why accountability (formerly known as inspection) was rejected was that inspectors did not share a common vision with teachers. Therefore, there is a need to sell one's vision and mission in the first place. Thereafter choose the right and achievable objectives. School managers should be clear on what the institution's plans are; how they are developed and approved; how they are implemented and their effectiveness is assessed; and how they are reviewed and revised in the light of changed circumstances and evaluation of performance. In the same vein, accountability with the purpose of transforming schools democratically should be based on capacity building programmes and those programmes related to empowerment.

These programmes encouraged participative management. The involvement of teachers is necessary because in terms of Ramusi (1998:7)

"Teachers in particular are not content to be mere followers of top-down instructions but want to be involved in decision-making processes. They are people with current feelings and desires, who feel excluded or undervalued if their views are silenced or ignored".

Therefore, accountability should be premised on democratic management to minimise resistance, and effect change smoothly. The fruits of accountability are wide ranging and can be summarised as a sound culture of teaching and learning.

3.3.5.2 Building professional capital

The decline in the culture of teaching and learning has been accompanied by many teachers losing a sense of the distinctive kind of service they should be offering in schools, to a serious impoverishment of the understanding of the constituting responsibilities of teachers (Morrow, 1994:28).

Although many teachers have been trying harder to discover or rediscover their responsibilities, their intentions are confounded by the immensity of the problem. As individuals they cannot succeed, and many have given up to fulfil their responsibilities. There is a need for collective action. However, collectivism should be complemented by a fundamental shift in attitudes, in the way teachers relate to each other and their environment, and in the way resources are deployed to achieve equity and growth.

There is a need to articulate and operationalise the work ethic (Sibson, 1994:28). This entails that the set of views, values, attitudes and norms that induces teachers to do their best at work should be transformed. Hence, Mokaba (1998:17) argues that deploying human capital is not enough. Professional capital is a precondition for capacity building. Professional capital includes things like honesty, trustworthiness, dedication and determination. The education system cannot afford a situation whereby:

"everybody is bent on trying to cheat everybody else, everybody steals whatever they can wherever they can" (Mokaba, 1998:17).

No matter how huge resources are made available, as long as the professional capital is lacking no sound teaching and learning culture can be built. If teachers disregard timetables, absent themselves without reasons, and learners dodge lessons, cheat in examinations, officials inflate or deflate data (as it was the case in Mpumalanga) our education system will crumble. Therefore, professional

capital is needed across the board (Van Rensburg, 1994:5; Morrow, 1994:28 and Venter, 1997:241).

The absence of professional capital in teachers rages the debate on whether teaching is a profession or not (Badenhorst & Scheepers, 1995:68). There is no code of ethics, teachers are often not familiar to new methods and techniques and their participation in educational research is often at a low level. The report by the GETC (1999) bears testimony to this arguments. What is missing is:

- the provision of quality service to other people;
- specialised current knowledge;
- the right to manage own affairs; and
- a code of ethics.

If these requirements are met then teaching will become a profession. However, with the promulgation of the Employment of Educators Act, 1998 teaching is moving towards professionalism because the Act entrenches and envisages a professional organ that will regulate teaching – the South African Council for Educators (SACE). Thus, these changes mark a new era in teaching whereby standards and norms will be regulated, teachers' conduct will be monitored, etc.

3.3.5.3 *Managing teachers' behaviour*

Managing behaviour can be a bit of a problem. The main way people judge others is observing their behaviour and coming to conclusions. Such approach is somewhat akin to judging the extent of an iceberg by its tip. Keetan (1996:5) avers that 90% of behaviour (its structure) is hidden beneath the surface. No one knows exactly what is lurking in the ocean depths. The behaviour that is worth managing for capacity building is the problem behaviour. When people are behaving well, there is no necessity to explore the reasons for their behaviour. But when they are not, it becomes critical to manage them. This is not to

suggest that managers must become fathers and mothers to teachers, but they should be aware of the extent of the teacher's problem behaviour and introduce management strategies that will remedy or improve the teacher's circumstances. Managers need to observe behaviour objectively, must not confuse personality with behaviour and must circumvent misinterpretations of the teacher's actions.

In that note it can be concluded that if managers make effort to understand behaviour, they will find it very much easier to manage their own organisations and get on better with teachers. Knowing more about the origins of behaviour allows the manager to understand that when teachers do not behave like themselves there is probably a very good reason, and that when they do not behave like them, they are simply behaving like themselves. [Refer to paragraph 2.5.2.1(d) for more details].

3.3.5.4 *Education for nation building*

The transformation discourse in the South African education system has set education on the course of nation building. The imperative of capacity building invokes nation building in education. According to Higgs (1998:41) nation building is a strategy used to create unity from diversity. Support for a process of education for nation building is based on the contention that, in order to deal with the problem of reconciling cultural diversity with national unity, there needs to be committed to the development of a sense nationalism, as well as a common culture committed to nation building.

In this project it is argued that the recognition of competence with the element of transformation, represents an empowerment programme which is driven by a sense of utility (see the orientation paragraph of section 3.3.4 of this chapter). That is to say, education should be made to serve the needs of the state and the economy. Hence it is mentioned in the previous sections that education should be concerned primarily with the self-empowerment of an individual person which

will permeate needs of the state policy and the vocational interests of commerce and industry.

3.4 CONCLUSION

In this chapter I have outlined how the current emphasis on competencies in advancing South Africa to new trends in world markets begins with empowerment and capacity building in education. With regard to empowerment I have discussed the shift in paradigms of managing schools and individual teachers. It has become evident that the transfer of power from education managers to teachers is done to the benefit of both. However, each model or approach discussed reflected advantages and disadvantages. Nevertheless the quality of education can be maintained if empowerment is regarded as a continuous process not a "once-off" issue. People need to be constantly refining and improving their skills, knowledge and attitudes.

The development of teachers' skills, knowledge and attitudes takes place in a particular setting. Realising that the legacy of apartheid may confound our efforts in improving education, capacity building is pursued to level the 'playing fields'. That is to say that, an enabling environment is created to empower individuals to perform at their peak.

When put together, empowerment and capacity building seem to be a model that is geared towards recognition of competence. Recognition of competence, as expressed in empowerment and capacity building, is concerned with values that sustain the teaching professional world by seeking to promote self-development which will enable individuals to cope with technical, intellectual and professional dynamics as well as with transformation challenges. Therefore, recognition of competence seems to be a relevant model for human resources management in South Africa currently.

CHAPTER FOUR

4. METHOD OF INVESTIGATION

4.1 INTRODUCTION

In the preceding chapters the researcher outlined, through a literature review, constructs and maxims that are fundamental to the recognition of competence. Although a literature review reveals that the South African education system is engaged in a move towards competence education, there is still a need to ascertain whether such policy initiatives have filtered through to the point of practice – that is the schools. As such the purpose of this chapter is to determine, through empirical research, the extent to which benefits and progress asserted by individual writers, including government departments' reports, are valid and real and point out areas for further development.

Therefore, this chapter will focus on an empirical research which is a form of research that involves asking a large group of people questions about a particular topic or issue (Neuman, 1997:229). Thus, this is not a diametrical shift away from theories, models, presuppositions and predispositions discussed in the preceding chapters. But the empirical research is undertaken in order to:

- prove the theoretical foundations of the theories discussed in the previous chapters;
- to get the real 'feel' of the situation; and
- to investigate the extent of the problem.

Therefore, the empirical research will complement the literature review. This method does not castigate previous theories but builds upon them. Neither does the empirical research attempt to duplicate the frontiers of knowledge reached in the previous chapters. This approach is premised on the idea that

"Until you have learned what others have done in your area, you cannot develop a research project that will contribute to furthering knowledge in your field" (Johnson, 1994:186).

Thus, literature review forms the foundation on which empirical research should be built.

4.2 METHODOLOGICAL CONSIDERATIONS

The following research methods have been used by the researcher:

4.2.1 Literature study

Continuing from the above maxims, one can say that a literature review is critical to research because it contributes a set of interrelated constructs (concepts), definitions, and propositions that presents a systematic view of phenomena by specifying relations among variables, with the purpose of explaining and predicting the phenomena. For instance, it was possible for the researcher to establish the relationship among recognition of competence, empowerment, capacity building and retention. Therefore, the literature study provides a sound knowledge base

- to systematise and summarise the existing knowledge;
- to assess the validity, internal consistency, assumptions and implications of the empirical findings;
- to provide a provisional explanation for observed events and relationships; and
- for the stimulation of the generation of a new knowledge base by providing clues for further research (Garbers, 1996:280).

The review of literature is helpful in the interpretation and analysis of data collected by allowing the researcher to see how he or she deviates from what has already been done. In this way it allows the empirical research to advance, refine, revise and develop existing theories or models. Johnson (1994:186) identifies the benefits of a literature study as:

- delimiting the research problem;
- seeking new approaches;
- avoiding sterile approaches;
- gaining insights into research methods; and
- helping in developing and inventing tentative solutions to problems.

Therefore, it was for this reason that a literature study was undertaken. And this sense of purpose has driven the researcher to use a survey.

4.2.2 The survey method

Likewise, a survey is a useful approach in empirical investigation because it helps the researcher to look at a phenomenon in a real life situation and is a way of precluding one's own preconceived ideas to cloak, obfuscate or obscure what one aims arriving at (Du Plooy & Killian, 1990:30). This is possible because a survey is usually representative and independent of a specific context (Garbers, 1996:288).

A survey is an objective method, although having its own limitations that increases the likelihood that the researcher will make rational judgements and decisions concerning recognition of competence. It provides a powerful source of evidence (Garbers, 1996:30).

4.3 AIMS

In Chapter One the general aim of this project were identified as an investigation of human resources management (HRM) aspects that influence the quality of service in public education. Secondly, to identify measures that can assist teachers to realise their full potential and enhance their professional development and career planning. And thirdly, to help analyse ways and means of ensuring that rewards, empowerment and capacity building match the teachers' needs and those of their schools.

4.4 TARGET GROUP FOR THE INVESTIGATION

The study involves principals, deputy principals, HOD's and all teachers in both primary and secondary schools of the Southern Region of the Northern Province of the Republic of South Africa. It was decided to involve all these groups because the quality of service depends on all of them. No single individual can restore and maintain quality service (teaching) (Lethoko, 1999:46). Each teacher's performance is influenced by several factors including the way teachers are rewarded even by principals, deputies or HODs. Therefore, it was an imperative to include all these groups of respondents in the survey.

4.5 RESEARCH METHOD

4.5.1 Questionnaire as a method of research

4.5.1.1 Questionnaire construction

The nature of this study has compelled the researcher to focus on management staff of schools because they are in a day-to-day contact with the nitty-gritty of teachers' competence, rewards and the performance of teachers in general. The researcher developed questionnaire items from sources such as:

- Literature study (books, journals, dissertations and theses)
- The researcher's experience as an education manager.

The questionnaire was constructed in such a way that the respondents select an answer from a list of answers provided. The questionnaire was drafted in such a way that the respondent's identity (in form of name, address or telephone number) was not required. However, data regarding gender, age, post held and type of school was needed for the purposes of analysis but not identification. Learners were not considered for this research.

It was important to draft the questionnaire in such a way that it helps school managers to identify the level of competence, empowerment and capacity building in their organisations and determine how competence, empowerment and capacity building are related to other organisational variables such as perceived job characteristics, job satisfaction and intentions to quit. The questionnaire attempted to address several important issues on measuring attitudes, such as constructs and observable indicators, reliability and validity.

(i) Constructs and observable indicators

A construct is a theoretical construction about the nature of human behaviour. Personality characteristics (such as anxiety and self-esteem), management styles (such as consideration of subordinates and initiating structure) and job attitudes (such as job satisfaction and social support at work) are examples of constructs addressed in the questionnaire. The researcher hopes that the constructs will help education managers understand teachers' behaviour such as their enhanced authority to act such as when quality standards are compromised.

(ii) Reliability

According to Hayes (2000:48) reliability is the degree to which measurements are free from random errors. Reliability can be thought of as the relationship between the true underlying score and the observable score. Random error decreases the measurement's reliability; that is, as random error is introduced into measurements, the observed score is not a good reflection of the true underlying score. For the researcher to feel confident that a questionnaire's

scores accurately reflect the underlying dimension, the questionnaire must have high reliability.

(iii) Validity

Validity refers to the degree to which the evidence supports the inferences made from the scores derived from measurements or the degree to which the scale measures what it is designed to measure. Unlike reliability, there is no single statistic that provides an overall index of the validity of inferences about the scores.

In the same vein, the researcher developed the attitude survey according to the following steps:

- (a) Defining the construct to be measured. This was done by using words or other constructs. Basically, the construct is defined in the way that words are defined in the dictionary.
- (b) Generating items to measure the constructs. These items which act as observable indicators bring the construct into the observable world by specifying how it can be measured. Items were generated through the literature review, consultations with the supervisor and personal experiences. The number of items needed to measure a construct were limited for convenience and respondent's friendliness, and varies from one construct to the other.
- (c) Evaluating the items. The quality of items generated in step two was evaluated. This is what the researcher referred to as a pilot study. The generated items were compiled into a trial questionnaire which was given to a sample of respondents being a representative sample of the population for which the questionnaire is targeted. For example in this project school management teams in both primary and secondary were targeted.

PART A dealt with biographical data which included aspects such as gender, age, experience, type of school, position held, highest qualification and field of specialisation. These data was required because of their influence on the respondent's responses.

PART B dealt with recognition of competence. The researcher wanted to determine the challenges that teachers and management encounter in schools.

The following scale was used

Agree	1
Neutral	2
Disagree	3

on reasons for entering teaching, commitment to teaching as a lifelong career, factors that offer teachers prospects of career orientation, threats to teaching, and possible reasons for leaving teaching. In addition, the researcher used the following scale

Highly satisfactory	1
Satisfactory	2
Uncertain / do not know	3
Not satisfactory	4
Highly unsatisfactory	5

This scale was used on aspects such as reward and compensation and reasons why teachers seek promotion. Furthermore, the researcher used the scale such as:

Very often	1
Rarely	2
Seldom	3
Never	4

to determine teachers' career contingency factors.

PART C dealt with empowerment. The researcher used the following scale

Agree	1
Disagree	2

to find out about teachers' attitudes about the prevailing situation in their schools, and how they cope with changes occurring in education. The researcher went further to use the scale such as

Always	1
Often	2
Seldom	3
Never	4

to enquire on empowering school management models, teams, partnerships and networks. And finally, the researcher used the scale such as

Believe	1
Disbelieve	2

to determine excellence in teaching. Statements included in this category ranged from issues including extracurricular activities to academic life of the school.

An attempt was made to ensure the accuracy of the statements included in the questionnaire. Several drafts were made and discussed with the supervisor and the research support division of the University of Pretoria. In consideration of their suggestions the initial drafts were changed until the final draft was accepted by all of them. Accuracy in eliciting information was ensured in the construction of the questionnaire by looking into all aspects of education management that impact on recognition of competence, empowerment and capacity building as well as the retention of excellent teachers. A pilot survey was conducted to evaluate the clarity of the items included in the questionnaire. Two primary schools and two secondary schools' management teams were used to evaluate the questionnaire items. The management staff members of these schools

responded to the questionnaire and did not experience any problems. All the items were clear to the respondents. As such, no alterations were made to the final draft. Finally, the questionnaires were distributed to – both primary and secondary schools in the Southern Region of the Northern Province of the RSA.

4.5.1.2 Structured questionnaire

The researcher opted for a structured questionnaire because it proves to be more practical and effective. Its advantages are:

- Data is easily collected and many respondents can be reached.
- Standardised instructions can be given so that respondents know exactly what is expected of them.
- A questionnaire is cheap and does not require educated personnel to help fill it in and is relatively easy to administer.
- A more objective opinion can be given when the questioner is not present.
- With a well-planned, neat, and good questionnaire, the co-operation of people becomes easy (Smith, 1983:165).

However, a structured questionnaire is not without disadvantages and limitations. Smith (1983:168) identifies the following as disadvantages of a structured questionnaire:

- Lack of individual understanding. The possibility of repeating questions as the respondent does not understand the question from the outset.
- Low response rate.
- Many questions are not answered.
- No control of external influential factors.
- Questionnaires delivered personally are a financial burden.
- Respondent(s) hide or run away when one comes back to collect the questionnaire.
- Respondent(s) complain of not finding enough time to complete the questionnaire, and some are unwilling to comply.

4.5.1.3 The self-administered questionnaire

The researcher undertook to distribute questionnaires all by himself and collected them as well. The above hiccups were experienced. However, the structured questionnaire is found to be the best method to motivate respondents and convince them that the study is worthy and valid. This was done on the accompanying letter. As such, a self-administered approach was adopted. Each respondent received a printed questionnaire and completed it by using a pen or pencil. In some cases, the researcher was present when the questionnaires were filled in. Therefore, two types of self-administration were followed.

(a) Supervised administration

With regard to the supervised administration, the researcher took the following steps in administering the questionnaire:

- Respondents were identified, called into one location and were given questionnaires.
- Each respondent completed the questionnaire individually.
- The researcher was always available to provide introductory instructions, answer questions and monitor the extent to which the questionnaires were completed.

(b) Unsupervised administration

Due to time constraints some questionnaires were distributed and left with the principals. According to Ely, Anzu, Friedman, Garner & Steinmetz, (1991:130) this represents an unsupervised administration of questionnaires. The evaluation of this type of administration (self-administration) reveals advantages and disadvantages. The advantages are:

- The researcher has an opportunity to learn about a set of characteristics, attitudes or beliefs of the sample population.
- Cost: Self-administering questionnaires is cost-effective in the sense that the researcher goes to one school once and never again, there is no need for a follow-up in most cases.
- The researcher is not available to answer questions.
- The researcher can monitor communication between respondents.
- The researcher can monitor completion of the questionnaire appropriately and timeously.
- There is a considerable degree of response rate – people are more likely to respond at a given time.

The disadvantages are:

- It can be a very expensive exercise as it includes a lot of travelling from one place to another on a daily basis.
- For some topics on complex issues, some people might feel more uncomfortable in the absence of the researcher.
- Some people feel obliged to paint a favourable picture of their school or principal. (King, Keohane & Verba, 1994:90).
- The researcher applied for study leave to conduct the research. Thus, the use of mail or postal questionnaires was not explored, but instead self-administration was used to expedite the process and save time. The researcher's presence helped to clarify some questions and doubts, and some respondents had to be assured of anonymity. Therefore the self-administered (supervised) questionnaire was the best option for the researcher.

4.5.2 Interviews

An interview is a face-to-face confrontation, it is an oral exchange between an interviewer and an individual or a group of individuals. The researcher has chosen this method of research because of the following reasons as concurred by Fraenkel & Wallen (1993:385):

- (i) it is an important way for the researcher to check the accuracy of, to verify or refute the impressions he or she has gained through observation.
- (ii) to find out what is on the mind of the interviewees – what they think and feel about something (teacher retention in this regard).
- (iii) to find out from people those things that one cannot directly observe.

4.5.2.1 *Informal interviews*

Not derogating from the other types of interviews such as structured, semi-structured and retrospective, the researcher has chosen informal interviews which were conducted during the research. This type of interview is sometimes called "an open-ended conversation interview". (Anderson, Herr & Hihlen, 1994:115).

Informal interviews have the following characteristics:

- they are much less formal than structured and semi-structured interviews;
- they tend to resemble casual conversations, pursuing the interest of both the researcher and the respondent in return;
- they do not involve any specific type or sequence of questions or any particular form of questioning;
- the primary intent of an informal interview is to find out what other people think and how the views of one individual compare with those of another;
- they offer the most natural situation for the collection of data; and
- they are the most common types of interview in qualitative research (Fraenkel & Wallen, 1993:385).

The researcher held some informal conversations with principals, deputy principals, head(s) of department and senior teachers on issues relating to recognition of competence, empowerment and capacity building as well as retention of teachers. The report of the responses will be provided later in this chapter. The readers should note that like any other research technique, informal interviews have advantages and disadvantages.

4.5.2.2 Advantages of informal interviews

- (i) As an open situation, informal interviews have greater flexibility and freedom.
- (ii) Extensive opportunities for response.
- (iii) Offer possible opportunities for probing.
- (iv) The rate of return is very good.
- (v) They are a good tool to use when one wishes to know how a person feels about events.
- (vi) They help the research to gain perspective on how others understand and interpret their reality (Anderson, et al, 1994:115; Cohen, et al, 1980:244).

However, the interviewer plays a key role in determining the sequence and wording of the questions asked (see appendix 2). Hence, the researcher has planned this interview in such a way that the purpose or aim of this project is clearly reflected. For instance, in this interview, the researcher focused on:

- Communication
- Rewards
- Appointments
- Redeployment and job security
- Provision and supply of resources
- Academic background
- Leadership style
- Parental involvement
- Teachers' morale
- Policy documents

- Learner representation

While the above were possibilities enjoyed by the researcher during the interview on the one hand, on the other hand, the researcher experienced certain limitations such as those mentioned below.

4.5.2.3 *Disadvantages of informal interviews*

- Sometimes it is difficult to compile a good list of sequential questions.
- Some people do not answer questions honestly and therefore skew the data.
- Lack of anonymity as the interviewer can see the interviewee (Anderson, et al 1994:114).

4.6 REPORT ON INFORMAL INTERVIEWS

The researcher visited 116 schools within the Southern Region of the Northern Province. In that visit the researcher managed to interview principals, deputy principals in the absence of principals and heads of departments. Teachers and learners were not interviewed except where a teacher was acting in a management position. In some cases teachers were nominated into management portfolios, as part of local arrangement to "beef up" the management team of the school. Such teachers were interviewed as well.

	Primary Schools	Secondary Schools	Total
Interviews	62	54	116
Survey	107	68	175
Questionnaires distributed	178	92	270
Questionnaires returned	112	65	177
% of questionnaires returned	62,92%	70,65%	65,55%

The researcher interviewed and undertook a survey in some cases – while in others only interviews were conducted or a survey was conducted. The total number of schools where both interviews and surveys were undertaken were 89 – (48 primary schools and 41 secondary schools). Therefore, the 116 total of schools used for interviews is inclusive of the 89 and the 175 also includes the 89. Consequently, 27 schools were interviewed without conducting the survey and 86 schools were used for the survey only.

4.6.1 Opinions of heads of department

In most schools heads of department (HOD) cited lack of academic background in education management as the main cause of the poor management in schools. They are of the opinion that principals use conventional knowledge to run schools, and thrown into the deep end of the sea because there are insufficient programmes to develop them. In such cases such principals derived personal satisfaction from autocracy thereby stifling human relations among staff. Consequently, the staff component of such schools is divided and group rivalry is common. Those who cannot cope, frequently absent themselves from school with the excuse of attending meetings in the circuit or going to submit departmental documents to the circuit. HOD's posit that principals have lost moral authority, hence the crisis in schools-teachers are not punctual, abscond from lessons, learners dodge classes and truancy and ill discipline are the order of the day.

However, most HOD's are positive about the fact that the situation may improve in some schools if parental involvement can be enhanced. They see the role of school governing bodies (SGB's) as watchdogs. They are of the opinion that the Department of Education should not disregard SGBs. They lament the fact that in some cases parents are exploited because they (parents) are convinced that because they are uneducated they are therefore of less use in the discussions and debates on school matters. On this issue most HOD's conclude that there is a need for development programmes for SGBs if their contributions are to exert more weight. One reason why progress in education is impeded so much is the attitude some teachers have about parents. Some HOD's cite the fact that

teachers think that parents should not interfere with classroom matters because they are not professionals. With most SGB members being illiterate they dare not confront teaching problems, which exist in their schools.

Furthermore, the HOD's are of the opinion that teachers morale have declined substantially because of:

- Cynical criticism from the media and department officials;
- No rewards or praise but accusations;
- Inadequate and late supply of books and stationary;
- Overloaded (In fact in extreme cases one or two teachers were facing schools with all grades – usually in primary schools);
- Shortage of staff;
- Lack of classrooms, laboratories, offices and library buildings;
- Poor working conditions in terms of salaries and other benefits; and
- Political influence on teachers.

Most HOD's point a finger at the provincialisation of education. According to them provincialisation of education has led to a plethora of different provisioning systems. The process of procurement and supply of resources like books has become complex. It takes long to get books. For instance, the process starts with selection which is devolved to schools, the selection is sent to the Circuit office, the Circuit then supply the Area office with inventories which are sent to the regional office. The whole process is slow. The continuum is further extended by the tender system which include:

- Paper manufacturers
- Paper suppliers
- Printers
- Publishers
- Booksellers

Any delay or problem between any of the players has a domino effect to hold up work later down the line. Whilst there are problems at provincial level, districts and regional offices are affected. Hence schools encounter problems such as non-return of books at the end of the year, inadequate storage facilities, inadequate stock management and retrieval systems, incorrect book requisitioning, unwise spending and vandalism.

In addition the HOD's are of the opinion that the low ebb of performance in teachers is exacerbated by the "loss of job security". They posit that redeployment has affected teachers' performance tremendously. Teachers are uncertain about their future. Another difficulty which HOD's have to grapple with daily is the misuse of the recognition given to learner representative councils (LRCs). They are of the opinion that while LRCs are an integral part of school governance and management, certain elements of this structure are bent on destabilising schools. They demand farewells at an exorbitant amount and cause strikes in schools.

The HOD's are also critical of the discrepancies that exist in policy documents that are aimed at transforming schools. For instance they were critical of the fact that ELRC collective agreement on the job description of teachers does not give a definitive clue on hours of work. This creates tension between the school management and teachers. There exists a difference on the interpretation of these agreements. This problem is aggravated by trade unions who report differently. The opinions of HOD's are not different from those of principals or deputy principals.

4.6.2 Opinions of principals or deputy principals

In some schools principals complain of poor communication between them and the department of education. For instance, they complain that some circulars do not reach them early. They either receive circulars on the day of submission or day(s) after due dates. In some cases the unions report to their members on particular issues. Teachers hear of certain things before them and this creates discrepancies when they have to report later. Usually this happen to schools

which are not accessible as a result of poor roads and lack of telephones. They report that what worsens their predicament is reports from the radio which speak of "fresh changes" while they have 'old' circulars. This leaves them in a dilemma. They do not know which one to believe.

They complain about the fact that many teachers are burnt out. If opportunities can be there most teachers may opt out of the system – hence voluntary severance packages were placed on a moratorium. Most principals believe that the situation is aggravated by insufficient rewards. This happened when annual increments were reviewed. Most of the teachers do not understand what happened to their salaries.

In most schools that I visited principals were complaining that there is no longer appointments in a full time capacity in management positions. Those who were appointed were to act. Acting to them creates several problems, among others:

- one's vision is shortened – one can only think of short term policies not long term ones;
- there is no continuity;
- one is unsure of the future;
- a sterile environment is created with schools continuing with business as usual even if there is a dire need for change; and
- acting managers are not respected because they are thought to be 'sojourners' in their posts.

In the same vein, most principals are of the opinion that redeployment causes havoc. There has been a long delay in this strategy – which many see as effective retrenchment rather than the large scale reshuffling of teachers to needy areas. They regard the process as slicing a path of destruction through schools, ridding them of their most valuable staff members, affecting academic achievement and causing depression, anxiety and poor performance among teachers.



Principal after principal spoke strongly against redeployment – which they believe has been poorly managed and they fear that it will backfire soon. Many principals have spent months locked in paperwork battles with department officials in a bid to save their classrooms from being left without teachers. Personal tensions are increasing because of the workload. Most schools are left with no option but to hire their own personnel via their school governing bodies. With this approach principals also complain that although it will make the much needed teachers available, those teachers have fewer benefits and are sometimes paid less than their state-employed colleagues. Sometimes the disaster is that poor performing long-serving teachers retain their jobs at the expense of excellent teachers. This usually happens in the fields of Natural Sciences and Mathematics.

Redeployment affects the job security of teachers according to most principals. Teachers don't know whether they will still be employed tomorrow. They say that most affected teachers feel used and abandoned and are resentful of their conditions. They can't plan ahead because they are constantly thinking that not after long they will be out of the system and their jobs.

Most principals complain that they are not given the right to interview teachers on the redeployment list. They complain that although the department has held several formal and informal meetings with all stakeholders to streamline its policies, aims, objectives and activities, there still remain problems with regard to this process.

The principals also lament of the political climate created by the new democracy by allowing trade unionism among teachers. In line with the open-door policy of the Department to give organisations and individuals freedom to air their views and grievances, the Department treated the marches, sit-ins, pickets and even strikes by teachers as part of the educationally accepted processes of communication and consultation. Many older generation of principals felt threatened by young teachers who had relatively good paper qualifications and were committed to ideas of democracy and social change. Some of these younger generation of teachers often confuse education as a political turf where

one's political yearnings can be realised. They see the principal's role of communicating with the Department as a blacklist and 'selling out'. As a result many of these teachers would use what is available to discourage or even threaten principals. They did most of their activities in the name of unions to counter authority and accountability. Hence, it is common to hear of principals ousted. The whole of the accountability system has fallen down. Some teachers prevented principals and HOD's from entering classrooms for any purpose whatsoever. However, these practices did not occur in all schools. Nevertheless, the crisis is widespread and enormous. The hard reality is that these labour activities contribute to the decline in teaching and learning. Most principals cite the fact that it is a problem to control the entire school when teachers have gone to union meetings, marches and strikes. Learners do not easily return to schools after strikes. In addition, principals complain of issues identified by HOD's as contributors to teachers' low morale.

Another problem identified by principals is the lack of parental involvement. They mention the fact that because most of the members of the SGBs are illiterate there is limited participation in decision-making and management. Principals say that this creates negative perceptions of the SGBs who are criticised as being rubber-stamps of principals, management stooges and puppets who are manipulated by the principal. Ultimately the governance structure of the schools is rendered unfunctional. The role of the SGB should be clearly defined. Equally, the role of the LRC should be spelt out to curb the abuse of powers given to student leaders. These leaders do not co-operate with principals and are bent on a destructive course. For instance, in some secondary schools the LRC have been accused of inciting students to strike in demanding a farewell function, whereas the little money available was used to buy rudimentary materials desperately needed for teaching and learning.

Principals are of the opinion that more in-service development programmes should be conducted first for the management team and teachers later to enhance their capacity of management, and support should be readily available for all stakeholders.

4.7 FINDINGS FROM THE SURVEY

4.7.1 Introduction

Data in this section was derived from the views of principals, deputy principals and heads of department as well as senior teachers, who are nominated locally by the school governing bodies (SGBs) to beef up the management team, in both primary and secondary schools. The data which are presented was completed by representative samples of respondents from the Southern Region of the Northern Province of the RSA.

The researcher has drawn in the services of the University of Pretoria's statistician in the Department of Research Support and Statistics/Information Technology. This crucial resource was used for the analysis of data.

4.7.2 Coding and scoring

The researcher extracted data and converted it into scores to enable the computer to do a fast grouping of similar responses. This process is called scoring or coding. The data was checked for correctness, all items were correct except for the fact that some frequencies were missing. This was caused by the fact that some respondents did not respond to some questions. However, in general, there were responses to all questions.

In the presentation, analysis and interpretation of the results, the research will not deal with all the items in the questionnaire but will select the most important parts (questions).

4.7.3 Presentation, analysis and interpretation of the results

(a) Biographical data

Table 4.1: Biographical and educational data

V3 Gender	Frequency (f)	Percentage (%)
Male	87	50,0
Female	84	49,1
Totals	171	100
V4 Age (in years)	Frequency (f)	Percentage (%)
20 – 29	8	4,6
30 –39	89	50,9
40 – 49	61	34,9
50 – 59	17	9,7
Totals	175	100
V6 Type of school	Frequency (f)	Percentage (%)
Primary	107	61,1
Secondary	68	38,9
Totals	175	100
V9 Highest qualification	Frequency (f)	Percentage (%)
2 years education diploma	26	14,8
3 to 4 years diploma	85	48,3
B degree (3 to 4 years)	15	8,5
B degree and diploma	31	17,6
Honours degree	11	6,3
Other qualification	8	4,5
Totals	176	100
V10 Field of specialisation	Frequency (f)	Percentage (%)
Management	31	19,5



Science	21	13,2
Mathematics	24	15,1
Technology	4	2,5
Commerce	9	5,7
Humanities	46	28,9
Other field	24	15,1
Totals	159	100
V13 Geographical area	Frequency (f)	Percentage (%)
In a township	17	9,7
In an informal settlement	2	1,1
On a farm	1	0,6
In a rural village	156	88,6
Totals	176	100

Analysis and interpretation of data

Data contained in table 4.1 reveal certain aspects of the situation in education. For instance, it can be said that there is probably an improvement in gender equality. 50,9% of the respondents were males while women constituted 49,1%. The fact that this study targeted school management teams – principals, heads of departments and deputy principals, means that there appears to be an effort to advance women in the management of schools. However, this endeavour should be accelerated to meet the target of 51 percent because females constitute more than 50% of the population. On the whole, a glaring discrepancy crops up when one considers responses in V7 (as shown in the table below).

(b) Current position

Table 4.2: Present position

V7 Present position	Frequency (f)	Percentage (%)
Principal	27	15,4
Deputy Principal	7	4,0
Head of Department	35	20,0
Teacher	106	60,6
Totals	175	100

Analysis and interpretation of data

To clarify this, one needs to refer to Chapter four of the report on informal interviews and the target group. To recapitulate from the report on informal interviews, it was found that most members of the management team were appointed in an acting capacity or are local appointees by the Circuit/SGB. This group waits for approval from the department. Hence the highest number of respondents were teachers – 60,6%. There is a probability that very few women are managers, while men are still in the majority. This should be viewed in the light of the fact that more respondents appears to be from primary schools (see table 4.1 on biographical data). Therefore, there is a possibility that more women managers – principals, deputy principals or heads of department may be concentrated in primary schools. The table below attempts to clarify this.

This argument is substantiated by the above table. With regard to principals, an adjusted residual is used. For instance,

$$\begin{aligned}
 \text{Males } fe &= \frac{fe \ fr}{N} \\
 &= \frac{86.25}{169} \\
 &= 12,7 \text{ males}
 \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned}
 \text{Females } fe &= \frac{fc \ fr}{N} \\
 &= \frac{83.25}{169} \\
 &= 12,3 \text{ females}
 \end{aligned}$$

The standardised residual is

$$R = \frac{fo - fe}{\sqrt{fe}}$$

If $R = 72,00$ and is positive, then the number of observations in that cell is greater than would be expected due to chance only (males principals). If $R = 72$ and is negative, then the number of observations in that cell is lower than would be expected due to chance only (female principals). Therefore, the percentage of

female principals is not statistically significant and that of males is significant according to the standardised residual.

Table 4.2 Gender* Present position Cross-tabulation

		Present position				Total
		*Principal	Deputy	HOD	Teacher	
Gender	<u>Male:</u>					
	Count	18	4	14	50	86
	Expected Count	12.7	3.6	17.8	51.9	86.0
	% within Gender	20.9%	4.7%	16.3%	58.1%	100.0%
	% within Present position	72.0%	57.1%	40.0	49.0%	50.9%
	Adjusted Residual	2.3	.3	-1.4	-.6	
	<u>Female:</u>					
	Count	7	3	21	52	83
	Expected Count	12.3	3.4	17.2	50.1	83.0
	% within Gender	8.4%	3.6%	25.3%	62.7%	100.0%
	% within Present position	28.0%	42.9%	60.0%	51.0%	49.1%
	Adjusted Residual	-2.3	-.3	1.4%	.6	
Total	Count	25	7	35	102	169
	Expected Count	25.0	7.0	35.0	102.0	169.0
	% within Gender	14.8%	4.1%	20,7		
	% within Present position				60.4%	100.0%
		100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

The cross-tabulation above reveals that most males appear to be occupying management positions in schools. For instance, 50,9% of the respondents were males, while women constituted 49,1%. This data should be interpreted in the light of sections 2.5.1.1.7 and 3.3.3.3. It appears that women still occupy lower posts although they are in the majority in teaching and in the population. Seemingly, this practice might have emanated from the perceptions of the society at large. Furthermore, South Africa is a patriarchal society, which means that women are given a chance to take leadership positions in their career. The perceptions are deeply rooted in rural areas.

It appears the Department of Education in the Northern Province is not managing its human resources effectively. There are many local appointees (either acting and waiting for official appointment or appointed by the SGB to complement the management team of the school).

(c) Field of specialisation

The data contained in table 4.1 reveal that most members of the school management teams have specialised in humanities - 28,9%. Only 19,5% constitute those who have qualifications with specialisation in management. Very few are qualified in technology and commerce. When viewed in the light of V9 (highest qualification) a disturbing possibility emerges. According to table 4.1 the greatest percentage of respondents namely 48,3% only possess a 3 to 4 year diploma. The probability that some of the principals will fall in this group is thus relatively high and many managers may be academically poorly equipped to perform their task. However, it appears as if 95,7% of the respondents claim to have between 1 to 20 years of experience. Some of the managers may thus be relatively experienced in respect of their particular task.

(d) Geographical area

Table 4.4: Geographical area (V13)

V13 Geographical area	Frequency (f)	Percentage (%)
In a township	17	9,7
In an informal settlement	2	1,1
On a farm	1	0,6
In a rural village	156	88,6
Total	176	100

Analysis and interpretation of data

Table 4.4 clearly shows that most of the schools that participated are situated in rural areas (88,6%). Only 9,7% of schools that participated are located in townships. There are few schools in an informal settlement (1,1%) and on farms (0,6%): When considering the revelations made in Chapter three regarding the conditions and provisions of resources, one could possibly conclude that there is an acute shortage of resources (90%). The inadequate supply of furniture is estimated at 54%; and insufficient classrooms (41,58%) (HSRC, 1998:15). These statistics given by the HSRC and those from this research confirm that there is still a great deal to be done in rural areas given the shortages and conditions of schools in such areas. These shortages and conditions are acute and in extreme cases a teacher has to teach the entire primary school classes alone. Those factors could be important contributors to low pass rate in the province because even though the principal is experienced and capable, it is humanly impossible to teach and manage the entire school alone. This extreme case was observed by the researcher in a few primary schools – which means that sometimes secondary schools receive unfinished products from their feeder schools.

(e) Reasons for entering teaching

Table 4.5: Personally satisfying job

V9 Highest qualification	Frequency (f)	Percentage (%)
Agree	100	61,7
Neutral	29	17,9
Disagree	33	20,4
Totals	162	100,0

Analysis and interpretation of data

The data contained in table 4.5 illustrate that most teachers sampled (61,7%) enter teaching to have a personally satisfying job. This may augur well for retention, and account for low attrition. 17,9% of the respondents gave a neutral answer. Neutrality is not a permanent emotion or feeling, it may be changed if conditions of employment can be changed and improved. Another aspect of neutrality is that it fluctuates according to personal circumstances such as self-esteem, task variety and social orientation. The 61,7% who agree may be those who have higher levels of self-esteem, who enjoy task variety, task importance and participation. They are probably satisfied with their jobs, felt more valued and perceived their jobs as having higher levels of variety, importance and participation compared to those who disagree (Hayes, 2000:49).

Those who disagree constituted 20,4%. This percentage could represent a group of school managers that may quit teaching at some or other time. However, to indicate that one disagrees does not mean that one is ready to quit. It may be dissatisfaction emanating from less empowerment, improvement and commitment on the side of the Circuit, Region or Department. This could mean that job satisfaction is significantly related to the Circuit, Region or Department's lack of commitment to quality.

Table 4.6: To have a high-paying job

V15 Highest qualification	Frequency (f)	Percentage (%)
Agree	28	17,1
Neutral	46	28,0
Disagree	90	54,9
Totals	164	100,0

Analysis and interpretation of data

Table 4.6 reveals a significant finding that 54,9% of teachers disagree that they entered teaching to have a high paying job. This is probably the group of teachers who agree that they entered teaching because they want personal satisfaction (61,7%), they want to make a contribution to the society (86,5%) and to be of service to children (91,0). Although one cannot give a guarantee that teachers are satisfied with their salaries, it is possible to conclude that generally teachers not prioritising salaries for their continued service in the education system. Therefore, retention of teachers is a combination of several factors, not only salary, including those mentioned above. 82,2% percent of teachers agree that they entered teaching because they like children. This bodes well for their retention because 57,7% disagree that they entered teaching to have a backup job while pursuing another career. Therefore, there is a need to ensure their job security and a steady income so that those excellent teachers can remain teaching in the classroom. Their strength is that they knew what they were doing when they went to college or university (83,0% disagrees, V26).

Table 4.7: To have job security and a steady income

V9 Highest qualification	Frequency (f)	Percentage (%)
Agree	83	49,7
Neutral	50	29,9
Disagree	34	20,4
Totals	167	100,0

Analysis and interpretation of data

The data contained in this table indicates that a large percentage of respondents (49,7%) claim to have entered teaching to have job security and a steady income. While the researcher agrees that employment in the public service could be seen as offering job security and a steady income, the researcher cannot condone the way in which probation and tenure in education were handled. The commitment to quality requires a review of probation procedures and tenure requirements (see chapters 2, 5 and 6 for more clarity). If the current way of managing retention (probation and tenure) are continued, then the ideal of quality will elude us. There are two sides to this finding. First, those who are satisfied that employment in teaching will offer them job security and a steady income may be highly motivated, but secondly, job security and a steady income should be enjoyed by teachers whom we are sure will meet the required standards in the performance of their daily tasks. The second side alludes to the fact that the accountability of the education system should be revamped to provide quality tenure. Tenure cannot be acquired en masse.

(f) Commitment to teaching as a lifelong career

In this category, teachers were requested to indicate whether they agree, are neutral or disagree with features of a teaching career that satisfy them most. It appears that most teachers disagree (43,1%) that holidays are a major stimulant for their continued teaching. This concurs to Maslow's theory of motivation. It can possibly be concluded that teachers are satisfied more by task achievement and self-actualisation as well as a sense of superiority and belongingness, than by holidays. This is justified by 52,7% who agree that they continue to be of service in teaching because they wanted to grab the opportunity to practice one's own ideas. Perhaps this is not a true reflection of the situation on the ground taking into consideration that this survey focused mainly on members of management teams.

Whilst 49,7% agree that teaching offer job security and a steady income, 46,6% also agree that they entered teaching for economic security, a fact that may overrule reasons alluded to above. Another significant finding is that it appears that most teachers continue to serve because they seem to enjoy relationships with staff and pupils (78,8% agree), and are satisfied with working hours (56,6% agree). Therefore, it appears as if some of the conditions of service are perceived to be generally satisfactory. See the table below for more details.

Table 4.8: Features of teaching that satisfy most

Features		Frequencies (f)			Percentages (%)		
		1	2	3	1	2	3
Holidays	V28	51	40	69	31,9	25,0	43,1
Opportunity to practice one's ideas	V29	87	53	25	52,7	32,1	15,2
Economic security	V30	76	47	40	46,6	28,8	24,5
Staff/pupil relationships	V31	134	28	8	78,8	16,5	4,7
Working hours	V32	94	34	38	56,6	20,5	22,9

(g) Factors offering teachers prospects of career retention

Table 4.9: Prospects of retention

V33 Factors offering prospects of retention	Frequency	Percentage
Management	35	20,5
Curriculum	44	25,7
Teacher-pupil ratio	62	36,3
Affirmative action	15	8,8
Technology	15	8,8
Totals	171	100,0

Analysis and interpretation of data

This item dealt with factors over which teachers have little or no control but offer them prospects of career retention. Most teachers (36,3%) believe that the teacher-pupil ratio offers them the prospect of career retention. This is a reality which is taken into account by the employer. The Department of Education also uses teacher-pupil ratio as part of its post provisioning scales to determine posts. The availability of teachers depends on pupil enrolment. Where there are declining enrolments, some teachers have to be moved to other schools where there are acute shortages. This factor is also used in the process of redeployment.

Only 8,8% of the respondents believe that affirmative action and technology offer prospects of career retention. Perhaps the low response to these factors can be attributed to lack of understanding of affirmative action and the rate at which change occurs in most schools. It should be noted that the communities around the schools sampled were constituted of one race only. Many respondents may perceive that affirmative action means advancing Blacks where Whites are also

present. However, in reality there are many women serving in teaching and therefore they should also be advanced.

With regard to technology the intensity of technology in general appears to have been ignored. Perhaps there was a need to define technology more precisely. However, given the circumstances and conditions alluded to in paragraph (d) above, the low response may be attributed to the level of development in rural areas. Hence, teachers do not believe that technology may affect their career. The reality is that technology has come and develops and changes at a rapid rate. It is going to affect operational requirements of jobs. Consequently, teachers will need skills that will help them to retain their jobs. It is critical to be literate in technology so as to be functional in this technological era. Therefore, it appears that in rural areas, schools are "run as usual". There seems to be no deliberate attempt to reverse gender imbalances and to introduce technology in schools.

The 25,7% of the respondents agree that the curriculum is also a force to be reckoned with in the retention of careers. Only 20,5% of them believe that their continued service in teaching depends on management (Department of Education). It can be stated that the curriculum threatens prospects of career retention among teachers because one teacher's field of specialisation may not be relevant to any new curriculum introduced. This may include cases where for instance, a teacher is qualified in Biblical Studies and there is more emphasis on the natural sciences, mathematics and technology. Biblical studies ? teachers may thus be threatened by declining enrolments in their subjects. Over and above that, they may be lacking skills necessary for Curriculum 2005.

(h) The most unsatisfactory aspect of teaching

Table 4.10: Unsatisfactory aspects of teaching

V35 Unsatisfactory aspect of Teaching	Frequency	Percentage
Class size and workload	94	53,4
Status of the profession in society	13	7,4
Promotion prospects	13	7,4
Extent of non-professional work	12	6,8
Overwhelming changes	44	25,0
Totals	177	100,0

Analysis and interpretation of data

This data should be analysed and interpreted in the light of postulations and findings from research by HSRC (1998) as quoted in paragraph (d) of this section. 53,4% of the respondents regard class size and workload as the most unsatisfactory aspect of teaching. This percentage represents a group of teachers whose schools are probably understaffed and overloaded as a result. Perhaps this high response can be attributed to the fact that in most cases the formula for staff allocation based on teacher/pupil ratio does not practically translate into a sufficient number of required teachers because enrolment in subjects is ignored in favour of the entire school enrolment. Consequently, teachers whose subjects have a high enrolment are overloaded. This is probably the case in most schools.

Another significant number of educators (25,0%) feel overwhelmed by changes that are occurring in education. Perhaps, teachers are paradoxically overwhelmed by transformation initiatives. This concurs to findings arrived at by Monareng (1998:99) that most teachers (66,4%) feared change because it makes them uncertain about the future, are not sure of their qualifications and

affects their skills in handling the subject matter and discipline among learners. This fear for change seem to hold the truth when considering that the introduction of Outcomes-Based Education threatens to erode teachers' skills. The problem is exacerbated by insufficient training and development as well as insufficient supply of books and other learning materials.

(i) A means of recognising competence

Table 4.11: Promotion is a means of recognising competence

V44 Means of recognising Competence	Frequency (f)	Percentage (%)
Highly satisfactory	31	22,3
Satisfactory	43	30,9
Uncertain/do not know	26	18,7
Not satisfactory	31	22,3
Highly unsatisfactory	8	5,8
Totals	139	100,0

Analysis and interpretation of data

Promotion is regarded as a means of recognising competence. 22,3% of the respondents regard promotion as highly satisfactory, and the same percentage regard promotion as not satisfactory. It means that promotion probably occurs at an average rate. However, when considering the 30,9% who regard promotion as being satisfactory, one can conclude that promotion is taking place at a satisfactory rate although the percentage is too low. This item should be interpreted in the light of responses in V36. In V36 23,2% regard the rate of promotion as satisfactory, while 21,9% responded that it is highly unsatisfactory in their schools. These confirm the confusion that is ever troubling the education department in the Northern Province regarding promotion of principals as

permanent appointees. Many principals are acting for a long time. This creates a lot of problems in schools (see the report on informal interviews).

(j) Career contingency factors

Table 4.12: Being male is regarded as a distinct advantage

V47 Being male is regarded as a Distinct advantage	Frequency (f)	Percentage (%)
Very often	52	32,3
Rarely	34	21,1
Seldom	38	23,6
Never	37	23,0
Totals	161	100,0

Analysis and interpretation of data

The data contained in table 4.12 reveal that there are still perceptions of gender discrimination among the teachers sampled. 32,3% of the respondents believe that being male is very often regarded as a distinct advantage in getting promotion or any form of recognition. 21,1% believe that this practice rarely happens. It means that occurrence of gender discrimination is not significant but meanders. This seem to tally with the idea that gender discrimination or male biaseness seldom (23,6%) or never (23,0%) happen. Therefore, the researcher can conclude that male biaseness is perhaps so subtle that it cannot be openly seen. Perhaps it is hidden in recruitment and selection processes that cannot be physically seen. However, the numbers of women in management positions supports this idea – (see chapters two and three for more information). The way advertisements and job descriptions are designed and the manner in which interviews are conducted may contribute to male biaseness. Those who responded that it never happens probably did not know that advertisements or job descriptions which require marital status of applicants are discriminatory in nature, and that sometimes women are precluded from attending interviews because perhaps the composition of an interview panel is intimidatory to them

when it is constituted of males only. Given the patriarchal tendencies of our society, it is not wrong to say that the 32,3% of respondents who alluded to the fact that being a male is regarded as a distinct advantage are correct. Until such time that perceptions and mindsets of human resources managers are changed, is then that we can say being male is not an advantage.

Table 4.13: Movement of teachers within a restricted geographical area

V50 Movement of teachers	Frequency (f)	Percentage (%)
Very often	65	40,1
Rarely	30	18,5
Seldom	37	22,8
Never	30	18,5
Totals	162	100,0

Analysis and interpretation of data

This item probes the state of conditions in which teachers are willing to move between schools in a restricted geographical region that is within the commuting distance of their place of residence. 40,1% responded that teachers very often are willing to be redeployed between schools in a restricted geographical region that is within the commuting distance of their place of residence. It seems as if the precondition for the acceptance of redeployment is the teacher's place of residence —its proximity to the place of work. It means, if teachers can be moved within a Circuit or District there may be a greater acceptance of the process of redeployment. The conventional practice was that inspectors would move teachers within their area of management (Circuit or District) if there was a decline in pupil enrolment at a particular school within their Circuit or District. Therefore, moving teachers away from their homes may be met with resistance.

Table 4.14: Working in rural areas

V54 Willingness to work in rural Areas	Frequency (f)	Percentage (%)
Very often	18	11,1
Rarely	41	25,3
Seldom	47	29,0
Never	56	34,6
Totals	162	100,0

Analysis and interpretation of data

The data in this table complement the analysis and interpretation above. 34,6% responded that teachers are never willing to work in rural areas. When considering that the Northern Province is 90,9% rural, and that 88,6% of the respondents work in a rural village, it appears that most teachers are living in townships (which constituted 9,7% in this research project) or semi-urban areas. Therefore, teachers may not willingly work in rural areas if options of working in a developed or semi-developed area are there. Consequently, the researcher can possibly conclude that teachers may be willing to be redeployed to urban areas. However, what still needs to be investigated is whether living next to one's place of work is a precondition or whether the level of development in one's place of work or home is precondition in redeployment.

Only 11,1% responded that they think that teachers are very often willing to work in rural areas. This may emanate from the fact that there is a large number of unemployed teachers who are desperate for work. These unemployed teachers are willing to take on a job anywhere – rural or township. Another dimension of these responses may be that most teachers are from rural areas, and therefore, see no problem in working in rural areas – which is antithetical to 25,3% who responded that teachers rarely volunteer to work in rural areas. The latter group

concur with 29,0% who responded that teachers seldom volunteer to work in rural areas. May be we need to look at the social status of teachers. Their social status emanates from the early socialisation such that they are aware of their distinct social identity, as people separate from others. It is this self-consciousness that causes teachers to form social groups who interact in systematic ways with one another. According to Giddens (1993:215) teachers are a particular class whose membership is based on literacy and economic differences and these differences are expressed in relationships. As a middle class they find it less easy to socialise with persons of different classes. Their reputational tendencies possibly render them asocial in rural areas – which are predominantly lower class habitats.

(k) Possible reasons for leaving teaching

Table 4.15: Inadequate, low salary

V55 Inadequate, low salary	Frequency (f)	Percentage (%)
Agree	102	61,1
Neutral	32	19,2
Disagree	33	19,8
Totals	167	100,0

Analysis and interpretation of data

61,1% responded that they agree that they may possibly leave teaching as a result of inadequate or low salary. This seem to contradict 54,9% of respondents who disagree that they entered teaching to have a high-paying job (V15), but instead wanted to have a satisfying job – 61,7% agreed in V14. The question revolves around salary or money and satisfaction. That is, whether money leads to satisfaction, or not. The 61,7% in V14 who responded that they chosen teaching because they wanted a satisfying job, possibly represents a group of teachers who were drawn into teaching by successful teachers who were their

role models. The researcher may assume that the respondents probably did know that there is V55 when responding to V14, or it may be because their expectations were not met – as shown by 61,1%. Therefore, the 54,9% in V15 who disagreed that they entered teaching a high paying job is a fluke. 19,2% are neutral while 19,8 disagreed that low salary can be a possible reason for leaving teaching.

Table 4.16: Opportunity to do something else more rewarding

V57 Opportunity to do something else	Frequency (f)	Percentage(%)
Agree	89	55,6
Neutral	29	18,1
Disagree	42	26,3
Totals	160	100,0

Analysis and interpretation of data

This data concurs with the findings in V55 that most teachers may possibly leave teaching as a result of inadequate salary. 55,6% of the respondents may leave teaching if they can find the opportunity to pursue another career. These respondents may be demotivated and disillusioned by several factors. For instance, 64,8% of respondents to item V58 cited poor working conditions as the possible reason for leaving teaching. Poor working conditions is a broad concept which includes classroom conditions, the availability of teaching and learning resources, leaves, salary, workload, leadership, employer's labour policies, and many other terms of employment. The findings reveal that very few, 17,0% (V58) are determined to stay in teaching despite the appalling conditions, while (18,12%) of V58 are neutral which means they may go either way depending on the developments taking place. However, the picture is not as bleak as it might be suggested because 26,3% of respondents to item V57 are still determined to remain in teaching. Perhaps it is important to make a deliberate attempt to woo the 18,1% of V57 and 18,2% of V58 who are neutral. Together with those who disagree, those who are neutral may form a formidable force to continue with the

service of teaching. Their tenacity and determination should be regarded as an advantage to improve where necessary.

In life not all can be satisfied. The same happens in teaching – not all teachers will be satisfied. Their dissatisfaction may arise out of different aspects as indicated above. In addition to those aspects indicated above, there are teachers who want to leave as a result of emotional aspects. This was probed in V62 as shown in the table below:

Table 4.17: Emotional aspects

V62 Emotional aspects	Frequency (f)	Percentage (%)
Agree	81	49,1
Neutral	34	20,6
Disagree	50	30,3
Totals	165	100,0

Analysis and interpretation of data

This data reveal that emotional aspects have taken its toll among teachers. 49,1% of the respondents agree that most teachers are stressed and frustrated. There are various causes to emotional stress and frustration. For instance, teachers may be stressed by:

- student ill-discipline;
- political changes;
- policy changes;
- poor working conditions;
- insufficient skills;
- job security;

- poor communication;
- poor relations at work; and
- inadequate rewards.

While it may be acknowledged that the above problems are job-related, there are problems that are family or socially related in nature. For example, teachers may be stressed by:

- poor family relations;
- HIV-Aids;
- failure to support their families;
- debts;
- cultural differences;
- decline in morality;
- divorce; and
- community problems.

While the Department as the employer may have the prerogative to redress job-related problems perhaps with little ease, as the employer who is concerned and committed to quality, the department must show the willingness to address teachers' social problems by exploring psychological or other means available. This will ensure that workers are generally happy. A happy worker is a productive worker. Therefore there must be a holistic approach to teachers' problems. However, 30,3% of the respondents disagree that teachers may leave

teaching because of emotional aspects. This percentage represents a group of teachers who probably are free from problems or may choose to ignore their problems and take refuge in incessant toil which in the long run may do them no good. 20,6% are neutral.

(I) Management principles

Table 4.18: I spend too much time sorting out problems that my subordinates ought to be able to deal with.

V55 Spend too much time sorting out problems	Frequency (f)	Percentage (%)
Agree	63	37,1
Disagree	107	62,9
Totals	170	100,0

Analysis and interpretation of data

37,1% of the respondents agree that they spend too much time sorting out problems that their subordinates ought to be able to deal with. This response indicates the level of empowerment that is prevalent among teachers. This has management implications. It could imply that the leadership style used by such managers centralises power by not delegating some of the responsibilities to other team managers. Such managers often tend to have a know-it-all attitude. They regard themselves as the custodian of power – which no one should share at school level. Hence, the response there is too much from teachers to deal as a manager.

Those who disagree, 62,9%, are the type of educational leaders who may tend to share power with other team managers. They are not baffled by any job because they know they have other team members to count on. They are probably democratic and facilitative in their leadership style.

Table 4.19: It is difficult to execute many education office decisions

V66 Difficulty to execute many Decisions	Frequency (f)	Percentage (%)
Agree	102	60,7
Disagree	66	39,3
Totals	168	100,0

Analysis and interpretation of data

60,7% of the respondents agree that it is difficult to execute many education office decisions. The responses represent a group of managers who may not be schooled in education management. Such managers lack sufficient management skills. They are probably under pressure and may be overwhelmed by the management job. This concurs to the above analysis and interpretation, whereby managers centred every task around themselves and do not want to share responsibilities. Therefore, the difficulty to execute many decisions may arise out of lack of skill and time. This has been an argument the researcher raised in chapter two with regard to teaching excellence and experience not necessarily meaning that one can be an efficient and effective manager.

Perhaps it is proper to conclude that the 39,3% of the respondents who disagreed are the ones who are schooled in education management, and therefore have the necessary skills that make them efficient and effective. However, with regard to the former group, there is a greater possibility that they may be encountering communication problems. The report on informal interviews bears testimony to this. Consequently most of their important decisions are based on insufficient information 70,1% agree to this in V67.

Table 4.20: A good manager is the one who shares decision-making and work

V55 A good manager shares decision-making	Frequency (f)	Percentage (%)
Agree	167	98,8
Disagree	2	1,2
Totals	169	100,0

Analysis and interpretation of data

98,8% of the respondents agree that a good manager is one who shares decision-making and work. This is the benchmark of excellence in governance and management. The response resonates with the spirit of the South African Schools Act, 1996. This Act envisages governance and management of schools as partnership between stakeholders. It entails that a number of people who have a common goal, co-operate with one another by contributing something of value. Sharing decision-making and work emerges out of the need to recognise diversity in our schools. Therefore, education management and governance requires recognition of other stakeholders' duties and responsibilities as defined in the roles of each partner. Consequently, it is no longer possible for education managers to make decisions in a vacuum. More partners should be considered. The 1,2% of the respondents who disagreed may be those who still believe in education management as a one person show-whereby all governance and management responsibilities are vested in one person. In most cases such leaders are autocratic and prefer the bureaucratic style of management. What often predominates in such schools is a top-down strategy of management. Education management is a complex task wherein no individual can claim to be an all-rounder. It is possible that in most cases those who disagreed are not willing to let their staff decide on teaching routine activities (V69) – which constituted 10,0% of the respondents. 90,0% of V69 are willing to devolve power so that teachers can decide on teaching routine activities. This group could represent the respondents who share decision-making and work, and take pride

take pride in their teachers (23,4% of V70). The 76,6% of respondents in V70 probably value teachers as a critical resource without which no education can take place. Such managers usually have good relations with their staff members.

Perhaps, the 23,4% of respondents who do not take pride in their teachers have something that engulfs them from staff. However, the response could be viewed in the light of the history of principals (including deputy principals and HODs) and staff members in some schools. This history is echoed by Fleisch (1999:60) who states that since the early 1990s there was a crisis of legitimacy of principals. The authority of school managers was challenged even by unions. Principals were labelled as sell-outs, reactionary to democracy and social change. What exacerbated matters was the use of an authoritarian style of management. In the name of unions teachers countered authoritarianism of the principals. In some schools *coup dé tat* happened. Some principals who bore the brunt of teacher militancy often shirked responsibility and exonerated teachers from crucial responsibilities. Consequently, a laissez faire situation sets in. Therefore, such principals would not take pride in their teachers even though the situation cannot be wholly blamed on teachers. They too are partly to blame. Nevertheless, there are those who still believe that teachers should be involved to decide on policy matters. 88,7% in V73 agree to this. This provides a ray of hope in stabilising human relations, as opposed to 11,3% who disagreed.

Perhaps, it will be proper to state that the shift of paradigm from a service and quality demand poses a serious challenge to managers. Unfortunately the shift to a new paradigm is challenging to implement and the process is primarily difficult to maintain because some managers are still "locked in their closets". Is it because they benefited by the older paradigm or are just uncertain of the future? In spite of whatever belief, quality management requires a change in roles and perceptions. For instance, managers must perceive themselves as

facilitators. Educational managers must influence the transformation system. In V75 92,2% of the respondents agree to this, while 7,8% disagreed. It can be concluded that many respondents are happy about the transformation process and see themselves as facilitators in the process.

(m) The role of the district or area manager in empowerment

First and foremost it must be established that the district or area manager's commitment to quality are related to the amount of lack of feedback. Perhaps the chief education specialist should probably commit themselves to quality actions such as providing teacher training and development, continually looking for ways to improve quality and encouraging high quality work, and create work environments in which a great deal of job performance feedback is given. The management's commitment to quality may be positively related to job satisfaction. As such, the role of district or area managers should be measured against this background.

Table 4.21: Value commitment to the development of the individual within the district.

V76 Commitment to the development of teachers	Frequency (f)	Percentage (%)
Always	29	15,9
Often	49	29,9
Seldom	61	37,2
Never	28	17,1
Totals	164	100,0

Analysis and interpretation of data

It seems district or area managers according to the perception of the respondents do not value commitment to the development of the individual teacher or manager within their district or area. 37,2% of the respondents concur to this, while 17,1% declared in no uncertain terms that district or area managers never value such commitment. Perhaps it can be stated that this higher response may probably emanate from the fact that the district or area development programmes do not match the needs of the teachers. In such cases, these managers still use traditional in-service based, one-size-fits-all development programmes whereby teachers' interest are ignored. In some cases there may be a communication breakdown. It is unlikely that a district or area may be sterile for the whole year. This 'seldom' and 'never' responses may indicate a deep-rooted problem which need intensive investigation. To concur to the argument that it is impossible for the area or district not to call for inservice-development, 15,9% and 29,9% responded always and often respectively. Therefore, a balanced conclusion may be that the programmes are scattered and periodic incursions into schools which affect one or two teachers in sporadic opportunities.

Table 4.22: Value all employees as equally important members of the organisation

V80 Value all employees equally	Frequency (f)	Percentage (%)
Always	63	38,9
Often	38	23,5
Seldom	47	29,0
Never	14	8,6
Totals	162	100,0

Analysis and interpretation of data

38,9% of the respondents indicated that the district or area manager always value all teachers as equally important members of the organisation. It means most area managers do not discriminate among teachers. They are fair and non-sexist in executing their jobs. 23,5% responded that to the district or managers often value all employees equally. It means that there are in some instances whereby equality or equal treatment is not experienced by teachers. Some respondents felt the district or area manager seldom valued all employees equally – 29%. Despite the efforts from the district or area managers to treat all teachers equally, there are those who believe district or area managers are unfair in the treatment of teachers. Hence 8,6% responded that district or area managers never value all employees equally. It can be concluded that district or area managers value all employees equally, but certain anecdotal cases may flout their commitment to equality.

Table 4.23: Value placing decision-making as close to the point of implementation as possible

V84 Decentralisation of decision-making	Frequency (f)	Percentage (%)
Always	36	22,2
Often	51	31,5
Seldom	60	37,0
Never	15	9,3
Total	162	100

Analysis and interpretation of data

22,2% responded that the district or area manager always value placing decision-making as close to the point of implementation as possible. These respondents represent a group of teachers who believe that the area manager

has allowed teachers to be autonomous, and have freedom to practice their own ideas. Their innovation and creativity is harnessed as important resources to further teacher development. However, the decentralisation of decision-making does not always take place, but occurs often - 31,5%. It means that district or area managers allow teachers powers to decide on certain issues, but not in all activities. Depending on one teachers' perception restricting decision-making to certain issues may not be viewed as non-decentralisation at all. Hence 37,0% responded that the area managers seldom value placing decision-making as close to the point of implementation as possible. This compares to 9,3% of the respondents who believe that there is no decentralisation at all. It can be concluded, in terms of these last two responses, that district or area managers seldom value decentralisation in some instances.

Table 4.24: Value all employees as equally important members of the organisation

V80 Value all employees equally	Frequency (f)	Percentage (%)
Always	57	34,8
Often	47	28,7
Seldom	47	28,7
Never	13	7,9
Total	164	100

Analysis and interpretation of data

Data contained in this table reveal that the district or area manager in 34,8% of the respondents' perceptions is always ready to support school development plans. These respondents represent a group of school managers who take initiatives to develop their schools. Such managers are proactive, and are ready to consult the district or area manager in aspects which need the latter's attention. From these responses, it can be concluded that many principals feel supported by the area manager in their plans for school development, and that

very few, 7,9% feel unsupported. Therefore, it seems as if district or area managers are probably managing well. However, 28,7% believe the support of area managers is not continual but continuous – it has some breaks. It means that sometimes it may probably be available or the other times unavailable. Equally, 28,7% of the respondents believe that the district or area manager seldom value support for school development plans.

(n) **Change management**

Table 4.25: I like to be told exactly how I am to do my job

V95 Being told exactly how to do my Job	Frequency (f)	Percentage (%)
Agree	91	55,5
Disagree	73	44,5
Total	164	100

Analysis and interpretation of data

55,5% of the respondents agree that they like to be told exactly how to do the job. This percentage represent a group of teachers who want the details of a particular job before executing anything. They are probably some of the teachers who need support all throughout their career. Such teachers seem to lack creativity and innovation and cannot venture into unknown frontiers. Therefore, it can be concluded that most teachers are not creative and innovative to carry out tasks assigned to them. However, 44,5% disagree that they do not want to be told exactly how to do their jobs. This percentage of respondents could represent a group of teachers who are creative and innovative enough to tackle any task with minimum effort. They probably like to be independent and autonomous which is a benchmark of professionalism. It means that they are complete professionals who test the uncharted waters. Therefore, it can be

concluded that these teachers are professionals, creative and innovative although they do not constitute a significant percentage of the respondents.

Table 4.26: I am keen to try things out to see if they work in practice

V96 Keen to try things to see if they Work	Frequency (f)	Percentage (%)
Agree	158	96,3
Disagree	6	3,7
Total	164	100

Analysis and interpretation of data

96,3% responded that they agree to be keen to try things out to see if they work in practice. This percentage represents a group of teachers who are innovative and creative enough to explore alternatives. These teachers may probably not function well in a bureaucratic set up because they will have to follow certain bounds (protocol) which may preclude their creativity and innovation. They are like the 44,5% who disagreed in V95. Therefore, it can be concluded that most teachers are keen to try things out to see if they work in practice. Perhaps this is indicative of their level of motivation. Motivated workforce seem to possess this characteristic. Very few teachers (3,7%) are not keen to try things out to see if they work in practice. This percentage represents a group of teachers who should be managed closely and seem to enjoy to be told what to do. They cannot do things using their own initiative. Perhaps it is probably correct to question their retention, or alternative ways of retaining them need to be identified. The researcher has tried to address this in the recommendations - in the form of short term and long term strategies.

Table 4.27: I give up on things before completing them

V99 Giving up on things before completion	Frequency (f)	Percentage (%)
Agree	25	15,1
Disagree	141	84,9
Total	166	100

Analysis and interpretation of data

15,1% of the respondents agree that they give up on things before completing them. This percentage represents a group of teachers who probably like to be told exactly how to do their job because they seem to give up if not told how to do the job. They probably can not go on their own. Therefore, they need empowerment programmes to survive in their positions. The researcher has suggested empowerment strategies in chapter six to address this problem.

However, 84,9% disagree that they give up on things before completing them. This percentage represents a group of teachers who are innovative, motivated, have the tenacity and determination to complete tasks. They are resilient and want to succeed despite all odds. These group of teachers should be retained in the classroom and may be the right personnel to tackle education problems. Therefore, it can be concluded that most teachers have the tenacity and determination to succeed, despite challenges they meet in their day-to-day tasks.

Table 4.28: If something looks too complicated, I will not bother to try it

V101 Not bothering to try complicated things	Frequency (f)	Percentage (%)
Agree	22	13,3
Disagree	143	86,7
Total	165	100

Analysis and interpretation of data

13,3% of the respondents agree that if something looks too complicated, they will not bother to try it. This is a group of teachers who like to be told how to do their job. On the contrary, 86,7% of the respondents disagree on the statement. This is a group of teachers who are also keen to try things to see if they can succeed. They tend not to give up when meeting complications. Therefore, it can be concluded that most teachers are ready to try things out even if those things are complicated in nature.

Table 4.29: Teachers need to improvise to keep the education system going

V111 Teachers need to improvise	Frequency (f)	Percentage (%)
Agree	155	93,9
Disagree	10	6,1
Total	165	100

Analysis and interpretation of data

93,9% of the respondents agree that teachers need to improvise to keep the education system going. By improvising, it entails making initiatives to address shortages in resources and seeking innovative ways to supplement and complement resources available. This group of teachers do not complain but seek ways to complement and improve their conditions. They are required to

steer transformation forward. Therefore, it can be concluded that most teachers are ready to move on with the changes taking place in education. However, very few teachers, 6,1%, disagree that teachers need to improvise.

(o) **Teams, partnerships and networks**

Table 4.30: Schools should partner with tertiary institutions

V130 Schools should partner with tertiary institutions	Frequency (f)	Percentage (%)
Almost always	95	58,6
Quite often	45	27,8
Hardly ever	10	6,2
Never	12	7,4
Total	162	100

Analysis and interpretation of data

58,6% of the respondents responded that schools should almost always partner with tertiary institutions. In terms of this percentage it can be concluded that most teachers would want to establish partnerships with colleges, technikons and universities. This partnership may probably be a strategy to address skill shortages, teacher empowerment and capacity building. Very few 7,4% are opposed to partnerships with tertiary institutions. Perhaps this group should be compared with V115 whereby 28,8% agreed that learning new skills doesn't excite them. This response could indicate teacher apathy to further studies.

Table 4.31: Schools should partner with parents

V132 Schools should partner with parents	Frequency (f)	Percentage (%)
Almost always	134	83,8
Quite often	17	10,6
Hardly ever	6	3,8
Never	3	1,9
Total	160	100

Analysis and interpretation of data

83,8% of the respondents agree that schools should partner with parents. Therefore, it can be concluded that most teachers are not opposed to parental involvement. Very few, 1,9% do not want to welcome parental involvement. This is a less significant number of respondents. 10,6% believe that a partnership with parents should happen quite often. It means that parents should be involved in education, when there is a need, but not always.

Table 4.32: Partnerships with unions can better minimise strikes

V133 Partnerships with unions	Frequency (f)	Percentage (%)
Almost always	79	48,8
Quite often	53	32,7
Hardly ever	18	11,1
Never	12	7,4
Total	162	100

Analysis and interpretation of data

48,8% of the respondents believe that partnerships with unions can almost always minimise strikes. This percentage represents a group of teachers who seek mutualism between schools and unions. To them such a compromise will

minimise strikes. Perhaps it is important to consider the reasons for school-union partnership. The reader should consider that this partnership is based on essential elements such as:

- The partnership is conducted for the joint benefit of both parties involved.
- The object of the partnership is to restore the culture of teaching and learning – an ideal attested to by Braude (2000:10) whereby it must be understood that teacher unions do not seek to destroy the system but also to improve the working conditions – overcrowded classrooms, and shortage of books, to name but a few.

This new vision is supported by most teachers because it will make unions share the responsibility in restoring the culture of quality service in education. This partnership will offer more freedom from government regulations and offer greater flexibility in minimising strikes. There would be unlimited personal liability. A partner cannot only demand material improvements but would seek ways to contribute to the growth of the organisation. This will resonate with the spirit of tirisano which seeks to interrogate the lack of discipline and professionalism among some teachers. This tendency has created perceptions that teachers do not care about the future of children. Therefore, the partnership can benefit schools by joint enforcement of discipline through a code conduct, and even urging teachers to arrange for extra classes to cover time lost during strikes. This will concur with 32,7% of the respondents who wanted to see the partnership happening quite often – which means that partnership with unions should be forged in some issues. However, there is 7,4% who are opposed to this partnership. Perhaps this group is conservative, lack information which will enable them to understand unions as significant stakeholders in education. Equally, 11,1% of the respondents believe that partnerships with unions should hardly ever take place. Therefore, there is still much to be done before such partnerships can really happen. However, when considering the highest

response of 48,8%, the researcher can conclude that partnerships with unions are a necessary evil to help restore the culture of quality service. And unions are part of the equation to quality service in education.

(p) Excellence in teaching

Table 4.33: Teachers do an excellent quality job despite insufficient resources

V136 Teachers do an excellent quality job	Frequency (f)	Percentage (f)
Believe	131	80,4
Disbelieve	32	19,6
Total	163	100

Analysis and interpretation of data

80,4% of the respondents believe that teachers do an excellent quality job despite insufficient resources. This group compares with 93,9% of the respondents in VIII who agree that teachers should improvise to sustain the education system. Those who improvise are able to offer quality teaching despite insufficient resources. When considering V13 that 88,6% of the respondents come from rural areas where, according to the HSRC (1998), there is an acute shortage of resources, it can be stated that teachers are still motivated to continue doing quality jobs. They are probably not discouraged by insufficient resources. However, 19,6% of the respondents disbelieve that teachers are doing an excellent quality job. Nevertheless, the 80,4% takes the primacy, and thus it can be concluded that most teachers do an excellent quality job. Hence the reference to the fact that teachers are enthusiastic about their jobs – 70,8% believe in this while 29,2% disbelieve in enthusiasm.

Table 4.34: Teachers are involved in unions to cover their inefficiency and ineffectiveness

V139 Teachers are involved in unions	Frequency (f)	Percentage (%)
Believe	41	25,0
Disbelieve	123	75,0
Total	164	100

Analysis and interpretation of data

25,0% of the respondents believe that teachers are involved in unions to cover their inefficiency and ineffectiveness. Perhaps it can be stated that this response was based on anecdotal or isolated incidents of ill-discipline among some teachers. However, 75,0% disbelieve that teachers are involved in unions to cover their inefficiency and ineffectiveness. Therefore, it can be concluded that most teachers are involved in unions for other reasons than to probably hide their inefficiency and ineffectiveness. Reasons for involvement in unions are varied.

Table 4.35: Teachers are demoralised by lack of commitment from learners

V141 Teachers are demoralised	Frequency (f)	Percentage (%)
Believe	118	71,5
Disbelieve	47	28,5
Total	165	100

Analysis and interpretation of data

71,5% of the respondents believe that teachers are demoralised by a lack of commitment from learners. When considering the 93,9% of the respondents in VIII and 80,4% of the respondents in V136, it means that the good intentions and efforts of teachers in improvising and doing an excellent quality job are wasted by learners who lack commitment. This may seem to be the habit of passing the bug to learners. However, historical evidence reveal that most schools had been

subjected to conflict linked to student resistance to Bantu Education. Since 1976 the cycle of resistance and repression had given birth to a culture of resistance in which student activists channelled away their energies from blanket rejection of all forms of apartheid education to idleness and recalcitrancy. They challenged the authority of teachers and school managers. Ultimately, many learners lack commitment to education. A disturbing trend was the emergence of laissez-faire management in the classroom because corporal punishment is prohibited. Most teachers leave learners unrebuked, and truancy becomes the order of the day.

Nevertheless, 28,5% of the respondents disbelieve that teachers are demoralised because of a lack of commitment from learners. It means that teachers are demoralised because of some other reasons but not as a result of lack of commitment from learners. To balance the probabilities the researcher can conclude that there are still 'struggles' waged in schools which disturbs order, and some teachers shirk responsibilities but the majority are still committed to excellent teaching.

4.7.4 Most important findings from the empirical survey

The empirical survey reveals the following most important findings:

- There seems to be a considerable improvement in gender equality with more women promoted into managerial positions in schools – especially primary schools.
- Most principals are in their late thirties or early forties.
- Very few schools have a complete set of appointed managers – in some schools principals have to teach and manage schools.

- Most managers have a degree and a diploma as their highest qualification, and most of them have specialised in humanities.
- Most schools are located in rural areas and have insufficient resources.
- Most teachers entered teaching to have a personally satisfying job than for material reasons.
- Teachers are enthusiastic about professional autonomy.
- Teaching engenders a sense of belonging through human relations.
- Most teachers are satisfied with the working hours.
- Most teachers regard curricular changes and teacher-pupil ratio as threats to their prospects of career retention.
- The most unsatisfactory aspect of teaching remains class size and heavy workload.
- Most teachers believe that having a degree gives one an advantage when selection is made.
- Teachers are willing to move between schools in a restricted geographical region which is within commuting distance of their place of residence.
- Most teachers agree that further study augurs well for one's prospects of promotion.
- Most teachers consider experience as an indication of one's competence.
- Most teachers are unwilling to work in rural areas.
- Most teachers are generally not satisfied about rewards used in teaching, and poor working conditions is cited as the most possible reason for leaving the teaching profession.

- The highest percentage of principals believe in sharing decision-making and work.
- Very few teachers believe that the area or district managers value support, equality, involvement and shared decision-making.
- Most principals, who like to be told exactly how to do their job, are not creative and innovative, and are not adventurous to try new and complicated tasks.
- Most teachers believe that they need to improvise to sustain the education system.
- Teachers are keen to establish partnerships with tertiary institutions, parents and unions.
- Teachers do an excellent job despite insufficient resources.
- The reasons for teachers to be involved in unions are varied but do not include hiding their inefficiency and ineffectiveness.
- Teachers are demoralised by a lack of commitment from learners.

4.8 CONCLUSION

The empirical research is used to complement the literature review which only gives the theories about recognition of competence, empowerment and capacity building and retention of excellent teachers, whilst the empirical research gives the real picture of the situation. Talking to the management teams of schools presented the researcher with the opportunity to experience genuine happenings, conditions and how principals and teachers feel about recognition of competence, empowerment and capacity building as well as the retention of excellent teachers. This exercise illuminate ideas for further research which is discussed in the next chapter. The researcher discussed, analysed and

interpreted data gathered from the survey and the most important findings were identified. In the next chapter guidelines for the recognition of competence as an empowerment model to retain excellent teachers in the classroom are suggested.