

An Analysis of Change in the Management Practices
of School Principals in the Context of an External
Intervention from 1997 to 2000: A Case Study
of the Imbewu Project in the
Eastern Cape Province.

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DECLARATION

I hereby declare that the work contained in this study is my own, except where indicated, and that it has not been submitted for examinations and/or an award at any other university. The views expressed in this dissertation are those of the author and do not purport to be those of the University of KwaZulu-Natal or my supervisor.

Signed

A. N. Adonis

Date.....

Signed 

Prof. R. Morrell

Supervisor

Date..... 31 March 2008

DEDICATION

This study is dedicated, firstly to my late mother, Christina Buyiswa Adonis, who set the foundation for my education, and secondly, to my uncle, Douglas Nkosinathi Adonis and his late wife, Songo, who were my inspiration and pillar of strength during difficult times of my life, thirdly, to my children, Lungiswa, Neville and Noloyiso, who were a source of sustenance during the years of my study and lastly, my grandchildren, Abulele and Siyabulela who brought joy into my life towards the end of this study.

ABSTRACT

This study focuses on a large-scale, foreign-funded education intervention, the Imbewu Project (IP). This project was funded by United Kingdom's Department for International Development (DfID) and was implemented in the Eastern Cape Province of South Africa between 1997 and 2000 in close consultation with the Eastern Cape's Provincial Department of Education (ECDE). The impact of the project is examined through the eyes of the primary school participants, principals, teachers and members of School Governing Bodies. The major concern of the study is to explore the impact of the intervention on the management practices of schools. The study examines those factors which promoted or undermined the efficacy of the IP.

Cluster or multi-stage sampling was used for sampling schools from which respondents for questionnaires were selected. A total of 250 copies of the two questionnaires (200 for teachers and 50 for school principals) were sent to selected schools. Out of these, 33 were filled in and returned by school principals and 119 were filled in and returned by teachers. Convenience sampling was used for sampling the schools from which interviewees were selected. Five (5) principals, eight (8) members of the school governing bodies, 15 key teachers and 15 non-key teachers were interviewed. A largely descriptive research design was used to explore the views and perceptions of principals, teachers and school governing body (SGB) members about changes in the management practices in their schools. School documents from the schools used for interviews were analysed in order to corroborate the information given by the respondents.

The training materials used by the IP were closely aligned with the imperatives identified in the South African Schools Act (1996). The education management development (EMD) modules of the IP and the management areas in the South African Schools Act (1996), for example, suggests that the IP training programme was guided by official policy. The IP programme was therefore appropriate for supporting and enhancing the work of the ECDE in improving school efficiency and for the transformation of education in the schools.

Advanced age, lengthy experience and the poor quality of teacher training tended to limit the optimal impact of the IP. The IP training helped principals and SGB members to understand their roles in the school and to participate more effectively than before. In the IP, while the quality of the training was perceived as good, it appeared that the duration did not allow for assimilation and in-depth understanding of the content. In addition, the cascading model of training was regarded as a threat to the successful implementation of the IP as it distorted and reduced the amount of knowledge that reached the majority of teachers in the schools.

Principals did not warmly support the transformation agenda that forced them to work with SGB members who were often poorly informed about school matters. However, principals were ready to use the SGBs in aspects such as mobilizing parents to attend meetings and providing security for the school that were not directly related to their own management work. Principals continued to wield power in the SGBs because they were superior to all parent members of the SGBs in terms of academic qualification, expertise, and official information.

The heads of departments (HODs) in the schools were not targeted for the IP training. Consequently, most of them had to be trained by their teachers in the IP activities at the schools. The fact that these HODs were not trained in the IP meant that their professional authority in the implementation process of IP activities was undermined as they had to depend on their teachers regarding these activities in their departments. This tended to undermine the institutionalization and sustainability of the intervention.

Poverty proved to be a serious challenge to the success of the IP intervention in the most disadvantaged schools. The poorest schools were unable to take full advantage of the IP intervention in terms of training manuals and learning material compared to those which were better off. There was therefore a tendency for the IP to inadvertently promote and increase inequalities.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

	Page
Declaration	i
Dedication	ii
Abstract	iii
Table of contents	v
Acknowledgements	x
List of Tables	xi
List of Appendices	xiii
List of figures	xiv
List of Abbreviations and Acronyms	xv
Preface	xvi

CHAPTER 1 BACKGROUND, PROBLEM AND PURPOSE

1.1 Introduction	1
1.2 Understanding educational change	4
1.2.1 The nature of educational change	4
1.2.2 The need for change in the principal's management role	5
1.2.3 Factors influencing change in management practices of principals	7
1.3 Transformation in South African Education: Promise, policy and Problems	12
1.3.1 Education in South before 1994	12
1.3.2 School – based management in South Africa	17
1.4 The Eastern Cape: Poverty and education	19
1.5 The Imbewu Project	27
1.6 Conclusion	29

CHAPTER 2 LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Introduction	32
2.2 Approaches to school change	32
2.2.1 The school effectiveness approach to school change	33
2.2.2 The school improvement approach to school change	34
2.2.2.1 Restructuring	39
2.2.2.2 Reculturing	40

2.3	Educational change and school improvement	41
2.3.1	The changing nature of educational change and school improvement initiatives	42
2.3.2	Approaches to school improvement	46
2.3.2.1	The research and development approaches	47
2.3.2.2	The school-based approach to school improvement	48
2.3.2.3	Challenges of school-based approaches	51
2.4	Contextual Factors and Educational Change	53
2.5	The role and importance of the principal to processes of school change and school improvement	55
2.5.1	The management and leadership role of the principal	58
2.5.1.1	The school principal' role of leadership	61
2.5.1.1.1	Transformational leadership	62
2.5.1.1.2	Instructional leadership	63
2.5.1.1.3	The principal's leadership role in vision crafting	65
2.5.1.2	School-based management and changes in functions and roles	67
2.5.1.2.1	The principal's role in developing systems, processes and support structures for human resource productivity	68
2.5.1.2.2	The principal's role in managing material and financial Resources	71
2.5.1.2.3	The establishment and strengthening of school/ community relationships	73
2.5.1.2.4	The role of the school management team in School-based management	76
2.6	Factors that determine institutionalisation and sustainability of changes in schools	77
2.6.1	Changing the culture of the school	79
2.6.2	District support and pressure	81
2.6.3	Local ownership by the school	82
2.7	Conclusion	83

CHAPTER 3 RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

3.1	Introduction	87
3.2	Research design	88
3.2.1	Quantitative research	90
3.2.2	Qualitative research	90
3.3	Population and sampling	91
3.3.1	Population	91
3.3.2	Sampling procedures for the questionnaires	92
3.3.3	Sampling for the interviews	99
3.4	Sources of data	100
3.4.1	The questionnaires	100
3.4.1.1	The questionnaire design	101
3.4.1.2	Piloting the questionnaire	102
3.4.1.3	Administration of the questionnaires	103
3.4.2	Interviews	105
3.4.2.1	The design of the interview guide	106
3.4.2.2	Gaining access for interviews	107
3.4.2.3	The interviewing process	108
3.4.2.4	Reliability of the interviews	112
3.4.3	Documents	114
3.5	Data processing and analysis	115
3.5.1	Analysis of data from questionnaires	115
3.5.2	Processing and analysis of data from interviews and documents	115
3.6	Ethical considerations	117
3.6.1	Informed consent	118
3.6.2	Confidentiality and anonymity	119
3.6.3	The issues of trustworthiness, soundness and authenticity	120
3.7	Conclusion	120

CHAPTER 4 PRESENTATION, ANALYSIS AND INTERPRETATION OF DATA

4.1	Introduction	121
4.2	Profiles of respondents	122
4.2.1	Profiles of principals	123
4.2.2	Profiles of teachers	136
4.2.3	Profiles of members of the school governing bodies	146
4.3	Participants' views on the Imbewu Project	150
4.3.1	Participants' involvement in the Imbewu training programme	150
4.3.1.1	The most beneficial aspects of the Imbewu Training	153
4.3.1.2	Reasons why some aspects of the training were regarded as the beneficial	158
4.3.2	Principals' and teachers' views on the changes in the management practises in their schools	161
4.3.2.1	Developing systems, process and support structures	162
4.3.2.1.1	Encouraging collaboration	163
4.3.2.1.3	Principals' and teachers' views on class visits / observation	169
4.3.2.1.4	Views on teacher participation in decision – making	172
4.3.2.2.	Views on changes in financial management	176
4.3.2.3	Views on changes in relationships with the community	184
4.3.2.4	Views on changes in managing material and physical resources	189
4.3.2.5	Views on the transformation of teaching and learning	192
4.4	Contextual and educational factors that influence changes in the school management practices	195
4.5	Conclusion	197

CHAPTER 5 QUALITATIVE DATA ANALYSIS

5.1	Introduction	200
5.2	Adequacy and quality of training provided by the Imbewu Project	201
5.3	Changes in school management practices	209
5.3.1	Changes in financial management practices	210
5.3.1.1	Formulation of Finance Policy	214

5.3.1.2 Changes in financial control measures	216
5.3.1.3 Conflict and contradictions in managing school finances	222
5.3.1.4 School Records on financial matters	224
5.3.2 Managing Material and Physical Resources	225
5.3.2.1 School records on material and physical resources	226
5.3.3 Improving the Quality of Teaching and Learning	227
5.3.4 Changes in School –community relationships	236
5.3.4.1 Problem of power distribution	244
5.4 Conclusion	247
CHAPTER 6 CONCLUSIONS AND LIMITATIONS	
6.1 Introduction	249
6.2 Summary of the research findings	250
6.3 Limitations of the study	257
6.4 Conclusion	258
REFERENCES	259
APPENDICES	271

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LIST OF TABLES

Table 1.1	Examination Results 1994-2000
Table 3.1	Principals
Table 3.2	Key Teachers –School 1-JSS
Table 3.3	Key Teachers - School 2-JSS
Table 3.4	Key Teachers –School 3- JSS
Table 3.5	Key Teachers– School 4- JSS
Table 3.6	Key Teachers– School 5- SPS
Table 3.7	Non-Key Teachers. School 1-JSS
Table 3.8	Non-Key Teachers. School 1-JSS
Table 3.9	Non-Key Teachers. School 1-JSS
Table 3.10	Non-Key Teachers. School 1-JSS
Table 3.11	Non-Key Teachers. School 1-JSS
Table 3.12	Members of School Governing Bodies
Table 4.2 (a)	Gender of Principals
Table 4.2 (b)	Principals’ Teaching Experience
Table 4.2 (c)	Highest Position held before Principalship
Table 4.2 (d)	Experience as Principal
Table 4.2 (e)	Capacity as Principal
Table 4.2 (f)	Principals’ Age Groups
Table 4.2 (g)	Principals Highest Academic Qualifications
Table 4.2 (h)	Principals’ Professional Qualifications
Table 4.2 (i)	Gender by Age Group
Table 4.2 (j)	Gender by Teaching Experience
Table 4.2 (k)	Gender by Experience as Principal
Table 4.2 (l)	Gender by Academic Qualifications
Table 4.2(m)	Gender by Professional Qualifications
Table 4.2 (n)	Gender of Teachers
Table 4.2 (o)	Position held at the school by key teachers
Table 4.2 (p)	Teaching Experience of Key Teachers
Table 4.2 (q)	Teachers Age Group
Table 4.2 (r)	Teachers’ Highest Academic Qualifications
Table 4.2 (s)	Teachers’ Professional Qualifications
Table 4.2 (t)	Gender by Age Group
Table 4.2 (u)	Gender by Teaching Experience
Table 4.2 (v)	Gender by Academic Qualifications
Table 4.2 (x)	Gender by Professional Qualifications
Table 4.2 (y)	Gender of SGB Members
Table 4.2 (z)	Position Held in SGB Committee
Table 4.2 (aa)	Experience as SGB member
Table 4.2 (ab)	SG Members’ Age Group
Table 4.2 (ac)	SGB Members’ Academic Qualifications
Table 4.3.1(a)	The Number of Participants Attending the Various Modules
Table 4.3.1 (b)	The Number of Principals and SGB Members (expressed as %) who indicated which were the most Beneficial Aspects of Imbewu Training (multiple responses)

Table 4.3.1 (c)	The Number of Principals, Teachers and SGB Members (measured in %) who identified Various Modules as Beneficial (multiple responses)
Table 4.3.2 (a)	Is Collaboration encouraged in your School?
Table 4.3.2 (b)	Principal and Teacher Responses to the Question: How does the principal provide Feedback to Class Visits?
Table 4.3.2 (c)	How the Principal Ensures Participation in Decision-Making.
Table 4.3.2 (d)	Aspects of Financial Management and control in which Principals were trained by Imbewu Project.
Table 4.3.2 (e)	Aspects of Financial Management and control Principals Implemented and Practised in their Schools.
Table 4.3.2 (f)	Challenges Experienced by Principals in Implementation of Financial Management Aspects.
Table 4.3.2 (g)	Reasons for Principals' Success in Implementing Changes in Financial Management and Control.
Table 4.3.2 (h)	Aspects of Financial Management in which Teachers were Involved.
Table 4.3.2 (i)	Aspects of Financial Management in which SGBs were Involved
Table 4.3.2 (j)	Aspects of Financial Management in which Parents were Involved
Table 4.3.2 (k)	Has there been any change in the Principal's Relationship with SGBs after IP Training?
Table 4.3.2 (l)	Change in Principal's Relationship with the SGB
Table 4.3.2 (m)	Effects of Changes in Principal's Relationship with SGBs on the Running of the School.
Table 4.3.2 (n)	Description of Changes in the Relationship between the Principal and the Parents.
Table 4.3.2 (o)	Effects of Changes in Principal's Relationship with Parents on the Running of the School.
Table 4.3.2 (p)	The Impact of the Provision of Teaching and Learning Material.
Table 4.3.2 (q)	Availability of Storage Space for Keeping Teaching and Learning Material.
Table 4.3.2 (r)	Do your responsibilities as Principal Include Classroom instruction?
Table 4.3.2 (s)	How Principals and Teachers Viewed Teaching after participating in Imbewu Project.
Table 4.3.2 (t)	Description of Changes of Relations between Principal and Teachers after Participating in Imbewu Project.
Table 4.3.2 (u)	Impact of Changes in the Relationship of Principal to Teachers in the Running of the School.

LIST OF APPENDICES

APPENDIX 1	Letter to the Eastern Cape Department of Education
APPENDIX 2	Letter from Eastern Cape Department of Education
APPENDIX 3	Questionnaires to Principals
APPENDIX 4	Questionnaires to Key Teachers
APPENDIX 5	Questionnaire to SGB members
APPENDIX 6	Interview Schedule for Principals
APPENDIX 7	Interview Schedule for Teachers
APPENDIX 8	Interview Schedule for Non-key Teachers
APPENDIX 9	Interview Schedule for SGB Members
APPENDIX 10	School Role Players Interviewed

LIST OF FIGURES

FIGURE 1.1 **Map showing the provinces of South Africa**

FIGURE 1.2 **Map showing the Transkei Region of the Eastern Cape**

FIGURE 1.3 **Conceptual Frameworks for the Imbewu Training Programme**

LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS AND ACRONYMS

ANC	African National Congress
CED	Cape Education Department
CDE	Ciskei Department of Education
DET	Department of Education and Training
DEC-HOR	Department of Education-House of Representatives (former Coloured Parliament)
DEC-HOD	Department of Education and Culture-House of Delegates
DoE	Department of Education
ECSECC	Eastern Cape Socio-Economic Consultative Council
EDO	Education Development Officer
HDE	Higher Diploma in Education
HED	Higher Education Diploma
INSET	In-service Training
JSTC	Junior Secondary Teachers Course
JSS	Junior Secondary School
MEC	Member of the Executive Committee (Cabinet Minister in the Provincial Parliaments in South Africa).
PGDE	Post Graduate Diploma in Education
PTC	Primary Teachers Certificate
PTD	Primary Teachers Diploma
RSA	Republic of South Africa
SMT	School Management Team
SPS	Senior Primary School
SSTC	Senior Secondary Teachers Certificate
SSTD	Senior Secondary Teachers Diploma
STD	Secondary Teachers Diploma
TDE	Transkei Department of Education
TVBC	Transkei, Bophuthatswana, Venda and Ciskei (former independent homelands).
UED	University Education Diploma

PREFACE

Port St Johns is one of the most beautiful districts in the Eastern Cape. It was formerly part of the Transkei, a homeland that received independence from South Africa in 1976 but is probably best known as a holiday resort and as part of the fabled 'wild coast'. It has rich, lush grass, thick forests and winding rivers. Qandu village about 40 kilometres from the town of Port St Johns is where I was born in 1950. My home was the last in the linear stretch of households and had the advantage of a perennial river close by. This was a very backward location to which my father had moved because of his love for farming. He had many cattle and consequently we did not struggle to till the land as he had bought all types of equipment for agriculture. My father, however, like most unskilled men from rural areas, worked in Johannesburg as a labourer in a newspaper company. So my siblings and I spent most of our youthful days with our mother. My mother loved education and wanted us to be educated but she also believed that we had to do the chores at home as she often said that we were learning for ourselves. She was an inspiration to us even though we did not realise it at the time.

Memories of my schooling days include walking long distances of about 10-15 kilometres every morning to ensure that I was not late for the start of school, which was 9 o'clock. One of the people that I have grown to respect was my principal, Mr Titus Sandile Mda who ensured by his strictness that we attended school every day and that we were always punctual despite all the factors that could have militated against this. Teaching was traditional and the focus was largely on rote learning. The map of the world was engraved on the board and on occasions we would be asked to form a row in front of the desks to answer questions on names of places and products in a geography lesson. Despite this academic focus certain subjects included a component of a practical nature. In standard six each student had a plot of vegetables that would be assessed by inspectors for the external examination. Our teachers were diligent and discipline was enforced with humanity and the environment was taken into consideration. Consequently, while punctuality was strictly enforced, it was accepted that on dipping days learners would be late as they had to take cattle for dipping and this could not be avoided as this formed part of community life. Any learner who arrived at the school in the morning after the morning assembly had to

start in the principal's office and one was lucky if she escaped corporal punishment. I cannot remember any parental involvement in the school but I know that my family was very close to all the teachers and on many occasions we were asked to carry fruit and vegetables for teachers. This closeness was due to the fact that my family seemed to be one of the more enlightened in a village that was extremely backward and displayed little enthusiasm and respect for education. In addition, this was because we were one of the families who, like most teachers, were from outside Pondoland. I cannot remember the involvement of the community in the running of the school. I, however, remember that the principal attended the community meetings called *Imbizos* held at the chief's place, regularly.

When I passed my Standard six I left Pondoland to stay with my paternal uncle who was an Anglican priest and stayed in the St Johns mission close to the then famous St Johns College in Mthatha. My uncle sent me to a boarding school where I passed Junior Certificate. I then did matric at St Johns College. I completed my matric and was admitted to Fort Hare University for a BA, after obtaining a bursary from the Mahatma Gandhi Trust and from the then Transkei Department of Education. During the years 1973 and 1974 Fort Hare was rocked by strikes linked to the struggle against Bantu Education.

I joined the teaching profession in 1975 and in 1976 the homeland of Transkei was granted independence. Immediately after this, Transkei developed a school system different from that in the Republic of South Africa. It set up its own curricula and examinations. As the homeland of Transkei was poorly resourced and so the quantity and quality of the provision of education lagged behind that of the urban areas served by the Department of Education and Training (DET). Within the homeland the central core around the legislative and administrative heart of the homeland of Mthatha was better served than the peripheral rural areas.

I left Transkei and took a teaching post in the then Qwaqwa homeland in the now Free State Province early in 1977. The 1976 students' uprising in Soweto had a great influence on education in Qwaqwa at this time. Many parents living in Soweto sent their children to Qwaqwa. This resulted in these boycotts spilling over into Qwaqwa. From 1977 most of the students in most high schools in Qwaqwa, especially boarding

schools were from Soweto and parts of the Free State. As will be discussed later, the 1976 riots continued and by the 1980s assumed a struggle for a People's education. In 1979 a prolonged strike took place in my school and this resulted in the departure of the principal by mid-year. My assessment was that management of the school was weak and students easily took advantage of the situation. After long investigations the principal was replaced in July 1979 but his replacement did not return the beginning of the following year because discipline and the culture of teaching and learning had broken down. This was partly because students were difficult to control especially by somebody from outside the school. By this time I was already a deputy principal. I was asked to 'hold the fort', to use the words of the Chairperson of the Governing Council. From my observation this was supposed to be a temporary situation but the challenges that followed during the strikes of 1980 seem to have convinced the Governing Council that I could 'hold the fort' permanently. So it was that I assumed principalship of the school in January 1980. The wave of strikes continued in the homeland throughout 1980. At some point all the high schools in the homeland were rocked by strikes and finally had to be closed down for some time. I found myself in a very difficult situation but because I worked hand in hand with the teachers and the Governing Council we managed to avert closure. Until the end of 1983 when I left the school and Qwaqwa, Sekgutlong High School was one of the top schools in the homeland in terms of its Junior and Senior Certificate results, music and sporting achievements and the most beautiful and well-kept school grounds for which it was the first to win a roving cup sponsored by the then chief minister the day after he saw the school grounds for the first time.

In 1984 I went back to Transkei and was asked to start a new high school. After successfully establishing the school I joined the University of Transkei's Faculty of Education as a lecturer focussing on teacher training in 1989. This helped me to keep contact with the schools and continue experiencing the problems of rural schools and how little change was taking place in teaching and learning as well as management of schools.

In 1997 teacher training colleges were phased out. In this period of uncertainty and lack of direction about their future, many of these college lecturers would sit in the government offices waiting for redeployment. On occasions I often met some of them

talking excitedly about going to teacher development workshops organised by Imbewu in various parts of the Eastern Cape. Apparently, some of them had been asked to join the Imbewu Project and had been trained as facilitators. In 2002 I was asked by the dean of the faculty to represent Unitra in one of the Imbewu workshops. It was this workshop along with my informal discussions with college lecturers who were participating in Imbewu that catalysed my interest in Imbewu. In 2002 I was also invited to be one of the fieldworkers in the evaluation of Imbewu that was being conducted by the Joint Education Trust (JET). This gave me an idea of the various school contexts in which Imbewu had been implemented. Most of the activities that I participated in were subject related. At this time I was already registered for DEd with the University of Nottingham in partnership with the then University of Natal on school improvement and I was about to embark on my thesis.

My involvement with rural schools in Qwaqwa and in the Transkei region of the Eastern Cape Province of South Africa as a teacher for thirteen years and as a principal for eight years and later as a teacher trainer in a university for fifteen years and my observations during the JET evaluation of Imbewu gave me experience of the conditions and difficulties of teaching and learning in rural schools. This involvement with the schools for teacher training revealed how little change had taken place in the management of schools and ultimately in the management and improvement of teaching and learning. This was reflected in the generally unsatisfactory grade 12 results, which up to now have been the only measure of teacher and pupil performance that is available. The importance placed on the grade 12 examinations means that performance of the education system is assessed on the basis of the last three years of schooling. This is despite that fact that the general education and training section of the education system is far larger than the FET section. It is obvious that if the primary schooling has not provided the child with a solid foundation, it will be difficult for him/her to do well in the last three years of secondary education. It, therefore, seems necessary that improvements in education that begin and focus on the primary sector are likely to have a long-term effect. I am of the opinion that initial professional development and school improvement efforts should be placed on the primary sector. According to Walker (1994: 65), the World Bank views effective primary education as “a rock bottom necessity for development”. This offers a justification for the EC government’s focus on initial

school improvement efforts in the primary sector. These opinions and my brief involvement with the Imbewu Project described above provided a motivation for this study. This was because, firstly the project focussed on the primary sector. Secondly, it adopted certain principles accepted as the core of continuous professional development both internationally and in SA, including, among others, collaboration and partnership, systemic and integrated approach to school improvement, whole school development and practice-based enquiry which have been practiced actively in many of the disadvantaged schools in many rural areas in South Africa.

CHAPTER 1: BACKGROUND, PROBLEM AND PURPOSE

1.1 INTRODUCTION

The South African Education system has been in the throes of major change for over ten years. Since 1994 many laws have been passed and policy documents formulated which have been designed to eradicate the legacy of apartheid and to provide good education for all the country's population.

Two challenges faced education policy makers and administrators in the new dispensation. On the one hand, the education system was characterized by gross inequalities which were in turn strongly marked by race as well as by a rural/urban dimension. The features of this unequal system are well known – racially skewed curricula, inadequate physical resources in African communities, and shortages of teachers. The constituency worst served by the education system were black children in rural areas. In short, apartheid had bequeathed an education system that was socially unjust. Apartheid education was also authoritarian. The way in which education was delivered reflected strong teacher-student hierarchies, limited debate for questioning and a stern approach to questions of discipline which was characterized by the liberal use of corporal punishment. On the other hand, the education system was extremely inefficient. Many schools were hardly running at all. Drop out rates were very high and the quality of education was poor. Very few learners, for example, matriculated with university exemptions and even fewer with higher grade passes in science and maths.

The response of government to these problems was twofold. On the one hand, it responded by applying a rights approach which via the South African Schools Act of 1996 (SASA) made access to education free and compulsory for children from the ages of 6 to 16. This same approach outlawed the use of corporal punishment and the expulsion of pregnant learners from school. Another part of this approach was to democratize schools by promoting community participation. These measures have generally been considered to be part of government's transformation agenda, an agenda designed to sweep away the legacy of apartheid and replace it with an emancipatory education system.

On the other hand, the government sought to improve the quality of education in more conventional ways. Acknowledging that teachers were under qualified, it embarked on a restructuring of teacher education. At the same time, consideration was given to the governance of schools and here the role of the principal was identified as being critical. Drawing on international models of school improvement, principals were given more powers and responsibilities. Increasingly they became managers and their connection to the classroom was reduced. They became responsible for the performance of their schools but they did not have a free hand. As part of the democratization agenda of transformation, they were expected to work with parents and learners, particularly the newly constituted school governing bodies (SGBs).

The radical educational change envisaged in ‘transformation’ debates sat uneasily next to the increased power of the principals and school managers. It created a situation where conflict between principals and SGBs could easily erupt. It also placed contradictory expectations on principals – that they be more efficient managers while at the same time being more accountable and democratically related to parents and the SGB. Yet another tension was which aspect of government policy should be accorded most importance – the demands for redress and democracy, or the demand for school efficiency. As we shall see, these tensions surfaced time and again in the specific case that is examined in this study, the Imbewu Project.

The Imbewu Project (IP) was a professional development intervention in education in the Eastern Cape of South Africa, which aimed to assist the process of transforming education. One of its main goals which will be discussed in more detail below was to improve the quality of education. It was funded by the United Kingdom’s Department for International Development (DfID) under a grant of 7.5 million pounds over a three-year period that ended in September 2000. “Imbewu”, a Xhosa word for seed, was chosen as the Project name because of the intention to plant the seeds of transformation and renewal. The project was a joint venture between the Eastern Cape Department of Education (ECDE) and the DfID. The Project aimed at building capacity for educators, school management teams and the SGBs by providing in-service training for teachers and education management development training for school management and SGB members to enable them to transform education (ECSECC: 2000).

The challenge of improving school efficiency has been particularly severe in some regions of the country, particularly those afflicted by high levels of unemployment, poorly developed infrastructure and a backlog in the provision of such facilities as classrooms, electricity and toilets. The Eastern Cape is one of the poorest provinces in the country and it has battled to implement policies designed to transform education and create the conditions for the delivery of quality education for all. One of the aims of this study is to examine how the IP unfolded and to make an assessment of the impact of its work. In the context of a very ambitious process of educational change, the involvement of partnership is critical for enhancing the capacity to effect such change. In this study I shall be examining, through the eyes of participants, the way in which the IP intervention was implemented and identifying those factors which promoted or undermined its efficacy.

School management is one of the key areas identified for the improvement of efficiency. This is because an orderly school environment that is efficient and well-managed provides the preconditions for enhanced student learning. Effective school management depends largely on the school principal (Fullan, 1991). This study examines one initiative that specifically attempted to improve school management in a selected number of schools in the Eastern Cape. Because it is believed that primary schools are responsible for establishing a foundation for success in later years, they were the focus of this initiative. The schools that were targeted were in the rural areas of the Eastern Cape, in the townships and in the farm areas. This is in keeping with the goals of the SASA, which attempts, simultaneously to acknowledge and address the diverse school histories of underdevelopment and self-management.

External interventions such as Read, Educate and Develop (READ), Teacher Opportunity Programmes (TOPS), the Science Education Project (SEP), the Molteno Language Project, which have been active in the Eastern Cape since the time of homeland governments have played an important role improving the quality of education in the region. One reason why they have been able to continue working in the rural areas, according to Hartshorne (1992: 134), has been that most of them have been able to win a large measure of acceptance from the communities in which the schools are situated, and above all they have learnt to work closely with the teachers on an increasingly democratic share basis, both as regards the formal teachers

associations and in the setting up of local teacher support groups. In this sense, they have at the very local level, combined the joint imperatives of democratising education and improving the quality of the education delivered. Although cooperative agreements between outside agencies and education departments are limited, in relation to the total needs, inequalities and backlogs in rural education, they nevertheless point to one of the possible strategies for approaching the problems of under-development, and of eliminating at least one of the inequalities which exist in the Eastern Cape. The IP was based on the same principles of co-operation between an outside agency and donor, the DFID and the ECDE as will be discussed in more detail in section 4.

1.2 UNDERSTANDING EDUCATIONAL CHANGE

Approaching the question of educational change rapidly brings one to the question of scale and time frame. How broad should educational change be? Should it reach everybody? At all levels of the educational system? And how long should the process of change take? Answers are not available to all these questions though South Africa's Constitution provides an unambiguous answer to the former questions – it is each and every citizen's right to enjoy a free education up to the age of 16.

1.2.1 The nature of educational Change

Theorists of educational change and policy makers distinguish between ad hoc change and lasting change. In the South African context, there has been a concerted effort to ensure deep and long-lasting change and this has taken the form of creating mechanisms, policies and processes designed to endure beyond the tenure of any one minister, any one school principal or any one teacher. In terms of educational interventions, the challenge is to produce sustainable changes that will stand the test of time. To effect sustainable changes in schooling system requires the involvement of school principals. Whether one agrees that the school principal is the most important change agent in a school or not, there is no doubt that without his or her involvement, transformation is unlikely to be successful. One of the essential functions of the managerial role of the school principal is managing change. Fullan (1991) asserts that although not all change is improvement, all improvement involves

change. When discussing educational change, therefore, it is necessary to make reference to school improvement because this study assumes that any educational change being implemented in South Africa at present is aimed at improvement of education and correcting the backlogs created by apartheid education although, as already indicated, there may be tension between these two goals. Fullan (1992: 21) observes that successful school improvement depends on an understanding of the problem of change at the level of practice and the development of corresponding strategies for bringing about beneficial reforms. This is what he calls the implementation perspective, which concerns itself with whether change has actually occurred in practice. The implementation of educational change thus involves change in practice. Hopkins, Ainscow and West (1994: 21) suggest that educational change or innovation involves the adoption and use of specific educational ideas and practices while school improvement is not simply about innovation and purposive change, but also tends to incorporate an implementation strategy and a focus on the school as an organisation. This helps to put change in place and to enhance the school's ability to manage change (Fullan & Hopkins, 1998). Fullan (1991: 37) emphasises the need to pay careful attention to whether change has occurred in practice when looking at innovations so that we do not run the risk of appraising non-events. The focus of the IP in schools was improvement of school management, teaching and learning, teaching /learning resources and school community relationships. The relationship between change and improvement referred to above implies that the IP aimed at changing not only the practices but also the schools in which the practices are taking place. The principal is the key to facilitating change and improvement in the school. The focus of this study is therefore to identify the changes in the principals' management practices that have occurred as a result of the IP, if any, and to find out whether such changes have been sustained or not since the implementation of the IP. The study will thus examine the factors that have influenced the sustainability and institutionalisation of such management practices.

1.2.2 The need for change in the principal's management role

Principals are the key to the success of any changes and innovations in the schools. Effective leadership has been frequently put forward as one of the common features of effective schools (Fullan, 1991). Therefore, the success of the implementation of

innovations in schools depends considerably on the management capacity of the school principal.

Fullan (1987), Hopkins *et al* (1994) and Hopkins (2000) concur about the significance of effective leadership and management in contemporary educational change. Planned change, school improvement, effective schools and staff development all bear the mark of the principal as central for leading and supporting change (Fullan, 1992: 96). Hall (1980) emphasises that the degree of implementation of any innovation is different in different schools because of the actions and concerns of the principal. The SASA suggests that the principal in the new dispensation will be the key change agent at the school level, particularly since a whole-school development philosophy is being advocated. Principals can be understood as internal change agents as well as one of the levels for school development and change (Harris, 1998: 4). The centrality of principals to school change processes has been the basis for school improvement work around the world. Absence of training in management on assuming principalship has however, led to their success being based on maintaining stability (Fullan, 1991: 145) rather than stimulating change. One of the changes in the principalship according to Sybouts and Wendel (1994: 2) has been the range of expectations of the position. Increased expectations of principals are also evident in the SASA. The expectations have moved from demands of management and control to the demands for an educational leader who can foster staff development, parent involvement, and community support and student growth and to succeed with major changes and expectations. These changing demands on principals imply that they need to be supported to change and improve the way they manage the schools in order to effectively transform them. Professional development is central to the role of teachers and the leadership role of school principals. In South Africa, the need to improve and transform schools has necessitated the introduction of interventions such as the IP in the Eastern Cape Province. Such interventions are meant to help the role players involved in education at the school level to change their practices with the ultimate aim of improving student learning. Hence, one of the objectives of this study is to analyse the changes in the management practices of school principals who participated in the IP in relation to the current expectations. Experience and literature have shown that interventions do not always succeed in effecting lasting changes.

The following section will discuss the factors that influence change in the management practices in the school.

1.2.3 Factors influencing change in management practices of principals

Interventions such as the IP are useful for introducing significant organisational (structural) changes in the core management functions such as governance and management of resources particularly financial resources, relations with the community, and teaching and learning. However, fundamental change in educational practice is by nature problematic, slow, takes considerable time and is the result of long- term management programmes of three to five years (Mestry, 1999: 8).

Among the challenges that might limit the changes that a principal might make are the prevailing conditions of governance within the school at the point at which an intervention is launched. For example, a principal of a school who is used to operating in an authoritarian way will find it difficult to switch rapidly to a more communicative and democratic style and might even resist such a change.

Another challenge, already mentioned, is that in the specific case of IP, the principals found themselves responding to two imperatives – transformation and school efficiency – and while these were often in harmony, they could also be in conflict. The desire to improve school results, for example, could outweigh the desire to consult the SGB and parents and this could result in conflict within a school which in turn would impact on educational change.

A further challenge is contained in the nature of the intervention itself. IP was ultimately a top-down initiative and principals enrolled in it on the understanding of having to heed the ‘rules’ of the intervention. These ‘rules’ in turn flowed from the IP’s structural location within a funding nexus. Externally funded interventions tend to be tied to an intervention cycle usually of three years because they are generally funded from aid packages, as was the IP under study. This means that when the cycle ends the funding stops and the country has to take over the funding burden. This does not usually happen because the socio-economic conditions which necessitated the financial support in the first place still prevail. When funding stops the availability of

resources in the form of money for teaching material, monitoring and support, which were responsible for the success of the intervention stop. Thus principals are dependent on the intervention and unless mechanisms for sustainability have successfully been established, they are likely to feel abandoned when an intervention ends.

Principals work within a district, regional and provincial context and this too will have an impact on their ability to implement educational change. In the case of IP the relationship of the intervention to official education structures was critical in influencing the sustainability of change. The viability of IP depended on continuous support from the system as a whole in terms of provision of financial resources, human resources, and professional support and pressures when the cycle of the intervention comes to an end. Such support can only be guaranteed if the project's activities are integrated into the district and provincial programme of activities. This entails, *inter alia*, training of the provincial and district staff and making them part of the implementation process of the intervention. Continuous support ensures that the schools continue to undertake the activities introduced by these interventions and through these continuous actions change their attitudes and beliefs. In addition, successful implementation of such interventions must take into account the internal conditions of the school. To ensure sustainability, organisational change must go hand in hand with the changes in culture and the individual and collective capacity to work through the structures. In the absence of support, principals could be left out on a limb without the resources necessary to entrench change.

All educational change is subject to contextual and other factors. Harris (1998: 13) observes that educational change is often not achieved because of the tendency to ignore contextual factors. There is a tendency to adopt an undifferentiated approach to schools of varying socio-economic circumstances. Little account is taken of the culture, context, socio-economic conditions of the school community, catchment areas, the trajectory of improvement, the support and motivation provided by both the district and provincial departments and all other independent variables. De Clerq (1997) expresses the same view when she observes that interventions tend to favour the interests of the more privileged sections of society and only indirectly address the needs of the excluded and disadvantaged. Adam and Waghid (2005: 30) identify

socio-economic factors as some of the factors that hinder democratic practices in the school in terms of SGB participation in disadvantaged communities. The same notion is expressed by Veenman and Vote (1994: 305) in their argument that implementation of educational programs is more successful in schools with norms of collegiality and continuous improvement, in which a greater range of professional interaction with fellow teachers or administrators is pursued, including talks about instruction, structured observation and shared planning and preparation. Fullan (1999: 20) identifies entrenched and institutionalised practices of teachers, the weak incentives operating on teachers to change their practices in their daily routines and the extraordinary costs of ensuring sustainability of school improvement practices as factors that may limit the success of interventions. Stoll and Fink (1996: 11) suggest that the best chance of changing schools in ways which prepare pupils for the challenges of the twenty first century is to look at schools and their contexts as ecosystems. This means that conditions prevailing at the school and their contexts should be considered when interventions are implemented. Such conditions influence the extent to which teachers and principals and all those people who play a role in the school recognise the need for change and thus change their practices. Fullan (1992: 5) expresses the same view when he observes that outstanding leadership is exquisitely sensitive to the context in which it is exercised. This suggests that the changes that will be experienced as a result of an intervention such as the IP will vary according to the varying contexts in which it is implemented. Awareness of the existence of variables in the context within which the intervention is implemented therefore needs to form an integral part of the analysis of the changes in the schools. Such conditions therefore need to be identified and analysed. Such an analysis helps to isolate the strengths and weaknesses of the intervention so that these can be improved before it is implemented in other schools. If we are to look at schools and their contexts as ecosystems, as Stoll and Fink (1996) suggest, then in analysing the changes in the management practices of principals we need to look at these contexts and how they influence the changes in these practices. However, in looking at how such contexts influence the changes we must bear in mind Christie's (1998: 297) observation that social context is not all-determining, and building human agency and responsibility at the school level is an important dimension of changing schools. This implies that willingness on the part of people to act may lead to successful improvement in the face of challenging circumstances. This, on the other hand,

means that attempts to change the institution must go hand in hand with the development of the school personnel with the moral commitment and will to change.

The role of the principal referred to above places the principal at the centre of change and it creates a need for any professional development initiative aimed at transforming education to include, and begin with, school principals. But any intervention that begins with principals, however must also acknowledge the need to work with district and provincial officials directly linked to the school, particularly in those aspects in which they have to render professional guidance and support to the principals in the responsibilities alluded to as well as to teachers. Such professional guidance and support is seen as one of the challenges and key priorities in the provision of basic education. The success or failure of an intervention such as the IP therefore has to be assessed against a number of questions, including, inter alia, the following:

1. Did the intervention provide adequate and quality training and orientation for school principals to enable them to manage the tasks referred to above?
2. To what extent and in what ways have school principals participating in the IP changed their management practices?
3. What educational and contextual factors influenced change in the school principals' management practices in the context of the IP?
4. Did the district and provincial officials offer adequate support and monitoring of the project implementation?
5. Have the activities of the project been sustained and institutionalised?

In the chapters that follow, I shall attempt to provide answers to these and other questions.

This study examines the changes in the management practices of principals during and after the implementation of the IP with respect to financial management and control, developing systems and processes for human resource productivity with respect to teachers, developing and managing relationships with the community and managing material and physical resources. The study also focuses on how external interventions, such as the IP, get introduced in schools in disadvantaged communities

and how such contexts influence the extent to which practices from these interventions endure or are sustained. Furthermore, the study focuses on identifying the factors that determine the sustainability of practices emanating from such interventions as well as the extent and ways in which the changes in the principals' management practices influence teaching and learning in particular schools.

Most people would say that the impact of Imbewu would be best measured by measuring change. However, for many reasons such a measurement was not feasible in this study. For this reason an alternative approach was taken. This study focuses on the views, perceptions and experiences of the role players and adopts a qualitative research design. The qualitative researcher views human behaviour as a product of how people interpret the world. Hitchcock and Hughes (1995) argue that qualitative or naturalistic researchers emphasise the importance of discovering meanings and interpretations of events and actions. This is because, the writers argue, qualitative or naturalistic researchers recognise that what goes on in schools and classrooms is made up of complex layers of meanings, interpretations, values and attitudes. This, according to them, necessitates qualification of actions, ideas, values and meanings through the eyes of participants. The task of the qualitative methodologist is therefore to capture the process of interpretation (Babbie & Mouton, 2001: 271). To achieve this, one needs to focus on the perceptions and interpretations of the participants. This means that the researcher had to choose a design, which involved asking questions of participants that attempt to provide an indication of change. The most important of the participants were the principals themselves, and in chapters 4 and 5, I present and analyse the data generated by questionnaires and interviews with these principals. But one cannot depend solely on the opinions of principals as their opinions may be biased and will certainly not be the only perspectives of the process. My data chapters therefore include responses of teachers and SGBs. In chapters 4 and 5 therefore I also present the views of the teachers and the SGBs who were also affected by the IP intervention and interacted daily with the principals during its implementation.

Transformation of schools in the provinces is guided by and must occur within the framework of the policies of the National Department of Education. The following

section will therefore briefly discuss changes and transformation within the education system in South Africa particularly before and after 1994.

1.3 TRANSFORMATION IN SOUTH AFRICAN EDUCATION: PROMISE, POLICY AND PROBLEMS

In his seminal edited collection on Apartheid education, Kallaway (1991: 1) notes the need for an investigation of educational issues in South Africa to be located within the broader context of political, social and economic change as a basis for an understanding of the more general, structural significance of shifts in educational policy. He emphasises that failure to use such a framework does not only run the risk of irrelevance but is also likely to mislead those who have the responsibility of planning for a more just and equitable educational future. The following section will therefore, give a brief review of education in South Africa before and after 1994. This will provide a broad as well as a local context within which the IP was implemented and the background necessary for understanding the need for interventions in black schools, particularly in the rural areas.

1.3.1 Education in South Africa before 1994

Before 1994 the education and training sector was structured almost totally on apartheid lines. The structure of education was influenced mainly by the Bantu Education Act of 1953 and the National Education Policy Act of 1967, which promoted a racially and culturally segregated and differentiated education system. Education was therefore fragmented, unequal and undemocratic. Under the Bantu Education Policy, education was characterised by racial inequality in terms of funding, access and content (ANC, 1994; Department of Education, 2000; Harber, 1997). Thus, while the Bantu Education Policy expanded education provision to many Africans who had hitherto had no provision, such education was poorly funded, was often taught by teachers with inadequate education and training, was characterised by use of traditional teacher-centred approaches to teaching, lack of learning materials, big classes which made individual or group methods almost

impossible, primitive facilities, the fatigue in children brought about by malnutrition and poor home circumstances (Harsthorne, 1992; Kallaway, 1991).

The consequence of the under-funding of Black education and attendant problems was that by the mid 1980s the department was faced with an almost complete breakdown by which time backlogs were so daunting that they had become almost beyond the power of the economy to cope with. So, although there were considerable increases in the total budgets allocated to black education, public spending as a percentage of the gross domestic product decreased steadily from 1972 (Hartshorne, 1992 : 42). The result was that, despite the increased provision, there was an increase in children who were not functionally literate and numerate and high level skills among black Africans became ever more limited. By 1990 it was reported that 66% of the youth and adults between 16 and 34 were functionally illiterate. A majority of this cadre was identified to be among the black population (Hartshorne, 1992: 46). It was further noted that schools attended by blacks were not only under-resourced and understaffed, but were also experiencing high drop out and failure rates. The result was the total collapse of the teaching and learning culture as learners began militantly to object to Bantu education. The collapse of the culture of teaching and learning reached a climax during the 1980s having been sparked by the 1976 riots of students rebelling against the use of Afrikaans. Harber (1997: 142) observes that in 1985 the emphasis of the struggle against apartheid within education began to change from an outright rejection of Bantu education to an attempt to change schools from within. He further observes that, while this involved a rejection of racism in education, according to Christie (1991) this was expressed in very general terms and made use of traditional socialist language such as serving the interests of the masses and creating a working-class consciousness. An additional theme added to the struggle was the need to educate for democratic participation. The effect of the collapse in the culture of teaching and learning is captured by Mokgalabone's (1995: 14) reference to the drop in pass rates from 1976 to the period between 1988 and 1995 in the DET: in 1976 the pass rate was 84.8 % but this declined to rates from 68.6% to 55.2% during the period 1988 to 1995; while matric exemptions declined from 23.6% to 15.6% during the same period. This decline was coupled with erosion of professional attitudes on the part of teachers and loss of respect for the boundaries of time and space, which are predicates for school discipline (Christie, 1998: 287). Due to its poor resourcing and

conflict black education stood lowest on such indicators of quality as pupil retention and pass rates (Wedekind, Lubisi, Harley & Gultig, 1996: 419).

At the school level there was a variety of systems of institutional governance, which related to the different financial models. These varied in terms of the representation of parents, teachers, students and other stakeholders, as well as their powers and responsibilities.

- In predominantly white schools, the so-called Model C state aided school, parents had considerable management powers. These powers included prescribing compulsory school fees, determining admission policies, selecting staff and appointing additional staffs, who were paid from school funds.
- In state schools for Africans there was provision for school management committees comprising elected parents and the principal, but these were discredited and in the majority of cases hardly functional. There was little organised contact between parents and teachers. Principals were expected to carry substantial teaching loads in addition to a range of bureaucratic functions with little or no clerical support. Students, teachers, parents and workers were excluded from the decision-making processes. For a long time teacher and student participation in decision-making in the school remained the focus of intense contestation. Many school communities struggled to establish and maintain Parent Teacher Student Associations (PTSAs) as democratic structures in the face of official hostility.
- In state-aided farm schools, the farm owner or the farm manager had the power to establish or close a school, appoint staff and determine access.
- In community schools in the rural areas of the former homelands, the traditional authorities tended to have, in effect, greater authority than government departments to establish schools and administer funds. Land was allocated by the tribal authority, and in many cases, the costs of building schools were borne by the community. In poor rural areas such as in the Transkei, building structures tended to be of poor quality because communities could not afford good building materials. In the worst situations communities continued to use rondavels borrowed from families with some classes held under trees. The principals were not accountable to school committees, and because of illiteracy and

disempowerment, school committees had little authority. Power relations were extremely male dominated and hierarchical (ANC, 1994)

Institutional governance within the school system was one of the weakest and least coherent aspects of education in South Africa. This is apparent in Christie's (1998: 289) descriptions of the conditions in most of the schools involved in the state's Culture of Learning, Teaching and Services (COLTS) initiative:

Information was poorly communicated, disciplinary and grievance procedures were vague or non-existent, staff meetings were not held regularly and there was evidence that meetings procedures, record keeping and general administration were poor, time boundaries were not maintained. Schools were unable to enforce a full working day or week for students and staff, and students, staff and principals themselves often came late to school and left early. A common practice was for numbers of students to leave school premises at lunch break and not return for the rest of the day.

Other evidence of more complex organizational breakdown was the breakdown of formal relationships within the schools. Information from interviews conducted by Christie (1998: 290) revealed the following:

The absence of school vision and purpose; demotivation of students and their lack of interest in their studies; demotivation of teachers who felt underpaid, blamed for the problems and disempowered; demotivation and lack of professional skills of management figures, who felt disempowered and unable to perform competently.

The broader transition in South Africa after 1994 has therefore seen a complex interplay between a lack of structural and organisational containment for learners, restructuring of the education sector, large-scale redeployments and retrenchments, budgetary cuts in education, and a decline in the levels of community support and acknowledgement. These have all contributed to an environment that is less containing for learners and educators; and that is open to being impacted upon by a

range of potentially negative and violent influences (Stevens, Wyngaard & Van Niekerk, 2001: 146).

The conditions above created a demand on the part of government after 1994 to invest time and energy as well as money to design and strengthen institutional governance to be the participatory and efficient function that it needs (ANC, 1994). The fact that education was structured along apartheid lines has meant that transformation of education among those that were disadvantaged had to begin from a low base. This made it necessary for the government to target those communities that were neglected and disadvantaged during the apartheid regime. Most prominent here, were rural schools found in the former homelands and the township schools.

According to Christie (1998), all the interviews with the various stakeholder groups revealed the conflictual nature of relationships between management, teachers, students and parents and the negative effects this had on the school. This pointed to lack of respect, trust and co-operation among the different stakeholders, with each group complaining about the others' lack of motivation, commitment and discipline. According to Christie (1998) what compounded the problem was the reluctance of most stakeholders to acknowledge their respective roles, responsibilities and agency in dealing with their institutional and structural problems. The politics of ungovernability during the 1980s had as one of its side effects, the erosion of respectful classroom conditions and disrespecting the boundaries of time and space, which contained both teachers and students.

One of the features of the new system of education introduced by the South African Schools Act is decentralisation resulting from the democratisation of education. Democratisation of education implies enhanced participation (Sayed & Carrim, 1997: 91). This shifts decision-making to the school, thus making it the locus of decision-making and participation of parents, learners and teachers. This shift is based on the conviction that the participation of teachers, learners and parents can enhance the achievement of the desired transformation. Participation is seen as increasing the teacher morale and productivity, as eliciting acceptance and contributing to improved student achievement. This decentralised form of management in the education system is called school-based management. The following section will discuss school-based

management in South Africa because I believe that any management initiative after 1994 should align itself with national policy and is expected that the IP will reflect this alignment.

1.3.2 School-based management in South Africa

One of the core principles of the IP is a move away from centralisation of power in the central office to the school, school based management. In this way the IP was aligned to the SASA, 1996 which advocates devolution of power to the school. In addition, the IP, like the SASA, envisaged the sharing of power between the principal and other school role players such as teachers and the school governing bodies in the primary school. The idea that democracy entails and should enhance greater participation is central to the notion of educational democracy in South Africa (Sayed & Carrim, 1997: 91). As already indicated, however, it is possible that democratization will not lead to school improvement and this is a theme that will be pursued throughout the thesis. Nevertheless, according to Mosoge and van der Westhuizen (1998: 73) educational reforms and restructuring initiatives rest on the conviction that the participation of teachers, learners and parents can enhance the achievement of desired transformation.

School-based management has been enacted through the SASA. School-based management casts principals, teachers, learners and parents into new roles and responsibilities. It attempts to move decision-making process from the central office to the school thereby introducing the concept of self-managing school (Mosoge & van der Westhuizen, 1998: 74; Steyn, 2003). The devolution of authority through decentralisation is therefore the first dimension of school-based management. The second dimension relates to the participation of stakeholders. In the process of delegating authority, all stakeholders concerned with the management of a school take responsibility for the internal management of a school. Lately, the terms 'management' and 'governance' have been used to differentiate the roles of principals and other stakeholders in school management. School-based management is associated with the following terms: shared decision-making, participatory decision-making, decentralisation and empowerment. Shared decision-making emphasises a fresh conception of the principal's role in school management and a different kind of

relationship with teachers (Steyn, 1998: 131). The principal's role is based on a form of power that is consensual and facilitative by nature and which is manifested through other people and not over other people (Steyn, 1998: 131). This requires suitable training for principals and teachers and ample opportunities for power sharing (Steyn, 1998:131). Peters as cited by Adams and Waghid (2005: 25) notes that citizens of a democracy do not simply arrive at political maturity and stand ready, willing and able to run its institutions. According to Adams and Waghid (Ibid.), this statement implies that there is need for education and empowerment of participants in the principles of democracy. To emphasise the need for the professional development of school principals for their new or changed roles and responsibilities in the educational transformation in South Africa, the ANC (1994: 27) which took power in April 1994 observed that:

Under a democratic government, with a participatory structure of governance in the education and training system, the vital role of the school principal as a leader in educational transformation must be clearly established. Their relationships with teachers and students, in particular their responsibilities for building or rebuilding the culture of teaching and learning within a democratic school environment, and working productively with the school community and its school board, must be supported by an adequate programme of orientation and training, and effective support services from the Provincial Education and Training authorities.

This excerpt indicates the roles envisaged for the school principal in the transformation of education within the school in the new South Africa: manage and lead transformation within the school (transformational leadership); lead and manage the rebuilding of the culture of teaching and learning (instructional leadership) which, in South Africa, was eroded during the 1980's; and establish productive relationships between the school and the community.

This excerpt, from a document that influenced policy drastically, like most policies, makes certain assumptions that are not feasible. Firstly, it ignores the fact that changing of roles inherent in decentralisation involves power shifts and ultimately leads to tensions. Decentralisation may therefore be problematic. Power inequalities

within schools and within school communities exist. The capacity to implement policy might not exist at the local level and policy might be undermined by these inequalities by the decentralisation policy when local actors refuse or are incapable of implementing change. This implies that simply changing the organisation or structure of schools is not sufficient to bring about educational change. The hearts and minds of the people in schools ultimately dictate what happens in schools and not changes in policies or procedures (Allen & Glickman, 1998: 505).

1.4 THE EASTERN CAPE: POVERTY AND EDUCATION

Under apartheid South Africa was divided into four provinces, the Cape, Natal, the Orange Free State and the Transvaal, and ten homelands. Each of these regions had its own department of education. In addition to these, there were departments for Coloured and Indian people as well as for Africans outside the homelands. Together these formed nineteen departments of education with different policies in a number of areas. After 1994 these departments were dismantled and replaced by one national department of education for South Africa. Each of the nine provinces also has its own department of education.

Before 1994 the area now called the Eastern Cape consisted of schools that were under six different and disparate departments: the department of Education and Training (DET), for Africans outside the homelands, the Cape Education Department (CED) for Whites, the Department of Education and Culture-House of Representatives (DEC-HOR) for Coloureds, the Department of Education and Culture- House of Delegates (DEC-HOD) for Indians, the Ciskei Department of Education (CDE), and the Transkei Department of Education (TDE). Two of these, the Ciskei and Transkei represented the most disadvantaged in virtually every single index of provision and quality. According to Hartshorne (1992: 128) the average size of class in the TBVC (Transkei, Bophuthatswana, Venda and Ciskei) in 1989 was 53.0.

After 1994 the former Departments of Education were dissolved and their functions were taken over by the new Department of Education of the province of the Eastern Cape. The provincial ministry of education is headed by a Member of the Executive

Committee (MEC) for Education. This was led by the Permanent Secretary for Education with deputies and other staff. The new province of the Eastern Cape is divided into seven regions for administrative purposes. Each of the regions is headed by a Regional Director.

The Eastern Cape is composed of at least three geopolitical units that were to form the Eastern Cape Province (Figure 1.1 below) in terms of the 1994 constitution of South Africa. These units are the two former 'independent' homelands of Ciskei and Transkei (Figure 1.2 below) that were the creation of the Apartheid regime as well as a small portion of what was the former Republic of South Africa (RSA). Like all former homelands of the former RSA, the Ciskei and Transkei are poverty stricken. The socio-economic context within which the new ECDE was established was one of rural impoverishment and underdevelopment. It is not surprising, therefore, that the Eastern Cape has been identified as the poorest province in the whole of South Africa. It has therefore inherited some of the problems that were typical of these apartheid homelands which, according to the Imbewu Project (1999: 21), include "insufficient financial resources, poor school-community relationships, poor learner performance, poor professional attitudes, vandalism and abuse of rights and responsibilities".

Insufficient financial resources, which according to Walker (1994) are the result of under-funding of education of the apartheid era, have had many repercussions on education in the form of shortage of basic resources such as books, teaching and learning aids. Poor educational facilities and resources in general, particularly in formerly black schools may result in limited use of student-centred teaching strategies and poor student learning.

The shortage of classroom accommodation and other facilities such as libraries and laboratories is a stark reality in the Eastern Cape. It is not a rare sight to see learners being taught outside and being crowded in one classroom on rainy or windy days. This is why the former State President of South Africa, Nelson Mandela, undertook a campaign to solicit financial support from the business communities to build schools in many of the rural areas of South Africa. Lack of accommodation is bound to affect teachers' ability to perform their work effectively and any school improvement and professional development programmes that may be put in place.



Figure 1.1: Map showing the Provinces of South Africa (Source: <http://www.crwflags.com/FOTW/FLAGS/za.html>)

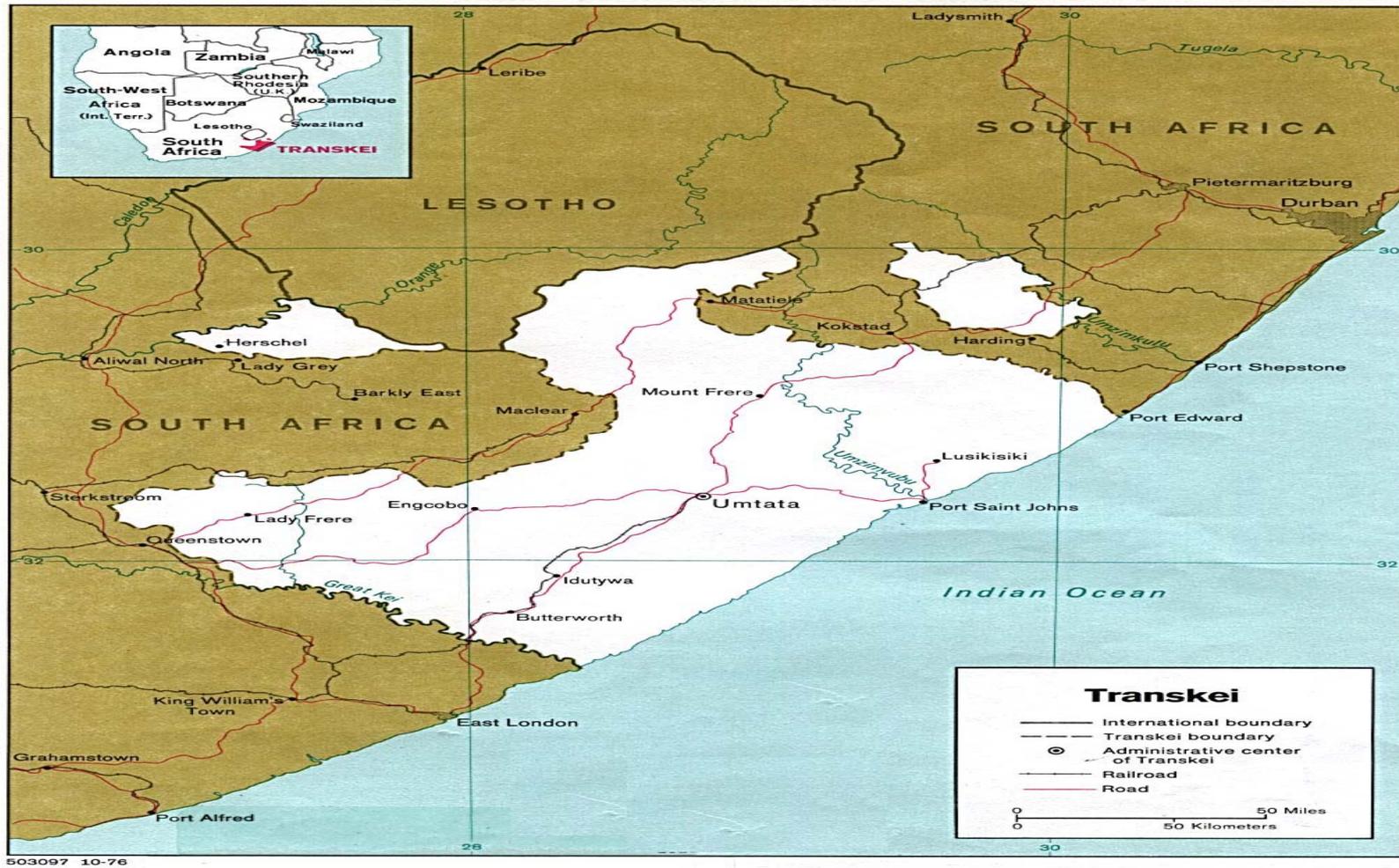


Figure 1. 2: Map showing the Transkei region of the Eastern Cape (Source: <http://www.doorway.co.za/accom.htm>)

It also implies that the scope for using learner-centred teaching strategies is limited. On the other hand, it is important to note that material circumstances do not determine success or failure, school efficiency or inefficiency. The contextual factors are important, but the performance of teachers, principals and SGBs is also independent of these factors.

Poor school-community relationships are linked to the poor educational background of the majority of the population and to the poverty of the region. Most parents in black schools, particularly in the remote rural areas, either have no schooling or have limited schooling to be able to play an effective role in the running of the school and giving all the necessary forms of support to the school. This is disempowering to such parents and renders them unable to play a meaningful role in the running of the school. This is captured by Macleod (1995) in the research that he conducted with teachers where he concludes from the interviews that knowledge and power are constituted as powerful by the teachers he interviewed and asserts that vis-à-vis the parents they (the teachers) saw themselves as powerful as they were knowledgeable and parents were not. This is emphasised by Carter, Harber and Serf's (2003: 55) observation that without the ability to read, write, count and think, it is impossible to participate effectively in democracy and in society. In addition, many parents are unemployed, making it difficult for them to pay even the lowest school fees set and to support the school financially. In the same study Macleod (1995) also discovered that teachers associated money with power and for this reason one would expect parents who are unemployed and unable to contribute financially to the school to feel inadequate to play an active role in the school. It is not surprising therefore that one of the problems in the Eastern Cape identified in the base study into the conditions of education by the ECDE for the IP was non-participation of parents. This makes the work of principals and teachers in such schools more difficult than in other schools, especially the former Model C schools and some black schools in the urban areas. It also means that for any school improvement initiative to be effective, it should, where possible, focus on improving the school-community relationships. This is the reason why the focus of the IP was rural schools, township schools and farm schools.

Poor professional attitudes and the abuse of rights and responsibilities are closely linked. Professional attitudes determine whether teachers are going to function

effectively concerning their work and in terms of their responsibilities towards the learners. This may be related to what Day (1994); Fullan (1995) and Hansen (1998) call the moral purposes of teachers and teaching. Hopkins (1997: 37) also talks about the moral purpose of educational reform, which he describes as the 'ruthless and relentless commitment to the learning of children at both individual and the institutional level'. All these need a principal who is not only strong but is also well equipped in terms of the necessary knowledge, management and leadership skills.

Before 1994 in the Eastern Cape in-service training (INSET) for principals and teachers was conducted in teacher centres (East London and Port Elizabeth) and in Transkei it was conducted in the Transkei In-service Training Centre (TRINSET) in Mthatha in the form of workshops or courses. Hopkins *et al* (1994) have observed that INSET in the form of workshops that take place outside the school, focuses on the individual and offers no support and resources to help the individual in the school situation when he/she encounters problems in putting the newly acquired ideas or skills into practice. From the researcher's experience and observation as a teacher for thirteen years, there has also been a tendency in the Eastern Cape to focus attention on the Senior Secondary sector. Despite the use of INSET, there has been a general decline in the quality and culture of teaching and learning. According to Christie (1998), this implies a breakdown in the management systems and structures of the schools within which such teaching and learning takes place. Thus, Christie sees the breakdown in management and leadership as the major cause of the breakdown of the culture of teaching and learning. This, therefore, creates a need for any professional development initiative aimed at the restoration of the culture of teaching and learning, that is, transformation, to start with management and leadership in the school.

When the new ECDE was formed in 1994 one of its challenges was to develop a form of in-service for principals and teachers which did not only focus on the individual outside the school but offered follow-up support in the school. According to the report of the ECSECC (2000: 2) during the period 1994-1996 in-service training (INSET) in the Eastern Cape was limited to subject advisors who visited schools and were able to provide limited assistance to teachers in service. No specific reference is made in the report to principals. In general, the report emphasises that staff development and training was a problematic area during this period ECSECC, 2000:

53). The report points out that in 1997 INSET joined the Teacher Development section creating more clarity on responsibilities and functions. The report further notes that teachers could not implement policy changes as they were not sufficiently informed and that principals who should have been managers implementing new policies could not, as they had not been taken through the policies. The introduction of the IP, which will be discussed in the following section, was therefore a way of meeting the need for a school-focused INSET for all role-players in the school.

When the IP was conceived in 1997 the average pupil-teacher ratio for the Eastern Cape was 48: 1, but class sizes in excess of 65:1 are still common. Only 20% of the 6126 schools in the province had access to electricity and 81% had no access to water of any kind within walking distance of the school. The classroom construction backlog was in excess of sixteen thousand classrooms. The Eastern Cape is characterised by poor school performance, high failure rate, repetition and drop-out rates, large scale under-age and over-age enrolment, low levels of efficiency and by far the highest demand for teachers in the country. Education in the province was suffering from frustration, loss of confidence, and surrender on the part of many officials in the system, and a crisis of despair (ECSECC, 2000: 5). The following table (1.1) highlights the not so good examination performance in the Eastern Cape and South Africa from 1994 to 2000.

Table 1.1: Matriculation Examination Results, 1994-2000

		Candidates	Total pass	% Pass	Total fail	% fail
Eastern Cape	1994	73728	41881	57	31847	43
	1996	66809	32639	49	34170	51
	1998	82517	37206	45	45311	55
	1999	79749	32029	40	47720	60
	2000	74505	37118	50	37387	50
Kwa-Zulu Natal	1994	75409	51005	68	24404	32
	1996	86608	53397	62	33211	31
	1998	108063	54324	50	53739	50
	1999	103104	52306	51	50798	49
	2000	96392	55128	57	41264	43
Western Cape	1994	29824	25533	86	4291	14
	1996	34830	27940	80	6890	20
	1998	38546	30438	79	8108	21
	1999	37199	29303	79	7896	21
	2000	37818	30489	81	7329	19
National	1994	495408	287343	58	208065	42
	1996	518032	278958	54	239074	46
	1998	552384	272488	49	279954	51
	1999	511159	249831	49	261328	51
	2000	489298	283294	58	206004	42

Source: Education Africa Forum, fifth edition, 2001.

1.5 THE IMBEWU PROJECT

The Imbewu Project began in 1997. As already indicated, it was a partnership between DfID and the ECDE. The ECDE concluded an agreement for the improvement and development of primary schools, with an emphasis on the professional development of teachers, principals and SGBs.

The IP was comprised of two phases. The first phase lasted from 1997-2000 started while the second phase started in 2003 and ended in 2007. Phase One was a professional development intervention. The project was to be implemented by all stakeholders involved in education. Hence the IP had the following broad aims that involve all role players involved with education in the schools:

- To transform the Department of Education's capacity for policy development, planning, budgeting, implementation, community involvement, monitoring and evaluation and management (Systemic Transformation).
- To improve management capacity and performance of primary school principals. (Improved school management).
- To improve the quality of teaching and learning in primary schools (Quality teaching and learning).
- To improve the quality and availability of appropriate teaching and learning books (Quality of teaching and learning materials).
- To enhance community involvement in the development, support and security of primary schools (Community involvement) (Imbewu, 1998).

The IP sought to improve the quality of primary education for pupils in the most disadvantaged communities in the EC. The project aimed at educational development at all levels of the education system in order to ensure the sustainability of the project's aims. To this effect, it focused on the development of 500 schools and their associated districts and regional offices (Imbewu, 1999). Districts and regional office staff had to be prepared to enable them to offer continuous monitoring and evaluation to the schools.

After collaborative background research to review and document the educational circumstances in the Province, the ECDE and the DfID jointly formulated the structure and content of the project. As a result of joint planning between role players, the Project was designed to focus on the core and critical needs of the Department (Imbewu, 1998). Such needs were identified through a baseline study conducted by the Eastern Cape Socio-Economic Consultative Council (ECSECC) for the IP (ECSECC, 2000).

The areas in which the school role players were trained appear in the conceptual framework for Imbewu training programme as modules as discussed below. The conceptual framework consisted of Introductory Modules for all practitioners including 'Vision Crafting for School Development', 'Introduction to Practice-Based Inquiry', 'Managing Change and Whole School Development'. There were also modules known as Core Resources for Professional Development for all practitioners including 'Managing relations within and between education organizations', 'Leadership', 'Managing material and physical resources' and 'Developing and managing support structures for educators and learners'. The second set of modules was for the specialist areas of Education Management Development (EMD) and INSET modules for teachers. The EMD modules meant for school principals and School Governing Bodies included 'Co-ordinating organisational systems and processes in Education', 'Planning for whole school development', 'Developing systems and processes for Human Resource productivity', 'Financial management and control' and 'Developing and managing relationships with the community' (Figure 1.3 Conceptual framework for the Imbewu training programme).

The researcher's interest in the IP stemmed from its unique nature in that, unlike many interventions, it involved and trained all the stakeholders responsible for education within the school including the school principals, teachers and school governing bodies from the participating schools. In areas where the stakeholders were known to be interacting directly in their work regularly, they were actually trained together. Since all these role-players are in some way involved in school management, it is important that they work together, have the same understandings, have good skills and be committed to the task of transforming education in the schools. Moreover, in terms of the current democratisation of school governance and

management all these role players share decision-making. The principal is, however, the key player and has direct links with both the teachers and parents in management and governance. As we shall see, differences in power and influence within the school setting have implications for the effectiveness of school change interventions.

It is of significance that the Policy Framework document referred to in section 3 published in October 2000 by the ECDE embraces most, if not all, the principles of Imbewu. For example, according to this document (EC Department of Education, 2000: 31) “schools will be organised into clusters of not more than 5 based on proximity to one another”. In the IP the school cluster is the smallest unit for inter-school collaboration, networking and mutual support. According to the EC Policy Framework, “4 days should be available in the academic year to provide professional development...In addition to these days, the Department should prioritise and schedule delivery of professional development programmes to take place outside formal school hours. At least 60% of INSET time should be used for classroom-based activities (EC Department of Education, 2000: 32). Firstly this similarity suggests that the IP informed the policy framework, which shows the extent of involvement of the provincial department in the formulation of the IP. Secondly, it seems to suggest a move by the EC Department of Education to align itself with international practices in this regard. For instance, according to Day (1994) in England, since 1987, the British government has ensured, through financial and legislative arrangements, that every school and teacher participates in at least five days of in-service development work per annum, and that schools themselves have delegated budgets for the purpose.

1.6 CONCLUSION

The IP was an intervention designed to assist the ECDE to improve the quality of education and to facilitate a national policy of educational transformation. The partnership between DfID and the ECDE was essential for the implementation of the intervention but the relationship between IP and ECDE would also be important for the impact and sustainability of the intervention. This is discussed in more detail in Chapters 4 and 5.

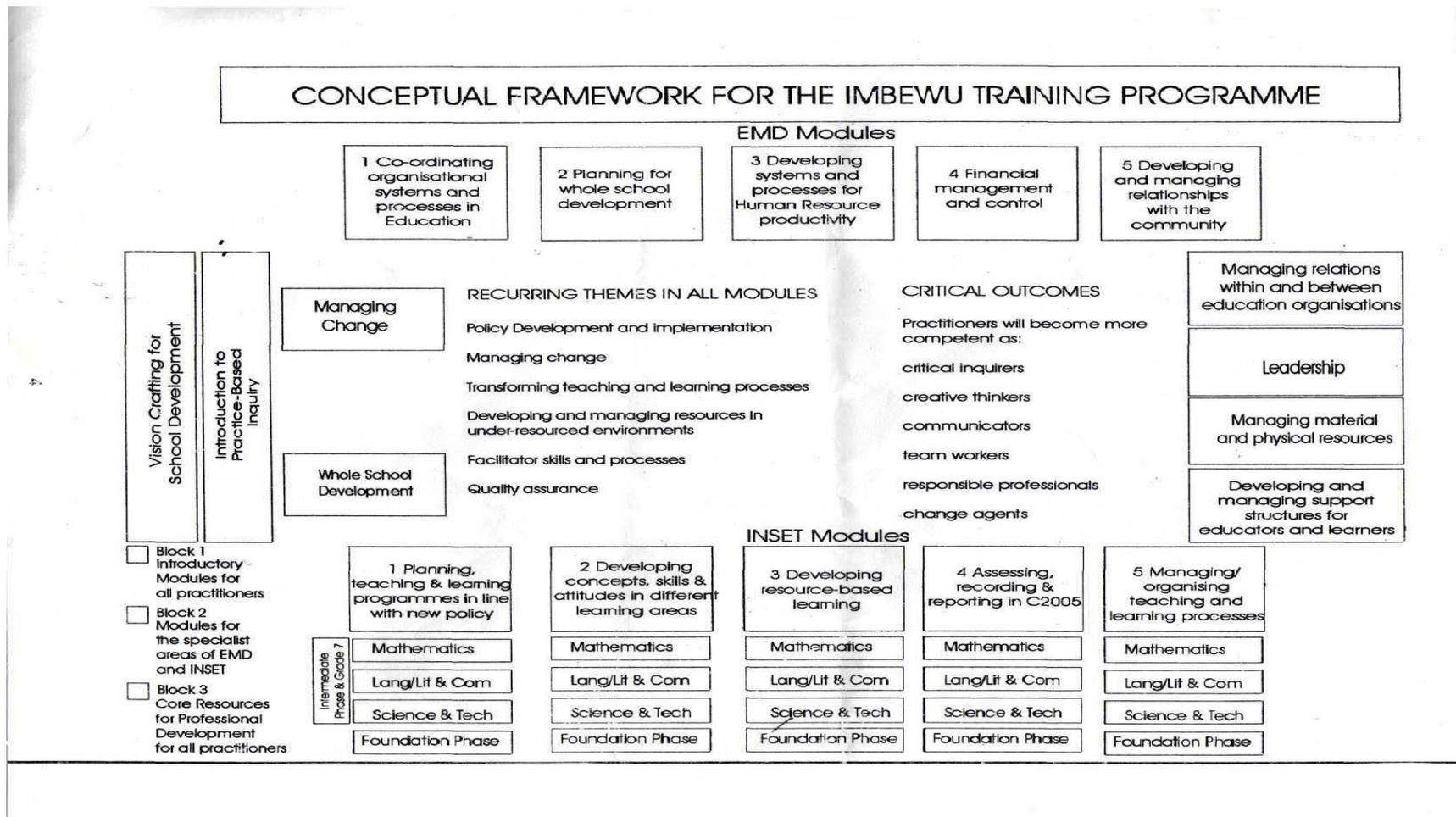


Figure 1.3: Conceptual Framework for the Imbewu Training Programme

Source: Imbewu Project-Vision Crafting for School Development-Introductory Module, 1998: 4

The IP intervention had many aspects, but this study focuses on changes in management practices of school principals, specifically on how he or she relates with teachers and members of the SGBs. One of the major goals of the IP was to improve the management of schools and to this end principals were a major focus of IP's work. Apart from improving the skills of principals, IP also sought to advance the work of democratizing management by working with SGBs and teachers. There was (and still is) a tension between improving schools and promoting decentralisation and democratization as this potentially brings the school principal into conflict with other school role-players.

Apart from addressing issues of quality and transformation the IP was also concerned with laying the foundations for sustainable change. Its ability to do so was profoundly influenced by the context in which it worked. The Eastern Cape is one of the poorest provinces in South Africa and its schooling system suffered severely in the apartheid era. In later chapters, an examination of the perceptions of those involved in the IP training workshops will be analysed to see how successful were attempts to build new, sustainable modes of governance and management in schools.

CHAPTER 2: LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter reviews literature on educational change and school improvement. In doing this it gives an overview of school improvement as an approach to the provision of quality education and transformation, the role and importance of the principal in the provision of quality education and transformation. The chapter also reflects on possible challenges of school-based management in the disadvantaged schools of the Eastern Cape. I shall proceed by examining theories of school improvement, school-based management and the role of the principal. The theories I shall be reviewing are, for the most part, relevant to developing contexts though, as I shall show, developing contexts themselves vary and are not, therefore, universally applicable. The chapter concludes by arguing that the solution to school improvement and sustainability lies in increased interaction between schools and district offices of education and the development of capacities at both levels.

2.2 APPROACHES TO SCHOOL CHANGE

This section discusses the approaches to school change. It is important to give a brief description of the approaches to change that have taken place to establish the characteristics that the change initiative under consideration shares with other approaches of change that have come before.

According to Reynolds (1997), there are two main approaches to school change, namely, school effectiveness and school improvement. Reynolds notes that both were established disciplines from the mid 1970s onwards in the United States while they only emerged in Britain in the 1980s and in South Africa in the 1990s. Fink and Stoll (1998) have added restructuring and reculturing to the school effectiveness and school improvement approaches although they acknowledge that their origins (restructuring and reculturing) lie within the school improvement tradition. Below a brief description of the school effectiveness approach will be given and this will be followed by a detailed discussion of the school improvement approach for reasons

that will be made clear in the discussion. Lastly, a brief reference to restructuring and reculturing will be made in order to show their relationship to school improvement.

2.2.1 The school effectiveness approach to school change

School effectiveness stipulates that schools can make a difference to pupil outcomes and progress. It emphasises that organisational factors such as supportive climate, clear goals and high expectations for students within the school have an effect on the achievement of pupils. With regard to school effectiveness all students, regardless of socio-economic background, can achieve acceptable levels of achievement (Reynolds, 1997; Fink & Stoll, 1998). In this way school effectiveness emphasises equity which is an important concept in educational change in South Africa at this time of transformation. Fink and Stoll (1998), however, note that not enough policies based on the effective schools research reflect the focus of school effectiveness on the concept of equity, differential effectiveness and student progress

One of the criticisms of the school effectiveness research is that it provided a vision of how a more desirable school should look like, but gave little insight as how best to achieve such a school (Stoll, 1992: 104). Therefore, effectiveness studies are about the *end result* of being an effective school but do not outline *how* to get to the destination of 'effectiveness' (Reynolds, 1997: 17). As Hill (2001: 4) notes, effective schools research did not provide many insights into how ordinary or failing schools became good schools. Fink and Stoll (1998) note that the adoption of policies based on the effective schools characteristics has, in some jurisdictions, reduced schools to checklists of measurable parts and has ignored the connections, relationships and emotions which make schools human institutions. They argue that school effectiveness research also provides few answers regarding approaches to teaching and learning which help to prepare students for a changing world. Teaching and learning represent the core business of the school and any approach that ignores changes in teaching and learning does not do justice to student achievement.

The school effectiveness approach has been important as it helps educationists to acquire information on the characteristics of an effective school. For example, the IP focused on schools that were regarded as ineffective and this assessment was based on knowledge of how an effective school should look like provided by the school

effectiveness research. Any change effort therefore will be guided by the knowledge that school effectiveness provides in order to realise the need for change. However, Stoll (1992: 107) maintains that it is the characteristics that are within the principal and teachers that are crucial because these can be changed. These characteristics provide a framework for school improvement which will be discussed in the next section.

2.2.2 The school improvement approach to school change

School improvement started in the 1960s in the United Kingdom when it focused on organisation, curriculum, and pupil-oriented outcomes. Due to lack of teacher commitment to government-initiated 'top-down' reforms, a new paradigm of improvement emerged in the 1980s. The 'new' improvement paradigm showed a preference for a bottom-up approach and emphasised that improvement should be owned by those at the school although experts would be allowed to put forward their knowledge. It therefore operates at the level of practitioners rather than at the school level (Stoll & Fink, 1996; Reynolds, 1997) which means that the people themselves play an active role in changing their practices and the school.

The school improvement approach is concerned with the 'how', that is, the process of changing the school. Therefore, it focuses on the processes that schools go through to become more successful and sustain improvement. Strategies for school improvement are based on the assumptions that schools can change. Hopkins (1995: 12) argues that school improvement approaches embody the long-term goal of moving towards the vision of the 'problem solving' or 'thinking school'. School improvement is oriented towards whole school rather than part of the school. It also adopts a school-based rather than outside school or course-based approach to changing teacher practices (Reynolds, 1997).

School improvement as an approach to educational change rests on a number of assumptions. These are:

- The school is the centre of change. This means that external reforms need to be sensitive to the situation in individual schools rather than assuming that all schools are the same.
- There is a systematic approach to change. This means that school improvement needs to be a carefully planned and managed process that takes place over a period of several years.
- The internal conditions of schools are a key focus for change. These include the teaching-learning activities in the school, the schools' procedures, role allocations and resource uses that support the teaching and learning process.
- Education goals are accomplished more effectively. Schools also serve the more general developmental needs of students, the professional development of teachers and the needs of its community.
- There is a multi-level perspective. Although the school is the centre of change, it does not act alone. The school is embedded in an educational system that has to work collaboratively to achieve the highest degrees of quality. This means that the roles of teachers, heads, governors, parents, support staff and local authorities should be defined, harnessed and committed to the process of school improvement
- Implementation strategies are integrated. This implies a linkage between top-down and bottom-up approaches. The former provides the framework, resources and a menu of alternatives; the latter, the energy and the school-based implementation.
- There is a drive towards institutionalisation. Change is only successful when it has become part of the natural behaviour of all those in the school (Hargreaves & Hopkins, 1991: 118).

The assumptions mentioned above should guide change proponents in planning school improvement projects such as the IP. This study attempts to establish the extent to which, according to school role players, the IP conceptualisation and implementation was guided by these assumptions.

The school improvement approach has, as one of its major goals, the enhancement of student outcomes. A related goal, necessary for the achievement of the key goal but

also in its own right, is the strengthening of a school's capacity for managing change. This approach thus focuses on the individual professional (educator and learner) as well as institutional development. The approach is based on the assumptions that schools can change and those in schools have the ability to control the process of change. The conceptualisation and the implementation of the IP were also based on the perception that people have the potential to change even in the most disadvantaged schools and therefore they needed to be given the tools, namely, the training (knowledge and skills), and teaching and learning materials to enhance the change process. For the reasons mentioned above, although it is believed that knowledge from school effectiveness can inform school improvement, the school improvement approach has been seen by school change protagonists as more useful for changing schools.

The role of the principal is a key focus of this thesis and therefore his/her place in the process of school improvement is subjected to critical examination. As mentioned in section 1.2.2 principals are the key to the success of any changes and innovations in the schools (Fullan, 1991). Therefore, the success of the implementation of innovations in schools depends considerably on the management capacity of the principal. Hill (2001: 15) suggests that the principal's role as leader and manager of change can be conceptualised as one of leading and managing school improvement. However, in reality, some principals may be managers and leaders without being actively engaged in leading or facilitating change. For this reason, there is need for promoting their professional development to enable them to learn to manage change. The inclusion of a module on 'managing change' in the Conceptual Framework for the Imbewu training programme presented in Figure 1.3 therefore was in recognition of this need. The principal's dual roles of management and leadership and the relationship between them will be presented in section 2.5.1. Although many leadership styles have been identified, only two, transformational and instructional leadership, will be discussed in section 2.5.1.1.1 and 2.5.1.1.2 respectively because I believe that they are more important in educational change.

The following roles of the school principal have been identified by Hill (2001: 15):

- Leading and managing change;

- Motivating and managing people;
- Designing and aligning systems, processes and resources.

In some instances and in contexts such as the disadvantaged schools of the EC, principals are sometimes unable to perform the roles mentioned by Hill (2001) effectively partly due to policies that excluded them from effective development opportunities and/or from socio-economic contexts that limited their opportunities for professional growth. Lack of such opportunities for development can be partly corrected through such school improvement initiatives like the IP where the individual principal has the potential and the will to change. However, there is no evidence that the effects of these change initiatives endure.

The roles identified by Hill (2001) above are linked to and can be achieved through specific functions. The following functions of the principal will be discussed: the management and the development of systems and processes for human resource productivity in the school, the management of material resources of the school and the development and management of the relations of the school with the SGBs, the parent and the community at large. Although there has been consensus among educationists on the roles and functions of the principal, some principals have either not always performed these functions effectively or have not performed them at all for different reasons.

The main aim of this study is to describe the roles and functions of principals prior to the IP intervention and then examine the extent to which the management practices of school principals who participated in the IP have changed, in what ways they have changed and the factors that have influenced those changes.

One of the issues in school improvement initiatives such as the IP is the institutionalisation and sustainability of the changes that have been introduced. This is particularly important when the intervention is externally funded and only has a short (in this case, three years) cycle. Factors that determine the institutionalisation and sustainability of such changes as well as ways of ensuring these will also be discussed.

The EC schools involved in the study are among those that suffered and still continue to suffer “setbacks in personnel management, curriculum reform, the construction of buildings and the provision of learning material” (Lemon, 2004: 274) during the apartheid era and therefore continue to lag behind other schools even in the new dispensation. These schools are also under a government that was characterised and continues to be characterised by “the low calibre of some staff involved, especially in the former homelands of Transkei and Ciskei, by grossly inadequate financial, information and human resource management systems, chronic shortages of skilled staff, lack of discipline and the prevalence of fraud and theft in many departments” (Lemon, 2004: 273). The need for continuous INSET of teachers and principals mentioned above implies extra funding for personnel of such schools. Samoff (2001: 15) suggests that to achieve equity between disadvantaged and advantaged schools ‘structured inequalities, at least temporarily’ need to be put in place. The researcher is of the opinion that if focus is not placed on closing the gap between these disadvantaged schools and their more advantaged counterparts, the former may simply continue to lag behind in many ways and equity may never be achieved.

Most of the personnel in the district offices responsible for the monitoring and evaluation of the IP activities and education in the schools in general during the period of change belong to the same poor education system as the teachers and principals. Thus, such personnel must receive continuous training so that they can develop the knowledge, skills and the positive attitude to enable them to support and relate with schools effectively and with confidence. Therefore, the district personnel must be included in any training given to school personnel through interventions by external agents so that they understand the changes and improvements introduced and are therefore able to monitor their implementation effectively. This means that the school and the district should be closely integrated. If such integration is not achieved the changes introduced through such interventions may be lost and this may mean loss of the investment incurred.

The training of principals in management also needs to focus on the relationships between principals and the SGB members especially in schools in disadvantaged communities. While the sharing of power in school management and governance has meant an increase in the rights and powers of the parents through the SGBs, it has

also meant an erosion of powers for the principals which may cause tensions. Focussing on the relationships is particularly necessary with teachers and principals who have been in the authoritarian and undemocratic apartheid education system for a long time. Policy formulation by the Department of Education that prescribes the participation of parents should be regarded as the first step in introducing parent participation in school governance. However, such policy formulation needs to be followed by intensive training, support and monitoring of SGB members and principals by district personnel so that SGB members are not just placed there as symbols but play an active role and are actively engaged.

The success or failure of an intervention depends, to a large extent, on factors prevailing in the contexts in which it is implemented, that is, the attitudes of principals, teachers and the community towards educational change, the extent to which poor teaching practices are internalised and institutionalised, the quality and duration of the training, sustained monitoring and evaluation i.e. support and pressure, the availability of basic resources, opportunities created for continuous learning and reflection. The variability of the contexts in which the IP was implemented may therefore result in variations in the experiences of the role players and their views about the changes in the management practices resulting from their participation in the IP. The view of this study is that as a consequence of this in some schools, the changes in the management practices of principals are likely to be minimal and if any occur, they are not likely to have any significant effect on teaching and learning and transformation in general.

2.2.2.1 Restructuring

This section discusses restructuring which Fink and Stoll (1998) regard as one of the concerns of school improvement.

Restructuring involves changes in roles, rules, and relationships between and among students and teachers, teachers and administrators, and administrators at various levels from the school building to the district office to the state level, all with the aim of improving student outcomes (Hopkins & Lagerweij, 1996: 65). There are four components of successful restructuring, namely, the necessity to decentralise

authority; a basic change in accountability; more student-focussed and less-teacher-centred instruction; and the development of new forms of testing that fit the curriculum and the methods of instruction. Restructuring also involves the notion of changing the use of time, space, roles, and relationships in schools to improve learning (Fink & Stoll, 1998). The IP reflected some of the characteristics of restructuring such as changes in roles of school role players, changes in accountability, and changes in relationships and adjustments in time for periods to match the student-centred approach.

Below is a brief discussion of the relationship between school improvement and culture.

2.2.2.2 Reculturing

According to Fink and Stoll (1998: 12) school improvement has evolved from an emphasis on structures and formal processes such as development planning to a focus on the less tangible and ultimately to aspects such as cultures that have more impact on schools. Culture includes values, beliefs and norms. Among the forms of culture are observed behavioural regularities; norms that evolve in working groups, dominant values espoused by an organisation; the philosophy that guides the organisations' policy; and the feeling conveyed in an organisation. Improving schools are characterised by a teaching staff which shares goals, collegiality as defined by joint work, continuous improvement and learning, risk-taking and mutual support, among other cultural norms. In addition, leadership in improving schools is pervasive and does not reside with the principal or other formal leaders, but is a shared activity (Fink & Stoll, 1998).

The changing culture of the school also helps to ensure that any changes that may have been achieved are sustained. The relationship between culture and sustainability will be pursued in section 2.6.1.

2.3 EDUCATIONAL CHANGE AND SCHOOL IMPROVEMENT

There are two senses in which the term school improvement is used. First, is the common-sense meaning which relates to general efforts to make schools better places for pupils and students to learn. The second, sense relates to school improvement as a strategy for educational change that enhances student outcomes as well as strengthening the school's capacity for managing change (Hargreaves & Hopkins, 1993; Hopkins, 1995, 1996; Hopkins, Ainscow & West 1994). This is the sense that this study will adopt because it involves transformation which has been taking place in South Africa since 1994 and remains a key concern of policy makers and educators. In this sense school improvement is about developing strategies for educational change that strengthen the school's organization, implementing curriculum reforms, raising student achievement through focussing on the teaching-learning process and the conditions which support it. School improvement focuses on individuals and the school itself because it is believed that one cannot change people without changing the context in which they work. For example, Hopkins (1996) contends that strategies for school improvement are based on assumptions that schools can change and the school role players can control the process. This assumption implies that people have the ability to take control of the change process in their schools and districts. The school principal plays a major role in this process. The role of the principal, in this regard, will be discussed in section 2.5.

Fullan (1991: 29) identifies two categories of educational change. First order changes are those that improve the efficiency and effectiveness of what is currently done without disturbing the basic organisational features, without substantially altering the way that learners and adults perform their roles. Second order changes, on the other hand, seek to alter the fundamental ways in which organizations are put together, including new goals, structures, and roles. The IP also included new goals as mentioned in section 1.5, new structures such as in-school support structures and SMTs and changes in roles which demand resources of expertise and money. In developing countries like South Africa foreign aid for funding interventions such as the IP is usually accessible, but the continued poor educational levels in provinces such as the EC, as indicated in table 1.1 in section 1.4, are an indication that the changes introduced are not institutionalised and do not endure. There is therefore a

need to find ways of ensuring that the changes achieved are embedded in the organisational structures so that they are not lost when intervention have stopped. This is not always easy in developing countries such as South Africa where financial resources are limited and many other backlogs in education exist.

The challenge since the 20th century has been to deal with second order changes—changes that affect the culture and structure of schools, restructuring roles and re-organising responsibilities of all role players (Fullan, 1991), a situation that has, in South Africa, been made imperative by the change from an apartheid to a democratic government and the attendant legislations that have ensued. These second order changes therefore entail restructuring, reculturing and improvement that have been mentioned above. Therefore, educational change and school improvement are closely related. As indicated in section 1.2, while not all change is improvement, all improvement involves change. The following section discusses the changes in the educational change efforts and school improvement initiatives.

2.3.1 The changing nature of educational change and school improvement initiatives

The purpose of educational change presumably is to help schools accomplish their goals more effectively by replacing some structures, programs and or practices with better ones, (Fullan, 1991: 15) that is, to improve schools. This has involved designing and implementing educational change and school improvement projects, studying and reporting on their effects, successes and failures, and reasons for these. Studies on educational change and school improvement projects have been followed by designs of new projects that improve on the previous ones. This section discusses changes and shifts in emphases in educational and school improvement projects which cover four phases. Below is a discussion of the four phases of educational change that have been identified by school change protagonists. This discussion shows components of educational changes that have been sustained and those that have not. It also examines the factors responsible for sustainability or failure of aspects of such changes to endure.

From the mid 1960s the emphasis on educational change was on the 'adoption of curriculum materials' which were aimed at having an impact on student achievement. The 'adoption of curriculum materials' was the first phase on educational change. Although the materials were often high quality, they failed to have an impact on teaching because teachers were not included in their production and in-service training on them was often rudimentary and perfunctory (Hopkins & Lagerweij, 1996: 59). The design and implementation of the IP under consideration in this study included teaching materials and the training of teachers, principals and SGBs but the perceptions of the role players regarding the nature of the training and the teaching materials will be clear in the data analysis chapters 4 and 5.

The second phase which covered most of the 1970s involved 'documenting failure' of the curriculum reform to affect practice. This documentation showed that top-down models of change did not work; that teachers required in-service training to acquire new knowledge and skills, and that implementation did not occur spontaneously as a result of legislation. It was clear that implementation is an extremely complex and lengthy process that requires a sensitive combination of strategic planning, individual learning and commitment to succeed (Hopkins & Lagerweij, 1996: 59). The IP recognised the need for in-service training of teachers, principals and other role players in order to help them to put into practice the necessary changes. This it did by including relevant modules for each role player in the Imbewu Conceptual Framework. Although the perceptions of role players regarding the nature of the training still need to be established, the fact that the training was planned in the design of the project is recognition of its value in ensuring the success of the project.

The third phase from the 1970s to the mid -1980s was 'a period of successes. The first studies of school effectiveness were published and a consensus was established about the characteristics of effective schools. Some major large-scale studies of school improvement projects were also conducted during this phase. During this period much was learnt about the dynamics of the change process. Although this creative period produced knowledge of increasing specificity about the change process and the factors influencing effective schooling, this was a necessary but not sufficient condition to improve the quality of education (Hopkins & Lagerweij, 1996: 61).

The fourth phase, 'managing change', which has been recently entered in the 1990s, is a period when researchers and practitioners struggle to relate their strategies and research knowledge to the realities of schools in a pragmatic, systematic and sensitive way. There is a move away from studying change as a phenomenon to actually participating in school development and the best of the current work on educational change is produced by people who are actually studying change as they are engaged in bringing about it (Hopkins & Lagerweij, 1996: 61). Veenman and Vote (1994: 305) state that "arrangements designed to facilitate implementation have to be situated close to the educational day-to-day practice of the school". By studying the implementation of school improvement work, research knowledge is being refined through action. What is of significance in this process is that it involves the actual practitioners and the people from outside who tend to act as supporters, sometimes called 'critical friends'. In some circles this has been called action research. Reynolds (1997) alludes to action research when he notes that the school improvement paradigm in Britain began with the teacher-researcher movement linked to John Elliot and moved on to encompass school self-evaluation and review. Recent school improvement projects such as the Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD) - sponsored International School Improvement Project (ISIP) represent examples of the application of school improvement knowledge to the real world of schools in an attempt to develop practical strategies for empowerment. Prominent figures in the 'managing change' phase include Fullan, Hopkins, Hargreaves, Joyce and Showers. The work of these school improvement proponents has begun to spread to South Africa since the 1990s but there is no evidence that the idea of studying change by people involved in it has gained momentum in South Africa, particularly in the EC. There is, however, evidence of action research projects by educationists like Melanie Walker in the Western Cape e.g. the Primary Education Project (PREP) 1986-1989). It is important to note that the Western Cape Province has consistently had the best matric results in the whole of South Africa as shown in Table 1.1, section 1.4. While evaluation was in-built in the IP, the extent to which it was perceived as useful by participants will be established in chapter 4 and 5 of this study which deal with data analysis.

School improvement proponents such as Kaystein and Wang (1988) note that role players in the schools, particularly teachers, need training support during the implementation of school improvement programmes if the changes are to be internalised and sustained. Hopkins *et al* (1994) note that research evidence supports the idea that skill acquisition and ability to transfer vertically to a range of situations requires ‘on-the-job support’. This concurs with the observation made by Ingvarson and Mackenzie (1988); Supovitz, Mayer and Kale (2000); Hopkins *et al* (1994) that a system of ongoing external support, in the form of ‘on-site visits’ and ‘on-demand support’ is important in increasing the rates and efficacy of interventions and real change in general. This means providing the opportunity for immediate and sustained practice, collaboration, peer coaching, and studying development and implementation (Hopkins, 2000). On-site visits are important during implementation to give support particularly where the schools have been disadvantaged as those under consideration. On-site visits for monitoring and evaluation were an integral part of the IP but the role players’ perceptions about the frequency of the visits and the quality of the monitoring and evaluation will be established from the data collected.

The emphasis on applying school improvement knowledge in schools has been accompanied by an increase in the amount of change expected of schools. The increase in expectations has been accompanied by fundamental changes in the way schools are managed and governed (Hopkins & Lagerweij, 1996: 62). As will be discussed in section 2.2.2, such changes in management and governance have entailed decentralisation and sharing of decision-making by school role players some of whom had traditionally not been actively involved in decision-making. This has brought serious challenges for the principal for which s/he needs support. The challenges to school-based which presumably will also apply to the IP will be discussed in section 2.3.2.3.

In South Africa there are currently many school professional development and school improvement initiatives. What seems to be common among them is the shift from the so-called traditional, centralised, intensive and course-oriented in-service Training (INSET) approach to the decentralised, school-based and school-focused INSET approach (Hartshorne, 1992: 264). Joyce (1992) refers to locations of former approach as being in the ‘workshop’ and the latter as being in the ‘workplace’. The

workshop is equated with the traditional INSET course where teachers gain understanding, see demonstrations of the teaching strategy and have the opportunity to practice in a non-threatening environment away from the school. Hopkins *et al* (1994) have observed that such traditional INSET that takes place outside the school focuses on the individual and offers no support and resources to help the individual in the school situation when he/she encounters problems in putting the newly acquired ideas or skills into practice. On the other hand, the school-focused approach, 'the workplace' affords the teacher the opportunity to transfer the skills from the 'workshop' to the 'workplace'- the classroom and the school where principals and teachers work closer to the realities of the school and the community in which it is placed (Hartshorne, 1992: 264). Therefore, it focuses on meeting the identified needs of the school as a whole. The school-focused or 'workplace' approach is typical of the fourth phase mentioned above. The IP reflects the characteristics of the workplace 'approach' to INSET because principals, teachers and SGB members attended workshops for a period of 3 to 5 days depending on the module length, outside the school. The workshop was followed by implementation of what had been taught in the school but in-school support structures were formed for teachers to help each other and these were followed by visits from the trainers to help, monitor and evaluate the implementation process.

2.3.2 Approaches to School Improvement

In discussing educational change and school improvement it is important to note that paradigms of school change get recast and transformed over decades. This makes it necessary to understand the different approaches to school improvement that have been developed and used before because they influence the current ones in many ways. Two major approaches on school improvement have been put forward by many authors such as Hargreaves and Hopkins (1993), Fullan (1991, 1992) and Hopkins (1995), namely, the Research and Development (R&D) and the School-based improvement approach. However, the scope of this study does not allow a detailed discussion of both. Consequently, only the school-based improvement approach will be discussed in detail because it is believed that the IP shares most of its characteristics discussed in chapter 1. The section below will therefore give a brief discussion of the Research and Development approach.

2.3.2.1 The Research and Development Approaches

The Research and Development (R&D) approach was most prominent in the late 50s through to the early 70s (Calhoun & Joyce, 1998). The most critical characteristic of the R&D approach was the creation of centres whose function was to develop programs to improve student learning and capability. Funders and developers believed that the curricula of the schools and the teaching methods most used were out of date and needed improvement. One example of an R&D project was the High School Geography Project which worked to develop a course on tape with accompanying materials.

The R&D paradigm evolved as it did, because, firstly, time for research and development is not built into the workplace of teacher and school administrators. Therefore, special development groups were believed to be necessary to build high-quality approaches to curriculum, instruction and technology. Secondly, high level development and curricular thought requires technical knowledge not ordinarily found in school districts. In the area of program development the R&D approach contributed a large number of curricular, instructional, and technological models that demonstrated effects on student learning in the field-test sites. In various combinations, they enabled learners to acquire information, complex concepts, skills and ways of thinking and solving problems effectively as well as increasing their capacity to learn. They also improved logical thinking and aptitude to learn in primary school learners. On the other hand, for the greater part, the R&D implementation efforts were unsuccessful due to the fact that the schools were not broadly and integrally involved in the creation and development phases, and developers underestimated the amount and type of training necessary for those who would adopt the model or use the process. The success or failure of these projects also depended on the self-renewing condition of the schools in which they were introduced as well as their socio-political conditions. It was also realised that that many schools can only own changes when they have external assistance (Calhoun & Joyce, 1998: 1288-9).

Most of the teachers and principals in the schools in this study could not have been expected to participate in the development of the IP because, as mentioned in section 2.2.2, they did not have the necessary expertise. In this study, I will assess the perceptions of role players concerning the amount and type of training to see whether this shortcoming in the R&D approaches regarding training was also experienced in the IP. The study will also examine how support and evaluation by the district staff mentioned in the R&D approaches were perceived by the participants in the IP.

2.3.2.2 The School-based Approach to School Improvement

This section discusses the school-based school improvement approach which, in South Africa, has been enacted through the SASA.

The school-based or site-based management (SBM) approach to school improvement gained prominence internationally in the 1990s. It entails devolution of authority and responsibility from the central office to the school (Hopkins & Lagerweig, 1996; Department of Education, 1996) and it is given different names in different countries. It is known as the 'local management of schools' in Britain, 'self-managing school', in Australia, 'site-based management' or 'restructuring', in the USA (Caldwell, 1993: 158-159; Hopkins & Lagerweig, 1996: 64) and 'school-based management' in South Africa. School-based management involves a process of decentralising decision-making concerning the allocation of resources to the school level and the democratisation of school governance and management. The processes and structures are related to a move towards institutional autonomy. In such schools management is shared with the school council or governing body (Caldwell, 1993; Hopkins & Lagerweig, 1996; Calhoun & Joyce, 1998). The IP was introduced in SA at the time of transformation which was characterised by this decentralisation. This decentralisation and attendant responsibilities pose challenges and demands on the personnel in the schools as it gives them roles that demand expertise, resources of time and money that are usually limited or non-existent in certain schools in SA. This is not only a challenge to those in the schools but to those in authority since the school, even in a decentralised system, has to work collaboratively with the broader educational system.

As mentioned above, the SBM implies devolution of decision-making to the school, making the school the centre of change. In addition to the fact that the school is the centre for action, these school-based approaches have the following characteristics (Calhoun & Joyce, 1998: 1291):

- There is some degree of shared decision-making between teachers and administrators within the school.
- The parameters of this shared decision-making range from areas such as planning staff development at the school level to full participation.
- The breadth of participation ranges from all teachers being involved, to all staff, to parents, and to students.
- Frequently there is a representative decision-making council, such as a School Management Team or Executive Council (SGB), whose members are recruited, nominated, or elected.
- Schools using site-based approach must have district/school board approval for site-based management, and in most cases they must have approval for school-centred school improvement that uses shared-decision-making between teachers and administrators. In some districts, a school-based approach has been mandated for all schools; in other districts, schools try this approach on a voluntary basis.
- In some districts, school staff and Councils (SGBs) have control of the full school budget; in other districts schools have control of specific budget allocations, such as curriculum funds, material funds.
- Schools often belong to a network or group or cluster, composed of schools within and/or beyond the school district, in which members of the school Council and other staff members can share their experiences and support each other.

All the points listed above, have since the SASA, been applied to South Africa and the Eastern Cape. For example, SGB members are elected and some schools have been accorded the section 21 status, and full control of the budget allocated by the Department of Education; schools belong to clusters of five schools in proximity to

each other and within the same district, the presence of SMTs means that decision-making is supposed to be shared.

The main conclusions that have been drawn from the findings on the study of school-based approaches to school improvement include the following:

- The decentralisation of decision-making as part of school improvement establishes new roles and responsibilities for senior education officials at the centre and for school leaders, teachers and parents at the school level. As new roles are assumed, tensions inevitably develop. Approaches need to be put in place to respond to these tensions.
- Shifts of responsibility to the school level raise the possibility that some functions, formerly carried out at the centre, will not be effectively performed.
- Central authorities need to ensure, through guidance and support for pre-service, in-service and community-based programmes, that those assuming new roles have developed the capacity to meet their new responsibilities.
- External support for schools, re-oriented to meet specific school-defined needs, must also be sustained even if the services are no longer provided by the central authorities.
- The management of change, whether at the centre or at the school level, requires a strategy which considers change as a dynamic and evolutionary process.
- Following on from a clear vision of the expected results of the change, the strategy should anticipate tensions and difficulties but also allow for adaptations and adjustments as the change proceeds (Calhoun & Joyce, 1998: 1291).

The issues above raise a number of questions, which include the role of external support, the allocation of resources, the involvement of parents and the role of the principal. The same issues and questions are also the focus of this study with regard to the IP. Some of the questions and issues will be discussed in the following section.

2.3.2.3 Challenges of School-based approaches

Cohen (1995:106) notes that decentralisation in theory and in practice are not necessarily the same. She observes that many studies conducted between 1990 and 1994 confirm the great difficulty of sustaining a genuinely decentralised system. The implication of this is that problems are experienced in school-based management.

As mentioned above, school-based approaches involve the decentralisation of decision-making, based on the belief that local control will automatically yield school improvement (Calhoun & Joyce, 1998). However, many challenges have been experienced in relation to attempts at changing traditional decision-making relationships, delegation, training and skill requirements (Fullan, 1992). By bringing additional voices into the leadership of the school, power and influence are distributed among individuals who had traditionally assumed more passive decision-making roles. Such a change of roles may produce tensions and conflict (Johnson & Scollay, 2001). Creating a situation in which participants in the organisation have an equal voice in the decision-making process means that all participants share equally, at least in principle, in power and influence, a situation that is, conflict-laden. In reality, however, school based decision-making councils/governing bodies tend to suffer from power struggles, time management problems, and deficiencies in expertise, cultural constraints, avoidance of responsibility and participation, low motivation, and the inability to implement decisions. These problems make it imperative that there be an outside voice in the form of the district offices that monitors the functioning of the governing bodies who include the principal (Johnson & Scollay, 2001). In South Africa, particularly in advantaged communities, many incidents of clashes between principals and SGB members are a proof of the power struggles and conflict resulting from bringing into the governance of the school more role players with equal power. These clashes vary from a simple misunderstanding or minor difference to some of the following as reported in the media: a principal and the governing body officially accusing each other of misconduct (Rapport, 2001: 7); principals who are angry about the “tin pot tyrants” (the parents in the governing body) who want to make all decisions in the school. This might even have contributed to the suicide of a principal (Sunday Tribune, 2001: 3). In the disadvantaged schools of the Eastern Cape where parents are usually illiterate and poor, governing bodies are usually characterised by

lack of expertise, avoidance of responsibility and participation, low motivation and the inability to implement decisions, particularly those that do not have the blessing of the principal.

The diversity of vested interests, power influence, and expertise amid equal votes by the individual council members also makes the decision-making environment unfamiliar to the participants. Governing body members, who feel powerless and alienated, such as parents, may experience psychological and physiological symptoms that interfere with their ability to serve effectively. Subsequent withdrawal and distancing of such participants decrease problem-solving, effective interaction, and enthusiasm for the role and function of the governing body. Underlying these circumstances may be a sense of low accomplishment (Johnson & Scollay, 2001: 49). These problems affect the functioning of the school and finally the performance of the principal. The problems mentioned above may be experienced in the EC schools where the members of the governing body who represent parents, generally have low levels of schooling, low economic status and most are largely unemployed. All these finally have a bearing on the principal who has to depend on the support of the governing body for effective governance of the school for which s/he is accountable.

Another major challenge of the school improvement initiatives is the multiple levels at which school improvement/ the change process operates. The process of school improvement goes between the district office, the community, the school building, the principal's office, the classroom or project centre, even into the heads of individual teachers and pupils. As a result, development at one level in the absence of development in the other levels is ineffective for accomplishing improvement (Fullan, 1992: 77). For example, schools cannot be expected to improve when the district staff who are supposed to monitor schools, have not improved. In the IP implementation, for example, the education development officers (EDOs) who form district staff and some of whom were involved in the training were supposed to conduct the monitoring and evaluation that was a component of the IP. The district therefore is one level at which the IP operates. The same applies to the provincial department. The weakness of one level affects another level. The multiple levels at which school improvement occurs therefore make it complex and difficult to sustain.

In a research that they undertook, Levine and Eubanks (1989: 4-8) identify the following problems of school-based approaches:

- inadequate time, training and technical assistance
- difficulties of stimulating consideration and adaptation of inconvenient changes
- unresolved issues involving administrative leadership on the one hand and enhanced power among other participants on the other
- constraints on teacher participation in decision-making
- reluctance of administrators at all levels to give up traditional prerogatives

All the problems mentioned above, for example, inadequate time, training and technical assistance, issues of power relations and difficulties of giving up traditional prerogatives are of major interest in this study because they influence the rate at which the schools are likely to improve as a result of interventions such as the IP. They are also likely to influence the sustainability of the changes implemented.

2.4 CONTEXTUAL FACTORS AND EDUCATIONAL CHANGE

As mentioned in section 2.3.2.2 the success or failure of an intervention depends, to a large extent, on factors prevailing in the contexts in which it is implemented. This section discusses the contextual factors which may result in variations in the experiences of the role players and their views about the changes in the management practices resulting from their participation in the IP.

There are many factors that determine the success or failure of educational change in the context of an intervention but some of the most important of these are contextual. Harris (1998: 13) observes that educational change is not achieved when contextual factors are ignored. According to de Clerq (1997: 127) the policy proposals, such as the SASA, are flawed in their conceptualisation of the problem and misjudge the educational context and dynamics on the ground such as experienced in the disadvantaged communities of the Eastern Cape. As a result, interventions also tend to misjudge the educational context and dynamics on the ground. Thus, an

undifferentiated approach is adopted for schools of varying socio-economic circumstances. Little account is taken of the culture, context, socio-economic status, catchment areas, the trajectory of improvement and all other independent variables. Fullan (1992: 5) concurs with these views when he observes that outstanding leadership is exquisitely sensitive to the context in which it is exercised. De Clerq (1998) expresses the same view when she observes that interventions tend to favour the interests of the more privileged sections of society with respect to the physical facilities such as school buildings, secure school environments, levels of schooling and levels of employment of surrounding communities, teachers' qualifications and motivation, attitudes of teachers and principals towards student learning and towards change. Such interventions only indirectly address the needs of the excluded and disadvantaged. Adam and Waghid (2005) identify socio-economic factors in South Africa as some of the factors that hinder democratic practices in the school in terms of SGB participation in disadvantaged communities. The same notion is expressed by Veenman and Vote (1994: 305) in their argument that implementation of educational programs is more successful in schools with norms of collegiality and continuous improvement, in which a greater range of professional interaction with fellow teachers or administrators is pursued, including talks about instruction, structured observation and shared planning and preparation. Stoll and Fink (1996: 11) suggest that the best chance of changing schools in ways which prepare pupils for the challenges of the twenty first century is to look at schools and their contexts as ecosystems. This means that conditions prevailing at the school and their contexts should be considered when interventions are implemented. Such conditions influence the extent to which teachers and principals and all those people who play a role in the school perceive the changes and thus change their practices. Awareness of the existence of variables in the context within which the intervention is implemented therefore needs to form an integral part of the analysis of the changes in the schools. If we are to look at schools and their contexts as ecosystems, as Stoll and Fink (1996) suggest, then in analysing the changes in the management practices of principals we need to look at these contexts and how they influence the changes in these practices. However, in looking at how such contexts influence the changes we must bear in mind Christie's (1998: 297) observation that social context is not all-determining, and building human agency and responsibility at the school level is an important dimension of changing schools. The willingness on the part of people to act within the structures in ways

that are not simply determined by them, may lead to successful improvement in the face of challenging circumstances. This means that attempts to change the school must go hand in hand with the development of the personnel with the moral commitment and will to change. Such personnel must not be driven only by self-interest but by values and emotions as well. Values have to do with what people believe to be morally right, and emotions are the pleasure or intrinsic satisfaction they derive from doing something for the school and ultimately for the learners (Sergiovanni, 1998: 176). Active involvement and support of principals are of crucial importance to enhance implementation.

The view of this study is that as a consequence of ignoring the context, in some schools, the changes in the management practices of principals are likely to be minimal and if any occur, they are not likely to have any significant effect on teaching and learning and transformation in general.

2.5 THE ROLE AND IMPORTANCE OF THE PRINCIPAL TO PROCESSES OF SCHOOL CHANGE AND SCHOOL IMPROVEMENT

The roles and functions of the principal which were mentioned briefly in section 2.2.2.2 will be discussed in more detail in this section.

Many studies in both advantaged and disadvantaged contexts have been conducted about the role of the principal in a school, for example, Shautz (1995) and Blase and Blase (1999). The principal is regarded as the link between the teachers and the community as well as other schools and other stakeholders (Westhuizen, 1996). Within the school, the principal is responsible for developing and maintaining systems and processes as well as relationships that are conducive to teaching and learning amongst the teachers, and between the teachers and the learners. The school falls or survives depending on the type of the principal it has. According to Sergiovanni (1991), no other school position has greater potential for maintaining and improving quality schools. As a result, when schools are functioning well and school achievement is high, much of the credit typically goes to the principal. In the same vein, when the school is ineffective, the principal carries the blame

The school as an organisation is the centre of change and organisations change more effectively when their heads or principals play active roles in helping effect improvement. The principal is thus central to successful school improvement and educational change because, firstly, the principal's actions determine whether change in a school is taken seriously or not; secondly, s/he is responsible for developing the culture that is conducive to the transformation of the school (Fullan, 1991; 1992). Christie (1998) concurs with her argument that organisational failure in a school needs to be recognised and remedied in terms of school management and leadership. Since the principal has the responsibility of managing and leading the school, Christie's assertion implies that to prevent the failure of the school as an organisation one needs to focus on the type of principal the school has. Christie (1998) sees the building of leadership effectiveness and participatory management teams as a priority and suggests that leadership potential should be made an important criterion in appointing new principals.

The importance of the principal as a change agent is also emphasised by Hopkins (2000); Hopkins, Harris and Jackson (1997) who observe that, to intervene successfully in those schools that need Type I strategies, that is, those strategies that assist 'failing' schools to become moderately effective, one must start by replacing the principal. Hopkins *et al* (1997) describe a failing school as an 'ineffective school', a 'school that is unable to help itself' and 'requires a high level of intervention and support'. In such schools it is necessary to replace the principal because, by virtue of her/his closeness to the classroom situation and opportunity to alter workplace conditions, s/he has the most powerful potential to frustrate or facilitate any efforts at change (Muller & Roberts, 2000; Hopkins, 2000; Fullan, 1991). Principals in ineffective schools do not necessarily lack the capacity to be effective leaders but do not have the capacity to resurrect schools that have become ineffective and are therefore potentially part of the problem (Fullan, 1991; 1992). So, interventions in these schools must involve, inter alia, changing leadership starting with the appointment of a new principal (Hopkins *et al*, 1997; Fullan, 1991; 1992).

According to Day (1994) and Fullan (1992), although principals are accepted as essential in the professional development of teachers, there is little evidence that their

own professional development and training needs are recognised. Fullan (1991), however, observes that despite a great deal of attention given to the implementation role of principals during the 1980s, principals as dynamic change agents are still empirically rare. This is because, as he argues, principals have had little preparation for managing the dilemmas that they experience and even less so to reflect on managing change while on the job. This lack of preparation makes it necessary for interventions like the IP to provide training to the principal because, as Elmore (2000) suggests, principals are recruited from the ranks of their practice and like most leaders, they are creatures of the organisations they lead. They are thus largely unequipped for the job they are expected to perform and cannot be better than the schools they lead in meeting the challenges posed by school change unless some form of training coupled with continuous learning and reflection is provided. Continuous learning gives the principal the confidence to experiment with changes as it provides her/him with the relevant knowledge. In the Eastern Cape before 1994 and until 1996, when principals were appointed, they were not given any form of training. The IP seems to have taken note of the need for training for school role players, because, as the framework of training indicates, principals and SGBs were trained in all aspects of school management, which included managing change. But there is no evidence that any form of continuous learning was accommodated in the design of the IP.

Although it is accepted that the principal should be responsible for the transformation or continuous improvement of the school, Fullan (1991) observes that in reality the principal is usually under pressure to maintain stability. He suggests that the way the principal handles this pressure depends on the principal's conceptions of his/her role and the expectations that the district officials have. There is therefore a need for principals to critically reflect on their role. To be able to reflect on their role, they need to collaborate with and get feedback from teachers and other principals. Yet Fullan (1991) agrees with the observations made by Martin and Willower (1981) and Peterson (1981) that school principals invested little time on reflecting about their work. There is therefore a need for interventions like the IP to create an environment and provide opportunities for principals to reflect on their roles and the researcher believes that such an opportunity can be promoted through action research within the school and between the school and other institutions like universities, that is, through some form of partnerships.

In their study, Leithwood and Janzti (1990) compared principals who were particularly effective at transforming the culture of the school toward a stronger improvement orientation, with those principals who were less effective at school improvement. They found that the successful principal used six strategies. They took actions that:

- strengthened the school's improvement culture
- used a variety of bureaucratic mechanisms to stimulate and reinforce cultural change
- fostered staff development
- engaged in direct and frequent communication about cultural norms, values and belief
- shared power and responsibility with others
- used symbols to express cultural values.

The above-mentioned strategies are all important in the implementation of interventions like the IP although it may not be possible to apply all of them at the same time. In situations where the culture of teaching and learning is non-existent and teachers and learners display lack of motivation, for example, as it is the case in most black schools in South Africa and in the Eastern Cape in particular, the use of bureaucratic mechanisms to stimulate and reinforce cultural change would be the only place to start and sharing of power would help to stimulate motivation and interest.

2.5.1 The management and leadership role of the school principal

Authors like Fullan (1991, 1992) and Sergiovanni (1991) agree that it is difficult to discuss the concept of management without referring to leadership. It is therefore important to define and discuss the relationship between the two concepts before relating them to the school principal, educational change and school improvement.

Management involves the marshalling of financial resources, the planning and implementing of structures and the provision of activities needed for the school to reach its school improvement goals (Everard & Morris, 1996; Fullan, 1991;

Sergiovanni, 1991). It is a continuous process through which members of an organisation seek to co-ordinate their activities and utilise their resources in order to fulfil the various tasks of the organisation as efficiently as possible (Hoyle, 1981). It involves designing and carrying out plans, getting things done through other people and working effectively with them (Fullan, 1991, 1992). In addition, management refers to the internal operation of educational institutions, and also their relationship with their environment, that is, the communities in which they are set, and with the governing bodies to which they are formally responsible (Glatter, 1979).

Leadership, on the other hand, deals with how one can provide the necessary purposing and inspiration to school improvement efforts. It involves articulating a vision, getting shared ownership, and evolutionary planning (Fullan, 1991; 1992). School leadership serves as a compass that points to the direction to be taken, that inspires enthusiasm, and allows people to buy into and take part in the shaping of the way that will constitute the school's mission, that is setting the course (Sergiovanni, 1998; Fullan, 1991). According to Leithwood, Begley and Cousins, (1992) leadership refers to how to influence people to strive willingly for group goals. These definitions indicate that there is a complementary and reciprocal relationship between management and leadership. Fullan (1991, 1992) posits that successful school principals and other organisational heads do both functions simultaneously and interactively. He further notes that both management and leadership are essential and must be blended within the same person or team. Sergiovanni (1991: 255) emphasises that leadership without management can lead to mere rhetoric and disappointment while management without leadership rarely results in sustained changes in teaching and learning practices. Therefore, the choice is not whether a principal is a leader or manager but whether the two emphases are in balance and complement each other (Sergiovanni, 1991; 1992; Louis & Miles, 1990; Fullan, 1991).

The definition of management by Glatter (1979) mentioned above, which relates the principal to the community, is seen by Bush (1995) as useful because it encompasses the role of the principal within the school and the external relations that s/he has with the outside environment. In the light of the new legislation in the form of the South African Schools Act and her own experience as a teacher, the researcher also sees the

role of the principal as encompassed in both definitions. The principal is accountable for the activities of her/his staff. At the same time, each school exists within the community and for its success, the community must play an active role in its activities and the school on the other hand, must see the community as part of the school. Such a relationship needs to be facilitated by the principal. When one examines the contents of the training Framework of the IP one notices that the IP adopts the same view. This is because it includes 'Developing and Maintaining Relationships with the community' 'Developing and managing support structures for educators and learners' as some of the modules on which the principals were trained.

The principal of a school is expected to ensure that teachers teach effectively and at the same time ensure the smooth running of the school and improvement. Bush (1995) refers to Hughes'(1990) model of the principal's dual role as the chief executive of a school and the leading professional within it, an observation shared by Webb (2005). As chief executive, the principal is accountable to external bodies for the successful management of the institution. As a leading professional s/he is responsible for the leadership of teachers. Bush (1995: 11) maintains that the principal mediates his/her role largely by providing the kind of supervision of professional staff and the kind of organizational leadership in responding to external changes which are acceptable to professionals.

Where the dual role of chief executive and leading professional has been seen as a problem, as when the principal is overloaded, sometimes because of big enrolments, and other engagements, Webb (2005) observes that the chief executive role has been retained by the principal, while the leading professional role has been ascribed to the deputy head. However, it has been observed that many principals prefer to delegate some of the chief executive functions and continue to play an active role as a professional head so that s/he can lead by example in teaching (Bush, 1995), and can exemplify their vision of what the school should become (Webb, 2005). At the primary school level the principal would therefore benefit by participating in the actual teaching to a limited extent. This is bound to enhance her/his leadership role as a professional head and her understanding of the core business of the school, namely, teaching and learning. Hughes (1990) sees a need for the principal to retain credibility as a leading professional and as an effective chief executive. S/he can do

this within a collaborative framework. As mentioned in section 2.4 above, successful principals share power and responsibility with others. In such a situation, while the principal's position makes her/him accountable for everything, she is able to spread herself/himself. Sharing responsibility with others, for example, the SMT (senior management team) or SMT (school management team in SA) enables her/him to spend limited time in instructional activities such as teaching, supervising teachers, giving guidance to teachers as will be indicated in section 2.5.1.1.2. As a result s/he can manage changes in teaching and learning with confidence as s/he is able to keep up with the current approaches and methods of teaching and learning and in this way 'have her finger on the pulse of the school'. This study concurs with the findings of the research by Teddlie, Kirby and Stringfield (1989: 231) which concluded that:

The principal atthe effective school was... described by one observer as "having her finger on the pulse of the school". She was frequently seen in the hallways and the classrooms; she was observed in her not so infrequent role of teaching a class. She appeared knowledgeable regarding every significant innovation in every classroom and saw to it that teachers were exposed to new and creative ideas.

The situation described above obtains where the principal works well with other teachers, especially senior teachers, such as the deputy and the HODs in management, that is, where there is participatory management which is characteristic of SBM as mentioned in section 2.3.2.2.

2.5.1.1 The School Principal's Role of Leadership

Although this study is about changes in management practices, in section 2.5.1 above, it has been observed that management without leadership rarely results in sustained changes in teaching and learning practices. It is therefore necessary to give equal attention to the leadership role of the principal when discussing management as will be done in this section.

To reiterate, leadership deals with how one can provide the necessary purposing and inspiration to school improvement efforts. Leadership involves articulating a vision,

getting shared ownership, serving as a compass that points the direction to be taken, inspiring enthusiasm, and allowing people to buy into and take part in the shaping of the way that will constitute the school's mission (Sergiovanni, 1998; Fullan, 1991).

Schools need to change and for change to result in improvement, schools require expert leadership. Since education in general and schools in particular, are seen as tools for social change, educational leaders are assumed to be the most critical role players in effecting change. This makes developing school leaders one of the most promising avenues available for successfully addressing the changes, which will challenge future schools (Leithwood *et al*, 1992). Debates about leadership have led to the identification of many forms of leadership. Of interest to this study are transformational and instructional leadership. Their importance will be clear in the following discussion.

2.5.1.1.1 Transformational leadership

Leithwood *et al* (1992: 7) see transformational leadership as leadership that derives its power through its ability to empower others. They regard its central purpose as the enhancement of individual and collective problem-solving capacities of organisational members, which are exercised in the identification of goals to be achieved and practices to be used in their achievement. Such leadership focuses on the people involved, their relationships and beliefs and its main outcome is increased capacity of an organisation to continuously improve (Leithwood *et al*, 1997; Hopkins, 2000). Leithwood *et al* (1992: 8) see this form of leadership as culture changing. Transformational leaders not only manage structure, but they purposefully seek to impact upon the culture of the school in order to change it (Hopkins, 2000: 2). This study contends that the culture of the school should include the culture of teaching and learning which is one of the key challenges of principals in the schools under consideration where traditional methods of teaching have been the norm. Managing change of teaching and learning, therefore, is one of the areas that must be the focus of the principal particularly in these schools. Nevertheless, Leithwood, Begley, and Cousins (1999) see transformational leadership as a sensible point of departure for better understanding changing leadership for changing times such as we have in South Africa.

Hopkins (2000) regards transformational leadership as a necessary but not sufficient condition for school improvement. This is because, he argues, it lacks a specific orientation to student learning which he regards as the ultimate reason for improving schools. In support of this argument, Wang, Haertel and Walberg (1993) suggest that any strategy to promote student learning needs to engage students and parents as active participants, and expand the teaching and learning experiences of teachers and students respectively. This requires a different form of leadership from the principal, one which can give what Hopkins (2000) and Elmore (2000) call instructional leadership. Instructional leadership will be discussed in the following section.

2.5.1.1.2 Instructional Leadership

According to Smith and Andrews (1989) and Glickman (1985), instructional leadership is often defined as a blend of tasks, such as supervision of classroom instruction including direct assistance to teachers, group development, staff development and curriculum development and action research. According to Blase and Blase (1999: 2), Schon (1988) has developed a concept of instructional leadership that emphasises collegial classroom observations, and specifically focuses on support, guidance, and encouragement of reflective teaching. This concurs with Leithwood *et al's* (1992: 9) definition, which sees instructional leadership as symbolising the importance to school leadership of an emphasis on student growth and on much of the direct service provided by schools in fostering student growth. According to Fullan (1991), many authors found that principals exercised instructional leadership through shaping the organisation, school climate, and resources of the school rather than by intensive, direct involvement in instruction and at the classroom level, something that he agrees with. Webb (2005: 72) notes that, while most teachers acknowledged the value and importance of a curriculum leadership role, the expansion of the activities that it involved meant that increasingly, the work was delegated to deputy heads, senior management teams and curriculum co-ordinators as mentioned in section 2.5.1. In South Africa too, most of this work is usually delegated to the deputy and the SMT. While delegating some instructional activities does not preclude the principal from undertaking some instructional activities, it limits the time principals can spend in individual classrooms. Thus, the larger goal of the principal is in transforming the

culture of the school (Fullan, 1991) which includes the culture of teaching and learning. Therefore, while the principal can only spend limited time in individual classrooms and with individual teachers, s/he has the responsibility of leading the transformation of teaching and learning which includes ensuring that teachers and learners use new methods of teaching and learning that enable them to meet the current needs of society and industry. S/he cannot do this if s/he does not spend time in instructional activities, however limited they may be. It should be noted that teachers respect a principal who can demonstrate that s/he knows what s/he expects from them. After all, most of the time, it is teachers who have excelled in teaching that are usually promoted to leadership positions. One of the areas where interventions need to help the principal is therefore on managing changes in teaching and learning, and developing and strengthening the culture of teaching and learning.

Although different styles are evident, all effective instructional leaders pay attention to resource provision, instructional resource, communication, visible presence but they do it with different methods and styles depending on their personality and setting (Fullan, 1991). Fullan also argues that the underlying orientations and behaviours such as encouraging high performance goals, providing a high level of support both emotionally and in terms of task, open and honest communication between staff and the principal and firmly held values that are enacted behaviourally, make a difference between principals. Therefore, the personality of the principal plays an important role in her/his approach to instructional leadership.

Muller and Roberts (2000) observe that, in complying with the progressivist roots, most school improvement remains ardently humanistic, concentrating on human relations, complementary and collective decision-making. Elmore (2000) indicates a need for whole school efforts to also enter the classroom. Factors at the instructional classroom level have more influence on achievement than factors at the school level (Muller & Roberts, 2000). For this reason, Elmore (2000) expresses the need for the principal to act not only as manager of structures and processes around instruction but to manage instruction as well. The reality is that society, including the departmental authorities, tends to judge the effectiveness of a principal through the quality of the instruction they see in the achievement of their children. Also, experience shows that the taste of success that is usually shared when learners perform well by both learners,

teachers and parents usually contributes to the development of culture of teaching and learning and this tends to reverberate to other areas of the school. It is therefore important that principals make management of teaching and learning their priority and this applies to interventions such as the IP.

According to Elmore (2000: 6), there is a tendency for principals to focus on the management of the structures and processes around instruction such as organising, budgeting, managing, and dealing with disruptions inside and outside the system, in order to create and maintain public confidence in the institution and leave teachers to manage teaching and learning alone. This explains why, for example, most innovations in schools, and the most durable innovations, occur in the structures that surround teaching and learning and only weakly and idiosyncratically in the actual process of teaching and learning. Such innovations include site-based governance that engages in decision-making about everything except the conditions of teaching and learning. Most professional development for educational leaders makes at least symbolic reference to the centrality of instructional leadership to the work. Hopkins (2000) suggests that instructional leadership needs to be on two key skill clusters, namely, strategies for effective teaching and learning, and the conditions that support implementation on the other- in particular staff development and planning. This is the view of this study and an attempt will therefore be made to assess the changes in the management practices of school principal with regard to teaching and learning and the extent to which the IP training programme for principals gave attention to this.

2.5.1.1.3 The Principal's leadership role in vision crafting

As mentioned earlier, leadership involves articulating a vision, getting shared ownership, serving as a compass that points the direction to be taken, inspiring enthusiasm, and allowing people to buy into and take part in the shaping of the way that will constitute the school's mission (Sergiovanni, 1998; Fullan, 1991). This section discusses the process of vision crafting by the principal.

The principle of school based management which has been adopted internationally involves participation of all school role players in school governance. Participation of role players implies that those who have to participate in school governance should

have common vision of what they would like their school to look like in the future. A vision is simply a desired future. In a school situation where many role players with diverse ideas and perceptions are involved and where future generations are moulded, this desired future needs to be shared. For this future to be shared it must be created by the people who must share it. Having a vision of what they would like their schools to be in the future is critical for school leaders, that is, the principal (Leithwood, *et al*, 1992: 6). According to Leithwood *et al* (1992: 10), the problem of leadership in the future includes developing a shared vision of a future school considered desirable by those with a stake in it; directly assisting members of the school in addressing the challenges encountered in their efforts to achieve the vision; and increasing the capacity of school members to address those and future challenges themselves, more successfully. The role that the principal, as a leader, should play in the process of developing this vision of the future is clearly encapsulated in the statement by Bennis and Nanus (1985:101) that

.... If there is a spark of genius in the leadership function at all, it must lie in this transcending ability, a kind of magic, to assemble-out of all the variety of images, signals, forecasts and alternatives- a clearly articulated vision of the future that is at once single, easily understood, clearly desirable, and energising

According to Miles (1987:12), vision is sharable, and provides direction and driving power for change and criteria for steering and choosing. Secondly, it involves a shared vision of the change process, the strategy for achieving the vision for desired future. The creation of the shared vision is the most important part of the change and school improvement process. Creating or crafting this vision of the school is a process that should involve all the school role players. While all school role players must be involved, the principal has to provide the leadership in the process. The IP took note of this in that it had a module for all role players, namely, SGB members, principals, teachers, EDOs and members of the community in its training framework. At the school level the process of vision crafting included all the parents, teachers, the principal, learners and other members of the community but the principal had to play a leading role in mobilising all the role players.

Vision building has been identified by Louis & Miles (1990) from a study they conducted as one of the themes necessary for schools to change. Fullan (1992) notes that vision building permeates the school with values, purpose and integrity for both the content and the process of improvement. The formation, implementation and shaping of vision in specific organisations is a constant, dynamic and interactive process. For an organisation to be effective, it needs both a vision of the nature or content that it represents, and a clear vision of the processes it characteristically values and follows. Vision building is a dynamic and fluid relationship in which the vision of the school is shaped and reshaped as people try to bring about improvements. Though it is a difficult balance, commitment and skill in the change process on the part of organisational leaders and members are very crucial as the ideas about where the school should be heading (Fullan, 1992).

In South Africa and in the Eastern Cape in particular, where parents were traditionally not involved in the running of the school, due to discriminating legislation and illiteracy, working together in governance and changing their perceptions of their role in the school demands that all role players first come together and agree on what they would like their school to look like. This process has to be facilitated by the principal.

2.5.1.2 School-based Management and Changes in Functions and Roles

In section 1.3.2 (school-based management in South Africa) it was shown that SASA envisages the sharing of power between the principal and other role players such as teachers and the SGB and that the IP has aligned itself with this principle. This is a drastic change from the traditional situation where the principal had greater powers and parents were not playing any role in the running of the school. The role of the principal, school management teams (SMTs) and the SGBs in the management and governance of the school have thus been defined. The following section discusses selected functions of the principal in school-based management, particularly those that were the focus of the IP.

School-based management implies, *inter alia*, an increase and change in the responsibilities of the principal and therefore suggests new demands on the principalship. It demands new professionalism from principals since it totally

changes and challenges the traditional concept of principalship (Maile, 2002). Harris (1998: 4) mentions the office of the principals as internal change agents as one of the levels for school development and change that has been widely replicated and utilised in school improvement work. The following section discusses the principal's role in the professional development of teachers and briefly, that of the school management team (SMT).

2.5.1.2.1 The Principals' role in developing systems, processes and support structures for human resource productivity in school

According to Bush and Middlewood (1997: 35), managing people involves providing structures, resources and support which will help staff learn. The principal is the chief architect of the school, the one who has the overview of systems, processes and resources and how they combine to produce intended student learning outcomes. To the extent that principals have an impact on student learning, this impact is mediated through teachers and classroom teaching (Hill, 2001: 16). The principal is responsible for creating and maintaining the processes, systems and support structures to help teachers develop and improve the knowledge, skills and attitudes to work with learners effectively. The principal needs to foster and sustain a high number of strategies by which teachers learn together and which are regularly and repeatedly used so as to develop a critical mass of them. Southworth (1994) emphasises the need for the principal to lead by becoming a living example of a commitment to continuous collaborative learning. Effective professional learning involves intensive, sustained, theoretically-based yet practically-situated learning, with opportunities to observe good practice, to be involved in coaching and mentoring processes and to take time for reflection (Hill, 2001; Fullan, 1991, 1993; Hargreaves & Fullan, 1991).

Although the principal needs the skills to be able to plan, organise and control all the resources of the school, the development of teachers is the most crucial of these skills and consumes the most investment (Everard & Morris, 1996). Teacher development is the most important because all other resources in the school need to be manipulated and used by teachers and principals to be of any value for learners. Teacher development is a complex process whose success depends upon a favourable context for learning and practical, engaging activities. Availability of resources, flexible

working conditions, support, and recognition can make all the difference in the desire of teachers to refine their practice. Similarly, staff development that builds on collegiality, collaboration, discovery and solving real problems of teaching and learning summon the strength within a staff.

Like any other resource, human resources, that is, teachers, should be selected for the purpose, and improved to ensure that they meet the relevant needs. It must, however, be noted that teachers and parents, unlike other resources, are thinking resources who will decide jointly with their principals and colleagues on how their time, energy, knowledge and skills will be used. Everard and Morris (1996: 68) emphasise that the true human resource is not the whole person, but his/her efforts, which will be jointly managed by the individual himself or herself and the management of the organisation in which s/he works. Thus, the teacher herself or himself has the final say with respect to the use of his/her efforts. Thus, while the principal is the key to the continuous professional development of teachers and the classroom and school improvement, Fullan (1991) suggests that the principal-teacher relationship is important to ensure that teachers align themselves with the vision of the school that the principal has and embrace his or her efforts.

The managerial activities particularly concerned with the development of teachers in a school, those that are within the ambit of the principal, include selection, appraisal, job design, coaching, developing a collaborative framework and peer coaching, supervision, empowering staff by encouraging their participation in decision making, providing guidance through classroom visits and follow-up discussions, etc. support guidance, encouraging reflective teaching (Everard & Morris, 1996). Some of these are more important for school improvement and transformation as they help teachers when they have to learn new things. These include collaborative framework and peer coaching, reflective teaching, coaching. Fullan (1992) observes a growing tendency to see the effective principal as a collaborative leader of continuous improvements in the school as an organisation. This is based on the belief that people change by doing things in conjunction with others, while obtaining new insights and commitment to do even better. For this reason, at the school level, principals and teachers need to work together in establishing instructionally focused collaborative work cultures, which would put them in a position to be critical consumers of the professional development

resources available to them. Collaborative work cultures, *inter alia*, also create and generate resources such as time and access to the expertise of others. Through collaboration the variety of formal and informal learning experiences such as training and sharing workshops, teacher-teacher interaction, one-to-one assistance through coaching and mentoring, meetings, trying out new approaches, observing and being observed, individual and team planning, monitoring results and other inquiry would emerge. In her study of stuck and moving schools Rosenholtz (1989) noted that some schools were highly collaborative for both teachers and students while others were marked by mutual isolation and ineffectiveness. Her findings identify the importance of the principal in working with teachers to shape the school as a workplace in relation to shared goals, teacher collaboration, teacher-learning opportunities, teacher certainty, teacher commitment and student learning.

Above all, principals need to develop learning opportunities for teachers. According to Hopkins and Stern (1996: 501), some of the key characteristics of high quality teachers highlighted by the OECD research in 1993 included the ability to collaborate with other teachers and a capacity for reflection. The principal has the responsibility of developing such a collaborative framework.

In disadvantaged schools like those under consideration in this study, in which teachers were poorly trained and the culture of teaching and learning was non-existent, collaboration is not something that was practised. This applies to reflective teaching. Teachers in these schools were used to working in isolation which, according to Elmore (2000: 20) is the enemy of improvement. Therefore, although Hargreaves (1995: 155) warns against 'contrived collaboration' which occurs when collaboration is made into an administrative device, in these schools the starting point should be to create bureaucratic structures for collaboration and reflection. Effective collaboration works in situations where people are already motivated to work and have some degree of commitment to change. Without this motivation to work and commitment to change, bureaucratic structures would be the only option for initiating change. Fullan (1991) argues that cultural change requires strong persistent efforts because much of the current practices are usually embedded in structures and routines and internalised in individuals.

According to Elmore (2000: 20), leadership in the person of the principal must create conditions that value learning as both an individual and a collective good. Leaders must create environments in which individuals expect to have their personal ideas and practices subjected to the scrutiny of their colleagues, and in which groups expect to have their shared conceptions of practice subjected to the scrutiny of individuals. A collaborative framework offers an opportunity to learn from others and to have one's personal ideas and practices scrutinised by colleagues. Effective collaboration should involve deeper forms of interaction such as joint planning, observation, and experimentation, and is dependent on the structural organisation of task, time, and other resources which are encouraged by the principal but should gradually be the pattern. True collaboration cultures are deep, personal, and enduring and are constitutive of, absolutely central to, teachers' daily work'. Where effective collaboration exists teachers and other members of the school such as heads of departments and deputy principals work in small groups interacting frequently in the course of planning, testing new ideas, attempting to solve different problems, assessing effectiveness etc. This form of collaboration acts as a tool of teacher empowerment and professional enhancement, bringing colleagues and their expertise together to generate critical yet also practically-grounded reflection on what they do as a basis for wiser, more skilled action. This type of collaboration is organic and very slow to develop (Cohen, 1995: 86). Such collaboration is interactive in the sense that giving and receiving advice and help would be the natural order of things.

2.5.1.2.2 The principal's role in managing material and financial resources

According to Sergiovanni (1991) principals usually work in an environment characterised by limited resources. There seems not to be enough money. Space is too often limited. Thus principals have to decide how to best use limited resources to obtain maximum benefits for the school. This includes planning, preparing, justifying and defending the school budget and ultimately managing the school within the allocated resources. These initiatives indicate the importance of resources in school improvement.

It has been mentioned that the reasons for school-based management differed in different countries. In Tasmania and Victoria, Australia, in the mid-1980s the 'Self

Managing School' was developed initially as a response to the devolution of financial resources to the school level. In England and Wales in the late 1980s, for example, 'Local Management of Schools' were designed to increase the autonomy of schools in their financial arrangements (Hopkins & Lagerweij, 1996: 64). This made the training of principals in financial management imperative

According to Deventer and Kruger (2003), the proper management of existing resources is an important issue if the principal and the management team of the school wish to establish a sound culture of learning and teaching. This is because the provision of resources such as new schools and equipment is not always possible as funds are no longer easily available generally. Thus, the correct and careful management of the school's resources is one of the most important management duties of the principal. However, while the principal plays such a major role in this, her/his success depends on the participation of all staff members. This is why the IP had a specific module of the management of physical resources for all the role players. The principal, therefore, inter alia, has the role of facilitating the participation of other role players in the management of material resources.

One of the key management tasks of the school principal is the management of the school's finances. According to Van Deventer and Kruger (2003) the principal functions as the financial manager in the school. It is therefore necessary for interventions in education to include the training and development of the financial management skills of the principal and the SGBs. In disadvantaged communities of the Eastern Cape most principals lacked financial management knowledge and skills. It was therefore necessary for any intervention aimed at transformation to provide training on this. The IP therefore also had a module on financial management for principals and members of the SGBs.

2.5.1.2.3 The establishment and strengthening of school/community partnerships

This section discusses the relationship of the principal with the immediate community of the school. As Stoll and Fink (1996) suggest, the school and the context form an ecosystem. The community and the parents are an important part of this context of the school. Principals have to spend more time managing relationships with the

community on behalf of the school. According to school-based management which is currently practised internationally, decision-making is shared among the parents, teachers and learners. The principal must therefore take the responsibility of developing relationships that are conducive to effective governance and management and this implies managing the relationships with the parents and the governing body. The parent component of the governing body became very important with the introduction of SBM as it serves as a link between the principal and the parents and other members of the community such as chiefs.

As mentioned in section 2.3.2.2, internationally there has been a move to school-based management although it has been called by different names in different countries. School-based management has established new roles and changed some for certain role players within the school including the parents, the principal, learners and teachers. The change has created many challenges, particularly for the principal, as it has brought changes in traditional decision-making relationships. As mentioned in section 2.3.2.3, by bringing additional voices into the leadership of the school, power and influence are distributed among individuals, in particular, parents who had traditionally assumed more passive decision-making roles (Johnson & Scollay, 2001).

Fullan (1991: 228) identifies the following main forms of parent involvement in a school:

- Parent involvement at school
- Parent involvement in learning activities at home
- Home/community-school relations
- Governance (e.g. advisory councils)

The first two forms of involvement have a more direct impact on instruction than do other forms, and as such do not directly relate to the principal. The last two forms involve broader forms of community-school relations and collaboration, and governance. These involve the principal directly. The principal is responsible for developing and maintaining productive relationships with the parents and the community. In the school-based management the broader parent body is represented by the parent component of the governing body. The principal is usually an *ex officio*

member of the governing body. Most of the time the principal communicates with the parents through the governing body members, and sometimes, as when annual reports and budgets have to be discussed, s/he communicates directly with the parents together with, and in the presence of the members of the governing body.

Although Everard and Morris (1996) acknowledge that relationships of the principal and the school with the governing body should and can offer support, contribute and argue the school's case, in reality they are beset with many conflict that were discussed in section 2.3.2.3. There is usually a struggle for power between the principal and the parent component of the governing body. As mentioned in section 2.3.2.3 unresolved issues involving the principal as a leader on the one hand and enhanced power among other participants on the other, in this case parents, including the reluctance of administrators at all levels to give up traditional prerogatives are usually some of the sources of the problems. The principal usually struggles to learn to share power with other people. At the same time in disadvantaged communities of the EC the parents who usually form the governing body are usually illiterate and lack the necessary expertise to play their roles as members of the governing body meaningfully. These problems usually make it necessary to have an outside voice in the form of the district offices that monitors the establishment and maintenance of these relationships since this is a new area. In addition, it makes continuous training necessary on the part of both the governing council and the district staff in dealing with conflicts that usually crop up.

As mentioned before, the principal experiences problems and challenges in dealing with relationships with the community as result of and with regard to the problems mentioned above. Some of the problems are caused by the principal himself or herself. One problem is the perceived loss by the principals of administrative control over what happens in the schools. Another is the fear of making any change because of having to work in uncomfortable group situations. Another challenge is the information needed to make informed decisions. Most of the information from the department about governance and management comes to the school through the principal. Most of this information is for use by all role players because it is meant to improve their effectiveness. Having this information gives the principal power of information over other members of the governing body or council. As a result the

principal can withhold this information to preserve power and influence relationships or it can be overwhelming to parents who do not have the training or experience to interpret and process it (Johnson & Scollay, 2001). A study by Paddock (1979) of parent participation as decision-makers on advisory councils found that school principals dominated information and decisions. This research was supported by results of research conducted on 4 programs by the System Development Corporation which mandated district and/or school parent advisory committees. These studies found that when advisory councils are mandated, they work in very small proportion of cases in that they either had no involvement or had token involvement (Fullan, 1991: 239). However, the research notes that most active councils occurred where:

- State legislation was precise and monitored regarding the specific forms of involvement
- Where state departments are committed to parent involvement and actively pursued that goal through providing assistance, frequently visiting districts; and
- Where local districts specified parent roles, provided training for parents and had active parent co-ordinators who facilitated the involvement of other parents.

The lack of involvement of parents or the token role that they play in decision-making in the governing body usually means that most of the decisions are taken by the principal alone or with the teachers. The perceptions of participants in this study will presumably throw light on the extent to which the problems mentioned above are a reality in the functioning of the principal and the governing body. In addition, further analysis of the situation in SA will reveal the extent to which the three points mentioned above regarding the effective governing bodies are put into practice.

Another challenge to the principal in dealing with parents is the increased time commitments of those participating on the decision-making. On many occasions one finds that few people, particularly in poor communities, are prepared to sacrifice time for participating in decision making councils without remuneration.

In SA school-based management, which has been introduced by the SASA, has resulted in the distribution of power through the SGB by bringing in the parent community as a legal role player in the governance of the school. The sharing of decision-making makes the role of the principal more crucial and challenging regarding the establishment and maintenance of relationships with the community. This is because the principal is used to having power to him/her but now, according to the SASA, the SGBs have new powers and parents have more rights in relation to the school.

In South Africa, particularly in the Eastern Cape, however, the participation of parents in the education of their children in rural areas was and remains limited by the high levels of illiteracy. This is coupled with the perceptions of parents about the role of the school as having the sole responsibility for the education of children. The low levels of employment also contribute to the limited role played by parents in the education of their children. There are however, slight changes in this respect with the new legislation, the SASA. These changes call for new skills of mobilising support, new sensitivities to the needs of the community and new approaches to formal training and career development.

2.5.1.2.4 The role of the school management team in school-based management

One of the characteristics of school based management is shared decision-making. Where it is practised, there are usually senior management teams (SMTs) or school management teams (SMTs in SA). These have become important in school-based management because they indicate that the principal does not perform management functions alone and this implies participatory management.

The school management team consists of the principal, deputy principal and heads of departments. Reference to the role of the SMT is necessary to emphasise that the principal can delegate some of her/his functions to the members of the SMT. The role of the SMT is to work together to ensure that the school becomes a dynamic environment for both learners and teachers. The SMT is responsible for the day-to-day management of the school and for the implementation of the school policies, which have been determined by the SGB. However, the principal holds ultimate

responsibility for making sure that the work is done and s/he can choose how to share that responsibility with other SMT members. The SMT has many different responsibilities, tasks and duties, such as planning, making decisions, delegating work, solving problems and supervising and monitoring the work of their colleagues. Some of these overlap with those of the principal. While some authors suggest that the principal should delegate professional functions, others believe that s/he should share the administrative functions with teachers. I am of the opinion that the principal must 'share power and responsibility with others' in every sphere of management but understand that in the final analysis s/he is accountable. Such sharing will make the work manageable and reduce unnecessary overload in both executive functions and professional management functions.

2.6 FACTORS THAT DETERMINE SUSTAINABILITY AND INSTITUTIONALISATION OF CHANGES IN SCHOOLS

One of the problems of school improvement initiatives mentioned in section 2.3.2 is that changes that have been achieved through these initiatives are not institutionalised and do not endure. In places like the Eastern Cape, for example, there have many attempts at improvement of schools through projects like READ, SEP, and the Molteno Language Project mentioned in section 1.1, but matric results continue to be very poor.

School improvement requires that implementation of changes be sustained over time (Miles, 1998). This means that innovations that have been implemented need longevity to have any durable effects (Huberman, 1992), and this in turn requires that the changes be institutionalised. Institutionalisation means that the change is 'built in' to the life of the school. It is a process of making the change routine, that it becomes part of the ordinary life of the school, is treated as a normal, taken-for-granted part of organisational life, and has unquestioned resources of time, personnel and money available (Miles, 1998; Sergiovanni, 1991). Miles and Sergiovanni observe that changes in governance, student groupings, curriculum, time schedule and teacher roles do not normally survive on commitment or even evidence of efficacy but require new structural arrangements to become institutionalised when regular systems are adjusted to reflect these patterns. Huberman (1992) notes that proven and

acknowledged success is usually a necessary but by no means a sufficient requirement for institutionalisation. Therefore successful implementation of changes is not enough if nothing is done to sustain them. This study is about the changes in disadvantaged schools which lack resources of time, whose personnel may lack the relevant experience in management and effective methods of teaching as well as in governance. These pose challenges to the institutionalisation of the changes introduced. In schools which have these resources institutionalisation is likely to be assured.

According to Fullan (1991: 209) sustained improvement requires serious restructuring of the school, the district, and their interrelationships. This discussion assumes that schools are either 'ineffective' or 'struggling'. It must be noted, however, that schools that are performing well and privileged can take time to transform because the focus of interventions tends to be on ineffective and struggling schools. As a result such schools can take time to change. My experience is that this restructuring depends on the individual circumstances prevailing at the time and in a particular school, the quality and disposition of staff at both the school and the district. Schools where teachers and the principal are qualified, and the principal, staff and the parents work co-operatively and systems are functioning effectively, the school district relationship needs to be relaxed. In this way the school is allowed enough latitude to experiment. Incidents in South Africa indicate that schools that have a rich parent base and are performing well in terms of student performance can avoid restructuring for a long time because they are seldom the focus of district or provincial officials

In effective and struggling schools, however, the role of the district is crucial. Fullan (1991) argues that ineffective and struggling schools can become highly innovative for short periods of time without the district, but they cannot stay innovative without district action to establish the conditions for continuous and long-term improvement.

Changes need to be embedded in stable organisational routines, be well-linked to policy above the school level, and not require sustained extra energy (Miles, 1998).

As indicated earlier, if the activities of interventions such as the IP are not sustained, this amounts to a waste of investment. There is need therefore, to find ways to ensure

that changes in practice which are introduced through interventions of about three years are allowed to develop into a culture that is embedded before the schools can be given a high degree of autonomy. One of the broad aims of this study is to identify the possible factors that are likely to impinge on the sustainability and institutionalisation of the IP aims. The following section will discuss the factors that are thought to help ensure sustainability of the activities of interventions such as the IP. The aim is to examine the extent to which these have or have not contributed to the institutionalisation of the IP and why.

2.6.1 Changing the culture of the school

This section discusses the contribution of culture to the sustainability and endurance of changes resulting from external interventions such as the IP.

Culture is a reflection of shared values, beliefs and commitment of school members across an array of dimensions that include but extend beyond interpersonal life. Culture helps direct attention to the symbols, behavioural regularities, ceremonies, and even myths that communicate to people the underlying values and beliefs that are shared by members of an organisation. It represents a source of inspiration, meaning and significance for those who live and work in the school (Sergiovanni, 1998; Meyerson & Martin, 1997.)

Miles (1998: 63) notes that early in 90s change researchers and reformers expressed the need for 'restructuring' to be accompanied by 'reculturing'. Restructuring is concerned with changing roles while reculturing is concerned with changing values and beliefs. Restructuring needs to be accompanied by reculturing. For example, the shift from teacher-centred to learner-centred approach is a component of restructuring as roles of teachers and learners have to change. This needs to be accompanied by a change in belief and values about how students learn and this will take a long time.

Hopkins, et al (1997: 269) also observes that the ultimate achievement of improvement is a transformation of the culture of the school. However, the process of cultural change is not a one-off activity, but evolves and unfolds over time (Hopkins, et al, 1997). Fullan (1991) suggests a period of ten years of doing the right things

consistently and persistently. In developing countries where most of the school improvement projects like the IP are externally funded and are tied to a three year cycle, the schools do not get enough time for a cultural change to occur. This may result in changes that have been achieved not enduring and the investments made being a waste.

School-based models of educational change often result in changes in formal decision-making structures but rarely result in a focus on developing instructional skills or on changing the culture of the school (Fullan & Miles, 1992: 747). This results in superficial changes. Changes in structure are especially susceptible to superficiality and unrealistic time lines. This means that, to achieve sustainability, changes in structure must go hand in hand with changes in culture and in the individual and collective capacity to work through new structures (Fullan & Miles, 1992: 748). Purkey and Smith (1985) note that efforts to change school have been productive and most enduring when directed toward influencing the entire school culture via a strategy involving collaborative planning, shared decision-making, and collegial work in an atmosphere friendly to implementation and evaluation.

In a study conducted among secondary schools West, Ainscow and Stanford (2005) found that principals identified changing the culture of the school as one of the strategies for achieving sustainable improvement. According to the principals interviewed, changing the culture involved changing values and beliefs. This involved building relationships, strengthening morale and raising expectations. Changing behaviour can take a short time but changing beliefs and values is a long-term process that develops as people engage in action related to an intervention. The three-year cycle of most interventions works against the length of time required to change beliefs and values and suggested by Fullan (1991) and other protagonists. This makes it imperative for the government to inherit the burden of providing and maintaining the activities of the intervention until the schools have developed the necessary culture to be able to own the activities of the intervention.

2.6.2 District support and pressure

It has been accepted by most school improvement protagonists that the school is the centre of change. However, according to Fullan (1991), the concept of the school as a centre of change should not be misconstrued to mean that it can be isolated from its socio-political context and can engage in self-renewing activities without the district. He maintains that the school will never become the centre of change if left to its own devices. However, it must be noted that Fullan is obviously referring to those schools that are described by Stoll and Fink (1996) as cruising, struggling, sinking schools and lack the capacity to manage change without support from outside. These are the schools that are usually targeted for intervention and need continuous support and monitoring. Schools that are described as moving, however, need to be left alone because, according to Stoll and Fink (1996: 86):

people within them are ... actively working together to respond to their changing context and to keep developing. They know where they are going; they have systems and the 'will and the skill'to get there.

The schools referred to above do need to keep contact but must be allowed more latitude to experiment and such schools must be encouraged to solicit assistance from the district office when they need it. Such schools usually have principals and staff that are so confident and positive that they are usually ready to solicit assistance when they need it.

As indicated earlier, frequently change in a school is the result of system initiatives that live or die based on the strategies and supports offered by the larger organization (Fullan, 1991:73). Fullan (1991: 198) further argues that adopted changes will not go anywhere on any scale unless district staff provide specific implementation pressure and support. He observes that successful change projects always include elements of both pressure and support. In the study of secondary principals that they conducted, West *et al* (2005) reached a conclusion that there was evidence of balanced use of pressure and support in achieving sustained improvement. Pressure without support leads to resistance, while support without pressure leads to drift or waste of resources (Fullan, 1991). LaRocque and Coleman (1989a: 190) concluded that effective

districts have an active and evolving accountability ethos that combines interactive monitoring with a respect for school autonomy. Fullan (1991), however, admits that there is an insoluble problem of school/district balance, precisely because it represents an inherently complex dilemma between autonomy and accountability, variation and consistency, and the like. Effective superintendents continually negotiate and monitor this relationship with school staff, attempting to stay within an acceptable corridor of mutual influence (Fullan, 1991: 211). The district officials should therefore be in close personal contact with schools so that they are able to identify appropriate specific points of pressure and support in working with schools for change (Christie, 1998: 295).

However, the Department of Education (2000) acknowledges that many of the district officials themselves are not yet proficient in the areas in which they are expected to give advice. The department, therefore, suggests that staff development should be extended beyond the school personnel. This is particularly important when interventions such as the IP are used to develop schools and their stakeholders. It should be recognised that staff in these offices may not be conversant with the content and approaches of the intervention. They are, after all, products of the schools which they have to support, and the system that they have to change. However, the problem is that it is difficult to predict when 'pressure' or 'support' or both are appropriate in a case that has not yet been encountered, nor is it possible to know in advance which form either or both should take (Huberman, 1992: 4).

2.6.3 Local ownership by the school

One of the possible ways of achieving sustainability of change is ensuring local ownership. Local ownership involves a learning process of coming to grips with new personal meaning and it is loaded with uncertainty (Fullan & Miles, 1992). Fullan (1991: 92) observes that ownership in the sense of clarity, skill and commitment is a progressive process that is not acquired easily. Yet deep ownership on the part of many people is real change. It is something that comes out the other end of a successful change process (Fullan 1991). Hopkins and Lagerweig (1996: 71) argue that without deliberate attention to the institutional steps that lock an innovation into the local setting, investments are lost. Little (1993: 133) concurs that reforms require

that persons in local situations grapple with what broad principles look like in their own practice. Ownership depends on the degree to which the capacity building intervention has been internally driven, that is, the degree to which the institution has been able to exercise its own choices in terms of activities, processes and procedures.

New meaning and new learning for those who encounter them initially require time to assimilate them. Understanding as learning also puts ownership in perspective. Ownership of a reform cannot be achieved in advance of learning something new. A deep sense of ownership comes only through learning. So, one of the propositions for success is to understand that all change involves learning and that all learning involves coming to understand and be good at something new. Thus, for local ownership of an intervention to be achieved, conditions that support learning must be part and parcel of any change effort (Fullan & Miles, 1992). This aspect of educational change calls not only for training, but for adequate opportunity to learn, embedded in the routine organization of teachers' workday and work year (Little, 1993: 133).

2.7 CONCLUSION

In this chapter I have given an overview of approaches to school change. I put more emphasis on school improvement as a strategy for educational change because it enhances student outcomes and strengthens the school's capacity for managing change. In addition, school improvement focuses on professional and institutional development because it is believed that one can not change people without changing the context in which they work. It was noted that in analysing changes in management practices of school principals in the context of an intervention, it is important to recognise the variability in the contexts. However, the social context is not all-determining and building human agency and responsibility at the school level is an important dimension of changing schools. The willingness on the part of the people to act within the structures in ways that are not simply determined by them, may lead to successful improvement even in the face of challenging circumstances. Therefore, changing school must go hand in hand with the development of personnel with the moral commitment and will to change. It was noted that strategies for school improvement are based on assumptions that schools can change and therefore, those

in the schools are no longer seen as victims of change but as having the ability to take control of the process of change.

Second-order changes were described as those that seek to alter the fundamental ways in which organisations are put together, including new goals, structures, and roles. Institutionalisation and sustainability of changes in schools resulting from interventions such as the IP was identified as one of the challenges in developing countries like South Africa. Factors that determine the institutionalisation and sustainability of such changes in schools were discussed. Institutionalisation and sustainability of changes in schools resulting from interventions such as the IP was identified as one of the challenges in developing countries like South Africa. Factors that determine the institutionalisation and sustainability of such changes in schools were discussed. There is therefore a need to find ways of ensuring that the changes achieved are embedded in the organisational structures so that they are not lost when intervention have stopped. This is not always easy in developing countries such as South Africa where financial resources are limited and many other backlogs in education exist.

It was noted that there have been changes in school improvement and change initiatives which have been accompanied by research studies to evaluate their successes and failures. These studies have led to improvement of successive initiatives. The current trend is to study change while involved in it.

The school-based approach to school improvement was discussed. Its focus on the process of decentralising decision-making concerning the allocation of resources to the school level and the democratisation of school governance and management and A move towards institutional autonomy.

The principals' role in school change, school improvement and school management were discussed. The need to conceptualise the principal's role as leader and manager as one of leading and managing school improvement was noted. However, it was noted that due to the legacy of apartheid which excluded some principals from black schools from opportunities for development, many principals in these schools were never exposed to any form of professional development on appointment as principals.

For this reason it is imperative that any intervention makes professional development of teachers and other role players their focus, that is, develop their skills of managing change, financial management, and developing and managing community relationships that are conducive to effective teaching and learning.

The challenges of changing roles in school management in terms of the SASA were noted. The important role of the district office and the province in supporting, monitoring and evaluation of the schools indicates that central co-ordination, pressure and development are essential but so is corresponding school-based development on the part of principals, SMTs, SGBs and teachers as implementation decision-makers.

One of the problems in developing countries is lack of expertise related to poor training with both principals, teachers and district personnel who are supposed to work with schools - the need for development of at all level which makes school improvement a complex process and long-term.

The need for interventions not to focus only on structures but on managing teaching and learning because improvement in student achievement tends to reverberate to other areas in the school focus on improving teaching and learning.

The reciprocal nature of the management and leadership role of the principal was discussed. This conclusion is that the two should be in balance and complement each other in the person of the principal. While the principal's functions such as developing a vision of the school, developing systems, processes and support structure, managing material and financial resources, establishing and strengthening school-community relationships, it was emphasised that the principal has to function both as an executive and a professional head, and that s/he can successfully do this with a collaborative framework. This means sharing decision-making and management in general with the SMT and other members of staff as much as possible.

- Pressure to maintain stability: need for principals to reflect on their roles-need to collaborate with and get feedback from other principals and teachers – action research

- Training coupled with continuous learning
- The dual role of the principal management and leadership and both as executive and a professional head- to achieve this she must develop a collaborative culture

CHAPTER 3: RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

3.1 INTRODUCTION

The chapter describes the processes that were followed in the design and dissemination of questionnaires, the design and conduct of the interviews, the analysis of documents and the techniques that were used in the presentation and analysis of the data collected.

The purpose of this study was to explore/ examine the views of principals, teachers, and SGB members in the schools that had participated in the IP about changes in the management practices in their schools. Schools from poor communities were selected. Consequently, most of these schools are located in the rural regions of the former Transkei, in disadvantaged communities on the outskirts of city centres and in selected townships. Among these were some farm schools and a few specialized schools. The change agents included the following:

- Primary school principals who had participated in the training of the first phase of the IP
- Primary school teachers who had participated in the training workshops of the first phase of the IP
- Members of School Governing Bodies (SGBs) who had participated in the training of the first phase of the IP
- Department of Education staff and former college lecturers who acted as trainers and monitors during the implementation of the first phase of the IP in the schools
- Imbewu officials
- Members of the Provincial Department of Education who were involved in the first phase of the IP
- Teachers of the schools which participated in the first phase of the IP who did not receive any training but were expected to experience the IP through the cascading model of implementation

As mentioned in chapter 1, the research was guided by the following research questions:

- Did the intervention provide adequate and quality training and orientation for school principals to enable them to manage the tasks referred to above?
- To what extent and in what ways have school principals participating in the IP changed their management practices?
- What educational and contextual factors influenced change in the school principals' management practices in the context of the IP?
- Did the district and provincial officials offer adequate support and monitoring of the project implementation?
- Have the activities of the project been sustained and institutionalised?

Before conducting the study, permission was sought from the Eastern Cape Department of Education (Appendix 1). This permission was granted with the condition that the letter should be produced at each school (Appendix 2) and that the Department would get a copy of the thesis. Since the district had become the unit of management, permission was also sought from and granted by the District Managers by presenting the letter from the ECDE department of education. It was also important for permission to be sought from the principals on gaining access to the schools not only to interview him/her and the teachers but also for casual observations and access to internal school documents. This was done personally during the distribution of the questionnaires and before the interviews.

3.2 RESEARCH DESIGN

A descriptive research design was used to explore the views of principals, teachers and SGB members about changes in the management practices in their schools. The study of the participants' views assumes a similarity between the views of the principals and those of the teachers and SGB members in a particular school with regard to their experiences of management changes in the school. One of the reasons for this assumption is that the school role players, that is, the principals, teachers and SGB members actually implemented and experienced the changes in the school

together and were therefore in a good position to assess whether change had taken place or not. But it is conceded that their experiences might have differed and that they might have had different expectations at the outset which would have informed their experiences of the process and their evaluation of the Imbewu intervention. To put it in another way, it is likely that some differences in testimony will have been encountered. These might have been regarded as a form of bias which in turn might threaten the validity of their responses. To deal with this threat, various methods were used to limit the effect of this on validity and reliability as discussed in section 3.4.2.4. The most important of these methods is triangulation.

The research was carried out in three stages. During the first stage, between April and August 2002, I undertook research in order to get general responses from a larger sample about characteristics of the IP and changes in the school management practices as a result of participating in the IP. I used a questionnaire as the research instrument during this stage. I will discuss this in greater detail in section 3.4.1.

During the second stage, between February and July 2005, I used qualitative interviews using a small sample. During this stage the research was guided by an interview schedule/guide which examined in depth the views of participants from one cluster of five schools. I will discuss this in greater detail in section 3.4.2.

In the third stage, in October to November 2005, I analysed school documents including chequebooks, receipt books, cash analysis books, minutes of staff meetings, SGB meetings, and finance committee meetings in the five schools in order to corroborate the information given by the principals. Further discussion of this will be done in section 3.4.3.

The questionnaire is used in quantitative research while the interviews and analysis of documents mentioned above are typical of qualitative research. Therefore, although the qualitative approach was the main design involving interviews and the analysis of documents, the quantitative approach was also used in the form of questionnaires. A brief description of both quantitative and qualitative approaches to research will be given below.

3.2.1 Quantitative research

As mention earlier a descriptive design was used. Descriptive research can be divided into two broad categories representing quantitative and qualitative approaches (Mason & Bramble, 1989). Quantitative descriptive research involves identifying the characteristics of phenomena or exploring possible correlations among two or more variables. In this study a descriptive survey was used to acquire information about the characteristics, opinions and experiences of principals and teachers about the IP. The ultimate goal was to learn about a large population by surveying a sample of that population. In the survey in this study I posed a series of questions to willing participants, summarised their responses with percentages, frequency counts and then drew inferences about the population from the responses of the sample (Leedy & Ormrod, 2005). Hence, only simple statistics were used. However, the main purpose was triangulation and not to generalise. In other words, I wanted to identify certain characteristics and explore the views of a larger sample of principals and teachers about the IP before focussing on qualitative interviewing of a small sample from the same population.

3.2.2 Qualitative research

Qualitative research covers an array of interpretive techniques which seek to describe, decode, translate and otherwise come to terms with the meaning of certain or more naturally occurring phenomena (Mason & Bramble, 1989: 36). Qualitative research views human behaviour as a product of how people interpret the world. Hitchcock and Hughes (1995) argue that qualitative researchers emphasise the importance of discovering meanings and interpretations of events and actions. They recognise that what goes on in schools and classrooms is made up of complex layers of meanings, interpretations, values and attitudes which necessitates description of actions, ideas, values and meanings through the eyes of participants. Qualitative researchers assume that people act on the basis of their interpretation of experience, hence they are interested in what participants experience and how they interpret these experiences (McMillan & Schumacher, 2001; Hitchcock & Hughes, 1995). This means that the principals, teachers and SGB members who participated in the IP would be expected to act or respond to the IP on the basis of their interpretation of their experience of its

activities. The focus of this study therefore was to capture this process of interpretation. As Babbie and Mouton (2001) suggest, in order to achieve this, the study should focus on the views and interpretations of the participants. They argue that the ideal situation is for the qualitative researcher to study events as they occur, rather than having to reconstruct them in retrospect.

In this study, it was necessary to reconstruct certain IP activities such as training, monitoring and evaluation in retrospect. This was because the study was undertaken after these activities had been completed by the participants. The participants were therefore requested to reconstruct what had taken place some time before. Such reconstruction could only be achieved through self-reporting, which entailed the use of questionnaires but mainly qualitative interviews. I therefore had to ask participants questions that prompted them to provide an indication of change that they had experienced. Babbie and Mouton (2001) view such questions as attempting to ascertain causality 'after the fact'. They concede that the information gathered in this way is not as reliable as information gathered through systematic and independent observations. This was one of the limitations of this study which will be discussed in section 3.7.

3.3 POPULATION AND SAMPLING

Sampling is the process of selecting a portion of the population to represent the entire population (Robson, 1999; McMillan & Schumacher, 2001; Hitchcock & Hughes, 1995). This target population is the population of the study. The first step in sampling is therefore to define the population as will be done in the next subsection. Section 3.3.1 below discusses sampling for Phase 1, that is, for the questionnaire. Sampling for Phase 2, the interviews, will be discussed in section 3.3.3.

3.3.1 Population

The target population for this study consisted of 2700 change agents (e.g. teachers, principals, members of School Governing bodies) at 500 primary schools all of whom underwent the Imbewu training. These included the principal, the Mathematics, Language, Science and Technology, and a Foundation phase teacher and one member

of the SGB, normally, the chairperson from each school. These change agents worked with 6000 other teachers who did not undergo any training at the 500 primary schools which participated in the IP.

3.3.2 Sampling procedures for the questionnaires

According to Gay (1981), the sample should constitute 10% of the population in a survey research, and 20% if the population is less than 500 subjects. In this study the sample was ten percent (10%) of the participating SGBs, teachers, and principals since the population was more than 500 subjects.

The type of sampling for sampling schools was determined by the delivery or implementation structure of the IP. The IP structured the delivery of its professional development services according to geographic subdivisions referred to as training zones and school clusters. The school cluster consisted of 5 schools in geographic proximity. Although the school was the basic organisational unit for the implementation of the IP, the school cluster represented the smallest unit for inter-school collaboration, networking and mutual support. In view of this, I decided to use cluster or multi-stage sampling. This involved identifying naturally occurring group units and then randomly selecting some of these units for the study. This is followed by a selection of the participants in the study from the sampled clusters (Baker, 1988; Robson, 1999; Babbie & Mouton, 2001; McMillan & Schumacher, 2001). Thus, since the schools were already grouped into clusters, one cluster was chosen on a random basis from each district. This meant that 10 clusters (5 schools in each cluster) were selected. Therefore the schools in the sample were found by multiplying the number of clusters by the number of schools in each cluster as indicated below:

$$10 \text{ clusters} \times 5 \text{ schools} = 50 \text{ schools}$$

The sample was calculated by multiplying the number of change agents in each school by the number of school as shown below:

As mentioned earlier, change agents from each school included the following:

SGB member	= 1
Principal	= 1
Mathematics teacher	= 1
Language teacher	= 1
Science & Technology teacher	= 1
Foundation phase teacher	= 1

6

The total sample was:

$$50 \text{ schools} \times 6 \text{ people} = 300$$

The 300-person sample included 50 SGB members, 50 principals, 50 Mathematics, 50 Language, 50 Science and Technology and 50 Foundation Phase teachers. However, problems were experienced with the SGBs as will be indicated in chapter 4.

Most of the schools sampled were in the OR Tambo District Municipality, located in the former Transkei, which is the poorest part of the Eastern Cape. (See Figure 1.2).

3.3.3 Sampling for the interviews

As mentioned in section 3.1, in phase two of the study, I conducted interviews with role players. All of them came from one cluster of schools. This subsection explains how I selected the particular cluster that served as a research site for qualitative data collection.

Hitchcock and Hughes (1995) argue that although qualitative researchers usually have smaller numbers of respondents or informants, they need to research them in greater depth than is possible when using questionnaires. Nevertheless, they need to undertake some form of sampling. In doing this, they need to focus on obtaining as natural and representative a picture as possible. Some form of sampling serves to help the qualitative researcher to at least attempt acceptable levels of representativeness. For interviews I used convenience sampling which involves choosing the nearest individuals or people who are readily available and accessible to serve as respondents (Cohen & Manion, 1994; McMillan & Schumacher, 2001; Punch, 1994). According

to McMillan and Schumacher (2001), the researcher must describe convenient samples carefully to show that, although the subjects were not randomly selected, their characteristics match those of the population or a substantial portion of the population. In this study, I made an attempt to select schools in one cluster in one district in terms of my knowledge of the educational and socio-economic levels of the communities in which the school clusters were located. To gain sufficient knowledge that could guide me in the choice of the sample, I began by having frequent discussions with one of the trainers in one of the regions in which I was to undertake the research. Secondly, before the study began I had participated as a fieldworker in the administration of two of the evaluation instruments in some of the schools in the evaluation conducted by Joint Education Trust (JET) in 2002. Thirdly, the questionnaire data that I had already collected and analysed showed most of the common characteristics of the schools such as qualifications, and experiences of teachers as well as infrastructure. This, together with my knowledge of the OR Tambo District Municipality district, gave me an idea of the variations in the contexts in which the IP was implemented. Based on the knowledge referred to above, I collected the data for this PhD study from one cluster of five schools that are within an estimated radius of 8-10 km from one another. I selected the schools because of their proximity to where I reside and work. The furthest of these 5 schools is 31 km from Mthatha (single journey). Although there were other clusters of schools which were the same distance from where I live and had the same characteristics, I preferred this cluster because I was acquainted with four of the principals and some of the teachers, and the roads were better than to other schools. I conducted in-depth interviews with the five (5) principals of the five schools forming the selected cluster, three (3) teachers from each school who participated in the IP training workshops (key teachers-K), 3 teachers who had not attended the training (non-key teachers (NK) from the 5 schools forming the one cluster of 5 schools under investigation. Altogether I interviewed 15 key teachers and 15 non-key teachers. The principals assisted me in choosing the teachers. The principals maintained that they were choosing those teachers who were serious about their work and thus would have been more committed to the IP activities. Two (2) of the 15 key teachers were males and 13 were females as indicated in Table 3.1-3.11 below. Only one of the 15 non-key teachers was a male and 14 were females.

Sample for interviews was constituted as follows:

5 schools x 1 principal	= 5
5 schools x 3 key teachers (K)	= 15
5 schools x 3 no-key teachers (NK)	= 15
8 schools x 1 SGB member (SGB)	= 8

43

I used code names to identify the respondents in the study to ensure anonymity. The principals were referred to as Interviewee P1- P5, the key teachers as K (1-15) and non-key teachers as Interviewee NK (1-15), and the SGB members as SGB (1-8) as shown in the tables below. The tables below, tables 3.1 to 3.12 show the types of schools, the age groups of all the participants, the teaching experience, the experience in the particular schools, the position held and the number of years the position has been held. The schools included four junior secondary schools (JSS) and one senior primary school (SPS) (see glossary of terms). I have included this information because I believe that it influences the views that will be held by each participant. Further discussion of this will follow in chapter 4.

Table 3.1: Principals

	Principal 1	Principal 2	Principal 3	Principal 4	Principal 5
Type of School	JSS	JSS	JSS	JSS	SPS
Gender	F	F	F	F	M
Age group	51-55	51-55	41-45	41-45	31-35
Years of service	Over 20	Over 20	Over 20	16 -20	11 - 15
Years of service in school	16 -20	16 - 20	16 – 20	16 -20	1-5
Years in position	11- 15	16 – 20	6 – 10	1 – 5	1 - 5

KEY TEACHERS (K)**Table 3.2 School 1-JSS**

Key Teacher	K1	K 2	K 3
Gender	F	M	F
Age group	51 – 55	31 – 35	41 - 45
Years of service	Over 20	13	20
Years of service in school	12	13	20
Position	Teacher	Teacher	Teacher
Years in position	Over 20	13	20

Table 3.3: School 2- JSS

Key Teacher	K4	K5	K6
Gender	F	F	F
Age group	31 – 35	36 - 40	31 - 35
Years of service	10	17	11
Years of service in school	7	7	7
Position	Teacher	Teacher	Teacher
Years in position	10	17	11

Table 3.4: School 3-JSS

Key Teacher	K7	K82	K9
Gender	F	F	F
Age group	35 – 40	50 – 55	40 - 45
Years of service	12	26	14
Years of service in school	12	19	14
Position	Teacher	HOD	Teacher
Years in position	12	9	14

Table 3.5: School 4-JSS

Key Teacher	K 10	K 11	K 12
Gender	M	F	F
Age group	35 – 40	40 – 45	55 - 60
Years of service	9	22	31
Years of service in school	5	19	9
Position	Teacher	HOD	Teacher
Years in position	9	8	31

Table 3.6: School 5-SPS

Key Teacher	K13	K 14	K 15
Gender	F	F	F
Age group	35 – 40	40 – 45	31 - 35
Years of service	9	14	13
Years of service in school	5	14	13
Position	Teacher	Teacher	Teacher
Years in position	9	14	13

NON-KEY TEACHERS (NK)**Table 3.7: School 1- JSS**

Key Teacher	NK1	NK 2	NK 3
Gender	F	M	F
Age group	30 – 35	46 – 50	36 - 40
Years of service	12	25	15
Years of service in school	6	20	6
Position	Teacher	Teacher	Teacher
Years in position	12	25	15

Table 3.8: School 2- JSS

Key Teacher	NK4	NK5	NK 6
Gender	F	F	F
Age group	41 -45	35 – 40	51 - 55
Years of service	16	14	35
Years of service in school	16	14	15
Position	Teacher	Teacher	Teacher
Years in position	16	14	35

Table 3.9: School 3- JSS

Key Teacher	NK7	NK 8	NK 9
Gender	M	F	F
Age group	35 – 40	51 – 55	41 - 45
Years of service	14	36	17
Years of service in school	14	33	17
Position	Teacher	Teacher	Teacher
Years in position	14	33	17

Table 3.10: School 4-JSS

Key Teacher	NK10	NK 11	NK 12
Gender	F	F	F
Age group	46 – 50	30 – 35	30 -35
Years of service	10	9	10
Years of service in school	7	7	5
Position	Teacher	Teacher	Teacher
Years in position	10	9	10

Table 3.11: School 5 -SPS

Key Teacher	NK 13	NK 14	NK 15
Gender	F	F	F
Age group	36 – 40	26 – 30	31 - 35
Years of service	15	9	9
Years of service in school	6	7	5
Position	Teacher	Teacher	Teacher
Years in position	15	9	9

Table 3.12: Members of School Governing Bodies

SGB members	SGB1	SGB2	SGB3	SGB4	SGB5	SGB6	SGB7	SGB8
Gender	M	M	M	M	M	M	M	M
Age	26-35	36-45	56-65	56-65	56-65	66-75	66-75	66-75
Academic qual.	Std 6	Matric	Std 3	JC	Std 6	Std 4	Std 1	Std 3
Prof qual.	None							
Position	chair	Chair	Chair	deputy	chair	chair	chair	Chair
Yrs of service	1-5	1-5	1-5	1-5(16-20)	1-5	1-5	1-5	1-5

3.4 SOURCES OF DATA

As mentioned in section 3.1, in this study I used questionnaires, interviews and documents as sources of data. This section discusses the methods that I used to design, administer or conduct questionnaires and interviews and to analyse the data collected. I also discuss the review of in-school documents.

3.4.1 The questionnaire

As mentioned in section 3.2, the first phase of this research involved the use of questionnaires. I found a questionnaire suitable as it facilitated the collection of information of large amounts of data from numerous participants. Questionnaires are a convenient means of accessing many and widely scattered respondents (Youngman, 1984). Since the Eastern Cape is large, the questionnaire thus made it possible for me to reach the population that I could not reach in the case of interviews. Such a large amount of data could not have been collected using interviews.

Questionnaires are also suitable for the collection of information on views, experiences and opinions of the participants which was the focus of this study. The questionnaires for the different change agents were also meant to examine the extent to which their responses corroborated the information later given by the principals who were the focus of the study, since all these agents work and therefore interact on a daily and regular basis with the principal and are influenced by his actions and they also influence his or hers.

Because this study was mainly qualitative and aimed at examining the views of participants, the questionnaire also included a large number of open-ended questions which required respondents to express their opinions and experiences about the management changes emanating from their participation in the IP. Through questionnaires I therefore gathered quantitative and qualitative data.

While I acknowledged its suitability for collecting information on characteristics and general views of participants, I also recognised that the questionnaire does not offer opportunities to the respondents or researcher for elaboration, clarification or

illustration and provides little detail about the context within which the respondents formulate their answers. To offset this, the questionnaire was followed with the interviews and the review of documents.

One questionnaire was prepared for each of the following: principals, key teachers and for members of SGBs although the one for SGB members could not be administered, as explained in section 3.4.1.3 below.

3.4.1.1 The questionnaire design

The questionnaires were drafted in April 2002. Each questionnaire was accompanied by information, which included the purpose of the study and instructions on how to complete the questionnaire. The respondents were assured that confidentiality would be maintained. They were instructed not to write their names on the questionnaires. The respondents were informed that the questionnaire took about 30 minutes to complete, and were provided with a stamped, addressed envelope although it was planned that other options would be found to collect the questionnaires.

The formulation of the specific questions in the questionnaire was based on the research questions. The questionnaires for the principals and members of the SGB were designed to elicit responses on the following:

- personal particulars (A:1-9)
- nature and quality of the IP training (B: 1-6)
- systems and processes for teacher development by principal (C: 1-7)
- financial management (D:1-7)
- developing and managing school-community relationships (E:1-5)
- managing teaching and learning material (F:1-4)
- managing teaching and learning (G:1-5)
- General views on Imbewu and how it can be improved (H:1-9)

The questions in the questionnaire for teachers were designed to elicit responses on the following:

- personal particulars (A:1-7)
- nature and quality of IP training (B: 1-3)
- developing systems and processes for human resource development (C: 1-8)
- financial management and control (D:1-6)
- developing and managing relationships with the community(E:1-5)
- managing teaching and learning material (F:1-4)
- developing and managing relationships with teachers (G:1-5)
- managing and transforming teaching and learning(H: 1-4)
- general views on Imbewu (I: 1-9)

As mentioned in section 3.2, because the study was mainly qualitative, the questionnaire included many open-ended questions. Bless and Higson-Smith (1995) note that questionnaires are well-suited for exploratory studies. The disadvantage of questionnaires with numerous open-ended items is that they are often returned with many questions left blank. This is because it takes much more time and thought for the respondents to generate a written response than to merely check an offered response. However, Bless and Higson-Smith (1995) note that open-ended items may relieve the anxiety of participants of giving false answers since they express themselves freely. Moreover, there may be certain questions to which only an open-ended response seems reasonable (Baker, 1988). It was my view that, although they are difficult to process and analyse, open ended questions would help me collect views from a broader sample to supplement the interviews which would be limited to just a small sample.

3.4.1.2 Piloting the questionnaires

After obtaining comments from the supervisor I revised the items of the questionnaire. A pilot study was conducted in 5 schools around Mthatha in September 2002 with 5 principals and 20 teachers selected from one cluster in the Mthatha district. These participants were not going to be part of the main study. One of the

trainers involved in training principals and SGBs was also used as a source in terms of the content of the questionnaire. The pre-test was designed to refine the questions, to see if any were ambiguous or unclear and to establish the time required to complete the

questionnaire. Parahoo (1997: 262) stated that pre-testing increases instrument validity and reliability. The questions were then revised in the light of the responses from the principals and teachers in the pilot. The pilot study is an essential step in any research project because it enables one to improve the instrument format and to correct defects in the questions, the question layout, the instructions to the respondents, the answer categories and the question -numbering system (Oppenheim, 1992). It was difficult to find the members of the SGBs and their questionnaire was never piloted.

3.4.1.3 Administration of the questionnaires

The actual administration of the questionnaires began in February 2003. As mentioned in subsection 3.3.2, questionnaires were administered to 300 change agents who included 50 principals, 200 teachers and 50 members of SGBs who had participated in the Imbewu training. As will be mentioned later only personal information on 8 SGB members could be obtained through the questionnaire. The rest of the information was collected through the interviews.

I obtained postal addresses of schools whose district offices are housed in the Mthatha Department of Education offices. I then posted the questionnaires to these schools with self-addressed stamped envelopes for teachers and principals to return the completed questionnaires. However, it was still planned that where possible these would be collected. There is agreement among writers that the major disadvantage of the questionnaires as a data-gathering device is low percentage of return (Kerlinger, 1986; Cohen & Manion, 1989; Oppenheim, 1992). To offset this problem, I disseminated in person the questionnaires to most schools in the widely dispersed districts of Port St Johns, Libode, Ngqeleni, and Engcobo. The inclusion of so many districts that are far from each other and from me was necessitated by the fact that the first phase of Imbewu had selected a few schools in each district and the participants in different districts were trained by different people. It was therefore important to

me to obtain general views from participants exposed to different trainers and from different geographical and socio-economic contexts to ensure representativeness. The administration of questionnaires, therefore, involved travelling long distances as these schools were far from one another. In each school I identified one teacher who would collect the questionnaires for me and then I arranged to collect them from him/her.

This was possible because most of these teachers stayed in Mthatha and travelled home everyday. I maintained contact with these teachers telephonically to monitor their progress. For schools in Butterworth and Idutywa, I left the questionnaires in the district offices. When I explained the purpose of my study to the district managers they offered to give the questionnaires to the principals at a scheduled principals' meeting and also to collect them for me. I asked a colleague in the Butterworth branch of the then University of Transkei (UNITRA) to collect them and bring them to me during his official visit to the UNITRA main campus in Mthatha where I worked. These two districts proved to be the easiest to deal with and I incurred less expense than in the others. I personally collected completed questionnaires from the schools in Tsolo, Qumbu and Mthatha. Few of those that were posted were returned.

Of the 50 questionnaires sent to principals, 33 were returned, giving a response rate of 66%. Out of the 200 questionnaires sent to teachers, 119 were returned, giving a response rate of 59.5%. The questionnaires for the SGB members were not filled in at all. Firstly, it was difficult to access the members of the SGBs. Secondly, even in the schools in close proximity to me that I was able to reach, most of them did not want to fill in the questionnaire. Some thought that I wanted them to report on their principals. The problem was that most of these had little or no schooling.

One of the problems experienced was that some questionnaires were not fully completed and this affected the reliability of the data. The second problem was that most respondents had forgotten some things about Imbewu as most aspects such as the training and the implementation had been done some time before. Remembering details of the implementation process on the part of the respondents therefore proved to be a serious problem. In addition, because this study is mainly qualitative, most closed items in the questionnaire were followed by open-ended items which were meant to validate the responses given. The poor responses could therefore be attributed to the fact that the open-ended items required the respondents to express

opinions and perceptions on things that had happened some time before. Some of the respondents simply ignored the follow-up questions.

3.4.2 Interviews

As mentioned in section 3.2, the second phase of the research involved conducting interviews with the school role players.

The interview is one of the main data collection tools in qualitative research. It is a way of accessing people's views, meanings, definitions and constructions of reality (Punch, 1998: 174).

Interviews with SGB members, key teachers and non-key teachers were meant to find out their perceptions of the changes in their principals' management practices and how such changes had affected them in their work and the running of the school. Interviews were therefore designed to get a deeper understanding, to find out in greater detail the impact of the IP on school management and efficiency. They were also meant to examine the extent to which teachers corroborated what principals had said and were therefore a form of methodological triangulation. The interviews with SGB members, key teachers and non-key teachers to obtain the same information was, therefore, an example of source triangulation which was meant to verify the repeatability of the participants' observations and interpretations. This is because, while meanings tend to take some of the conceptual uniqueness of the reader, there is usually an expectation that the meanings of situations, observation, reporting and reading will have a certain correspondence (Stake, 1994). The use of interviews to collect some of the information already collected through questionnaires represented a form of methodological triangulation. Methodological triangulation involves the use within one study of more than one method of obtaining information (Hitchcock & Hughes, 1995). Triangulation and its importance in this study will be discussed in more detail in section 3.4.2.4.

Interviews allow one to modify one's line of enquiry, follow up interesting responses and investigate underlying motives (Robson, 1999). They enable the researcher to observe body language and take cues to probe further. In this way they offer

opportunities for the respondents or the researcher for elaboration, clarification or illustration (Patton, 1982). A face-to-face interview can be a powerful tool where one wants to carry out a study with limited resources and time (Robson, 1999). In this study, face-to-face, in-depth interviews were used because they provide room for probing, whereas questionnaires limit the respondent to the questions asked. Probes are additional prompting questions that encourage the respondent to elaborate on the topic that is being discussed. Interviews can also be used as a follow-up on questionnaires. They are also adaptable and flexible. The interviewer can repeat questions, make inferences about the respondent, and give more room for probing. Furthermore, in an interview the researcher has a chance to explain the purpose of the study better than in a covering letter accompanying a questionnaire (Kerlinger, 1986; Cohen & Manion, 1994; Robson, 1999).

Interviews were informed by questionnaires and, as already mentioned, were therefore designed to find out in greater depth and detail the impact of the IP on school management and efficiency. Secondly, they were used to follow up on some questions. For example, the questionnaire did not have items on the following: monitoring and evaluation, duration of the training, schooling levels of SGB members. However, these issues were given as responses to the last question which required respondents to comment about problems, weaknesses and strengths of Imbewu in general. I therefore used the interviews to follow up on such issues. In addition, most of the items in the questionnaire were open-ended and some respondents avoided responding to these. This necessitated that some of these be revisited through the interview. For example, the question on the role of the principal in developing teachers was not answered by many teachers. I used interviews to find out the reasons for this.

3.4.2.1 The design of the interview guide

An interview guide was developed for the interviews. The development of the interview guide was guided by the research questions and literature. In the interview guide approach, topics are selected in advance but the researcher decides the sequence and wording of the questions during the interview (McMillan & Schumacher, 2001). For example, management practices which I used as broad topics in the interview

guide were based on the literature as outlined in chapter 2, the SASA, general management functions of the principal, the relationship of the principal and the SGB in both management and governance, as well as the problems of role definition emanating from the overlapping of these functions. Within each of the broad topics, I developed questions that focused on the views of participants (school principals, teachers and SGBs) regarding the management practices of their principals. I therefore included possible follow-up questions. The interview guide approach is relatively conversational and situational so the sequence of questions during the actual interview is also determined by the response of the respondents.

The broad topics in the interview schedule/guide for principals and teachers were designed to elicit their views in the following areas:

- training (research question 1)
- monitoring and evaluation (research question 4)
- human resource productivity (research question 2)
- management of material and physical resources (research question 2)
- financial management and control (research question 2)
- external and community relations (research question 2)
- managing teaching and learning (research question 2)
- contextual factors (research question 3)

3.4.2.2 Gaining access for interviews

I visited each of the five (5) sampled schools in order to ask permission to conduct the interviews and to be given access to relevant documents. In each school I asked the principal to request the teachers to participate in the study and I emphasised that this was not compulsory. After obtaining permission for the interviews I visited the schools at times that I found convenient. On many occasions I had to wait for teachers to finish with their lessons and on some occasions I would not see the teachers because they were either in a meeting or in choir practices. None of the schools in the cluster had telephones so it was difficult to plan the research site visits. Consequently, I had to undertake more visits than would have been the case had

schools been equipped with phones. This proved to be time-consuming, expensive and therefore frustrating.

Finding the members of the SBGs proved to be the most difficult. For all the schools except one (school no. 3) the interviews were conducted at the homes of the SGB members. In one school the principal secured the appointment with the member of the SGB. It was agreed that on the day of the interview I would collect him from his home. With regard to the other SGB members whom the principal had informed about my study I also arranged to see them. I first requested them to participate in my study and then arranged a time to interview them. The appointment was not always honoured as I had to compete with other unscheduled social events and family commitments such as attending to the fields but I kept on going until I found them. All the chairpersons of the five schools were male and as the table indicates, their ages ranged between 60 and 70 except for the one for school 3 who was 53 years old.

3.4.2.3 The Interviewing process

Before I started each interview, I asked permission from each principal and each teacher to record the interview and I explained the importance of this. They had no objection to my recording them. I started each interview with a statement describing the time, the place, and the person being interviewed. I followed this with a declaration that I was going to keep this anonymous and confidential and that I was using his or her name for the sake of being able to make a follow up, if and when the need arose. I took all the phone numbers of the interviewees and told them that if they needed a clarification on something I would phone.

Before each interview started I would try to help the interviewee to relax by assuring him/her that this was my personal research, which would not be prejudicial to him/her and might possibly make a contribution to the school and the broader education system. I assured each one of them that it would be very important for him/her to be as honest as possible to ensure that the findings were genuine. I would start by mentioning the topic that we were going to discuss and then pose the questions, for example I would say “let’s talk about the IP training, what was your opinion of the

quality of the trainers- would you describe them as good, average, or poor?; what aspects of the IP have become part and parcel of the life of the school?''.

I had already included some follow-up questions in the interview schedule but as the interview proceeded I also had to do a lot of probing by asking them to justify their responses or explain. I also observed their facial expressions and after the interview I would write notes about their attitude and reception and what had happened in the setting. For example, as we were busy with the interview with P4, break started and we were inundated with noise. This incident was written as part of the field notes.

Interviewing was done according to Glaser & Strauss' (1967) technique called constant comparison (cited from Base & Blasé, 1999). The constant comparison method is the process of moving back and forth between data collection and analysis with data analysis driving later data collection (Leedy & Ormrod, 2005; McMillan & Schumacher, 2001).

As I collected data from the interviews, I discovered issues and questions as well as challenges some of which created a need for further interviewing and observing. For example, K11, an HOD, seemed to be one of the most responsible teachers, attending most of the IP workshops on behalf of the school. She was the only teacher who differed from all the others about the relationship with the principal. She openly described her as dictatorial, emphasising that change depended much on the character of the principal. She suddenly started crying, explaining that she had been trained at the IP workshop for the intermediate phase but was simply moved to the senior phase without any explanation by her principal. She alleged that the change of class made her feel that she could not use her knowledge effectively. This episode prompted me to observe closely the way the principal related to her teachers and helped me to notice things that I would not have if this episode had not taken place. I myself experienced difficulties while conducting interviews with her (the principal). In one case when I was interviewing this principal (P4) in a car, she simply opened the car window and shouted at a man who was walking in the school premises and told him to go to the staffroom. I needed a lot of patience to handle this rude interruption as I felt that the man had not even seen her and could have found the staffroom anyway. I felt that she did not show any respect and patience for what I was doing. My

observation was that she was creating the impression that I was wasting her time and that she was too busy. This was entered in the field notes. Those interviews that took place at my residence in Southernwood, Mthatha, went smoothly because there was no disturbance and on all occasions it was just the interviewee and I.

One of the major challenges regarding the interview process was language. I noticed that when I let the respondents stick to English when responding to my questions, they struggled to express themselves and I realised that this would limit the detail and depth of the data. When I allowed them to express themselves in their home language, they tended to go on and on. Code switching proved to be time-consuming, as I had to translate the interviews back to English after transcription.

Another challenge was the limited classroom and office space in all the five schools for conducting the interviews. Because of this I conducted the interviews with four of the principals at my home in Southernwood but one principal (P4) refused to be interviewed either at my place or hers alleging that I was violating her privacy. This and most of the interviews with teachers were therefore conducted at the school while others were also conducted at my home. The interviews at the schools were all conducted in my car because there was no other space. This was very uncomfortable because we had to close the car windows to avoid any distraction and noise yet most of the time it was hot. Sometimes when we were still busy with the interview the school break would start without me being aware and I would be flooded with unbearable noise. This made listening to the tape during the transcription very strenuous and time consuming.

The interviews with the members of the SGBs were the last to be conducted. As indicated, accessing members of the SGBs was difficult. With school 3 the principal made the appointment for me with a member of the SGB. On the appointed day I went to collect him from his place and we conducted the interview at the school. This was the only member of the SGB who agreed to be tape-recorded. With all the other SGB members I conducted the interviews at the member's home. This was usually a much better environment than the school where I had to conduct the interview in my car with principals and teachers some of whom were recalcitrant.

3.4.2.4 Reliability of the interviews

To enhance validity and reliability in qualitative research, researchers use a combination of strategies. The following were used in this study: participant verbatim language, extensive field notes, low-inference descriptors, triangulation, member checks, (McMillan & Schumacher, 2001), negative case analysis (Leedy & Ormrod, 2005) to enhance the validity of the interviews.

Participant Language and Verbatim Accounts

As will be evident in the presentation and analysis chapter, I made an attempt to use verbatim accounts of conversations with interviewees, transcripts and direct quotes from documents as suggested by McMillan and Schumacher (2001). This was meant to ensure that my interpretations were based on the participants' utterances and not my own. I wrote my own observations and opinions as field notes.

Low-inference Descriptors

Low-inference means that the descriptions are mostly literal and that any important terms are those used and understood by the participants (McMillan & Schumacher, 2001: 407). The use of verbatim accounts of participants during the presentation and analysis of transcripts ensured that the descriptions of the participants were literal.

Triangulation

As mentioned in subsection 3.4.2, the use of questionnaires, interviews and internal documents and asking nearly the same questions from the principals, teachers and SGB members represented forms of triangulation. McMillan and Schumacher (2001), Babbie and Mouton (2001), and Hitchcock and Hughes (1995), and Cohen and Manion (1995) regard triangulation as one of the best ways of enhancing validity and reliability in qualitative research. Triangulation is the process of using multiple perceptions to clarify meanings, verifying the repeatability of an observation or interpretation. It thus involves getting and comparing multiple perceptions of the same phenomenon (Stake, 1994: 241). While meanings tend to take some of the conceptual uniqueness of the reader, there is usually an expectation that the meanings of situations, observation, reporting and reading will have a certain correspondence. As mentioned in section 3.4.2 triangulation involves the use of multiple methods of

investigations in the same study to achieve some degree of correspondence or to clarify different ways the phenomenon is seen. Paradigms, methods, researchers, sources, and theories can be triangulated. Hitchcock and Hughes (1995: 180) emphasise that triangulation encourages flexibility, and can add some depth to the analysis and potentially increase the validity of the data and consequently the analysis made of them. Triangulation also serves to clarify meaning by identifying different ways the phenomenon is being seen (Stake, 1994). In this study methodological triangulation and source triangulation were the only ones used. For example, the use of questionnaires, interviews and documents in this study constituted methodological triangulation. In using questionnaires and interviews an attempt was made to ask the same questions or to use interviews to follow up issues that emanated from the questionnaires and needed clarification. The use of SGB members and teachers as well as documents to corroborate the data collected from the principal is a form of source triangulation.

Extensive field notes

As mentioned in sub-section 3.4.2.3 some of my observations, reflections about people and the settings were captured as field notes. Field notes refer to a written account of what the researcher hears, sees, experiences, and thinks in the course of collecting and reflecting on the data in a qualitative study. In conducting taped interviews, for example, the meaning and context of the interview can be captured more completely, if, as a supplement to each interview the researcher writes out field notes. This is because the tape recorder misses the sights, the smells, the impressions and the extra remarks before and after the interview (Bogdan & Biklen, 1982: 74). The description in section 3.4.2.3 of the behaviour of P4 in school 4 and the discrepant view of one of her teachers, K11, for example, were entered in the field notes.

Field notes consist of two kinds of materials. The first describes the environment in which the study takes place: the setting, people, actions, and conversations as observed. The second is reflective, the part that captures more of the observer's frame of mind, ideas and concerns such as observations which contradict or enhance the original theoretical ideas (Babbie & Mouton, 2001; Bogdan & Biklen, 1982). As evident from the description in section 3.4.2.3, both the descriptive and reflective

types of materials were kept. This involved description of the environment and context and my own reflections.

The contexts of the research tended to vary in terms of socio-economic advantages/disadvantages, access, etc. It was, therefore, important for me to give a detailed description of the physical and socio-economic environment of the schools in which interviews and observations were conducted.

These notes must be studied continuously in order to develop the study in the way of an emergent design. By regularly referring to the notes, one is able to adjust one's research design as the research project progresses. An emergent design is one that is refined and extends as it unfolds (Babbie & Mouton, 2001).

Participant Review

Researchers who interview each person in-depth or conduct a series of interviews with the same person may ask the person to review a transcript or synthesis of the data obtained from her or him. The participant is asked to modify any information or interpretation of the interview data (McMillan & Schumacher, 2001). In this study participant review was used mainly with three of the principals and some teachers who were easily accessible to the researcher. All these principals and teachers stayed in the urban area of Mthatha and some in the same suburb of Southernwood as me which made it easy to ask them to review the transcripts.

Mechanically recorded data

As mentioned in section 3.4.2.3, with all principals and teachers, tape recorders were used to enhance validity during the interviews. This made it easier to get the verbatim accounts of participants and helped reduce the amount of writing that had to be done during the interview. However, the SGB members from the parent component refused to be recorded.

Negative Cases and/or Discrepant Data

An attempt was made to record, analyse and report negative cases or discrepant data. A negative case is a situation, a social scene, or a participant's view that contradicts the emerging pattern of meanings. Discrepant data present a variant to the emerging

pattern (McMillan & Schumacher, 2001). The researcher actively looks for cases that contradict existing hypotheses, and then continually revises his or her explanation (Leedy & Ormrod, 2005: 100). Interviewee P4 and K 11 represented examples of negative cases. Unlike all other principals, P4 was very arrogant, negative and gave me a tough time regarding access, attitude towards me and towards the teachers. She made me feel that I was wasting her time. Firstly, it took me three visits to the school to get her to listen to me. Even when she had finally granted me the time and day for the interview herself, she made me wait for more than an hour before she attended to me. Even during the interview she suddenly stopped and asked me how long this was going to take. Yet, only one teacher (representing the discrepant view) commented about her autocratic attitude in her relationship with her teachers and SGB members. She was, however, very pleased when I asked for her in-school documents and seemed confident that they were good. My assessment was that she is better at keeping records than at dealing and communicating with teachers and SGB members.

3.4.3 DOCUMENTS

As mentioned in section 3.2, analysis of documents constituted the third phase of the research and as mentioned in section 3.4, documents also represented a third source of data. This section discusses this third source of data in the form official reports, newsletters, government publications, and newspapers on the implementation of IP. Imbewu and government publications included those produced by the EC School Improvement Unit. The in-school or internal documents included policy documents such as the school finance policy, minutes of SGB meetings, finance committee, parents meetings, vision and mission statements, receipt books, cheque books, finance analysis books, staff meetings, stock books, etc. All these were used to corroborate the information given by the principals on their management practices.

After the interviews of the school role players, in each of the five schools forming the cluster the principal was asked to produce key documents of school management such as minutes of staff meetings, finance committee meetings and SGB meetings, deposit books, cashbooks, cash analysis books and any other source that could corroborate information collected from the respondents. These were reviewed and analysed. All the principals readily produced the documents. Most of the internal documents such

as cheque books and cash analysis books were up to date and all the principals seemed willing to display their improved management of finances. I attributed the state of these documents to the fact that the control of finances was shared with the finance committee and the SGB.

In addition to the documents other sources of information such as Imbewu module handouts, newsletters and reports, and Departmental evaluation reports conducted by the Joint Education Trust (JET) were reviewed. This involved looking for ways in which what was in the documents agreed or did not agree with what the principal had said about his or her activities.

3.5. DATA PROCESSING AND ANALYSIS

This subsection describes the processes that were followed in the presentation and analysis of data that were collected through the questionnaires, interviews and in-school/internal documents.

3.5.1 Analysis of data from questionnaires

In line with the purpose of the study, the research questions, and the instrumentation, the following descriptive statistical procedures were used to analyse the data in relation to each item in the questionnaire: frequency tables, cross tabulations of frequencies and Chi Square statistics to test the relationships among variables. The data collected were analysed using the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS).

3.5.2 Processing and analysis of data from interviews and documents.

This subsection describes the methods used to present and analyse qualitative data from the interviews and in-school documents.

Qualitative data occurs in the form of words which are based on interviews, observations, and/or documents (Miles & Huberman, 1994). Miles and Huberman (1994) observe that such data is not usually immediately accessible for analysis but requires some processing. For example, raw field notes need to be corrected, edited,

typed up, and tape recordings need to be transcribed and corrected. In this study, I corrected field notes, edited and typed them. I transcribed each taped interview as it was from the recording (See Appendix 5 and 6). I made an attempt to do the transcription immediately after the interview but this was not always possible. I made comments in brackets on the emerging themes as I was writing the transcription.

According to McMillan and Schumacher (2001) qualitative data analysis is an ongoing cyclical process integrated into all phases of qualitative research. Miles and Huberman (1994) suggest that data analysis must start early as this helps the researcher to cycle back and forth between thinking about the existing data and generating strategies for collecting new and often better data. They view analysis as a relatively systematic process of selecting, categorising, sorting, comparing, synthesising, and interpreting to provide explanations of the phenomenon of interest.

At the end of the interviewing process and the transcription I started with the actual analysis by identifying topics that were coming from the responses. I already had a sense of the responses as I had done the transcriptions myself. I started with the transcriptions for principals since they were the focus of the study. I started with one question and read and re-read the response to the question in all the transcripts. As I did this I coded and isolated segments of data in the following way. The first step of the analysis was to read carefully and re-read the transcripts looking for patterns, themes, and ideas that described the changes in school management experienced by the participants, the factors that led to the success or shortcomings in the impact of Imbewu and the factors that were seen as possible causes or limits to the institutionalisation and sustainability of the changes that had been experienced. From each response to an interview question I marked with a pencil, units that cohered because they dealt with the same topic. In other words, I sorted quotes according to similarity of meaning. These were called topics and a number of these topics were subsumed under a broader topic called a category. A category subsumed a number of topics. As I did this marking or cutting and sorting I made comments where necessary and I wrote these in brackets next to each topic. These comments were actually issues that needed to be discussed or questions that needed to be answered during the discussion e.g. were there guidelines for meetings of finance committee meetings? How was the financial policy developed and who participated in its development? I

did this with every transcript ignoring a topic that had already come up in the previous transcript. Although I went through each question some topics did not necessarily appear in the relevant response. So the process involved cycling back and forth to ensure that each topic picked anywhere in the transcript was slotted in the column to which it belonged. This was done until all the transcripts were completed. Most of the categories corresponded with the headings and subheadings in the literature review and would be used as such in the data analysis chapter.

3.6 ETHICAL CONSIDERATIONS

As mentioned in section 3.2 the purpose of this study was to analyse the changes in the management practices of school principals after participating in the IP implementation with their teachers and SGB members. This analysis was done by examining their views and experiences through interviews. SGB members, key teachers and non-key teachers were interviewed in order to corroborate the information given by the principals about changes in their management activities, the way they related with their teachers and SGB members as well as parents. The role players were therefore expected to talk about each other, which brought some level of discomfort and reluctance on the part of all the participants. Such reluctance and discomfort made it necessary to assure the respondents about confidentiality and other ethical considerations. This section discusses the ethical considerations that had to be observed in this study.

Getliffe (1998) points out that in any study involving human subjects there are ethical issues that must be considered. According to Leedy and Ormrod (2005), Bogdan and Biklen (1982), and Punch (1994), a common practice is to present an informed consent form that describes the nature of the research project as well as the nature of one's participation in it. The subject's signature on this form is taken as evidence of informed consent. Such a form should contain the following information:

- A brief description of the nature of the study
- A description of what participation will involve, in terms of activities and duration
- A statement indicating that participation is voluntary and can be terminated

at any time without penalty

- The guarantee that all responses will remain confidential and anonymous
- The researcher's name, plus information about how the researcher can be contacted
- An offer to provide detailed information about the study (e.g. a summary of findings) upon its completion.

Although there was no informed consent form signed most of the points referred to above were dealt with as will be discussed in the following sections.

3.6.1 Informed Consent

In seeking permission to enter the site, most researchers have to assure participants of confidentiality and anonymity. In addition, researchers have to inform each participant about the purpose for which the data will be used. This helps the participants to make informed decisions before they consent to participate in the study and give any information (McMillan & Schumacher, 2001). The participants should also be told that, if they agree to participate, they have the right to withdraw from the study at any time. Any participation in a study should be strictly voluntary (Leedy & Ormrod, 2005; McMillan & Schumacher, 2001; Bless & Higson-Smith (1995) and both positive and negative aspects or consequences must be explained. This should include describing what specific activities their participation will involve, that is, to give them sufficient information to make a reasonable, informed judgment about whether they wish to participate (Punch, 1994). In this study, during my first visit to each school, the first thing I did was to introduce myself, describe the nature and purpose of the study and the purpose for which the data would be used. I also presented a letter to the principal from the ECDE granting me permission to conduct the study in the schools. The letter was meant to convince the principal, the SGB members and the teachers to participate in the research activities. It was clearly explained to the principal that participation in the study was voluntary and it was emphasised to him or her that s/he should inform teachers likewise. Although with one principal it proved to be difficult to secure an interview, all principals agreed to the research being conducted in their schools. The fact that each participant was not

forced to participate in the study was repeated during the actual interview and no participant seemed desirous of withdrawing.

3.6.2 Confidentiality and Anonymity

According to Knapp (1998: 34) the concepts of anonymity and confidentiality are associated with participants' right to privacy. In either case, the object is to ensure that the participants' identities are not linked to their responses. The subjects' identities should be protected so that the information collected does not embarrass or harm them in any way. Anonymity should extend not only to writing, but also to verbal reporting of information that the researcher has learned through observation (Bogdan & Biklen, 1982; Punch, 1994).

In this study I asked for permission from all the principals and teachers to use a tape recorder to record the interview and I explained the importance of this. I followed this with a declaration that this information was to be kept anonymous and confidential and that the name was being used for the sake of being able to make a follow up if and when the need arose. It also explained that tape recording saves time and ensures continuity and flow of the interview. In addition, I made the respondents aware that if I write the responses, it may result in potential bias as I may unconsciously emphasise responses that agree with my expectations and fail to note those that do not (Cohen & Manion, 1994).

In addition, I explained that the type of research approach used for the study requires that data should be produced verbatim. Also, the manner in which the interviews were conducted was important, stressing the dialogue form to appear in the transcriptions. I assured the respondents of preserving their anonymity, maintaining confidentiality of data and using the research for the intended purpose as suggested by Merriman (1988), and Bless and Higson-Smith (1995). To show that I was concerned about anonymity and confidentiality, I gave each participant a code number and then labelled any written documents with that number rather than with the person's name as suggested by Leedy and Ormrod (2005), and Bogdan and Biklen (1982), so that people could not be recognised.

3.6.3 The issues of trustworthiness, soundness and authenticity.

In any research undertaking it is important to determine the accuracy of the results. Unlike quantitative research in which issues of validity and reliability are addressed under clear topics such as validity and reliability, in qualitative research there is no consensus on such topics (Konyana, 2001).

While qualitative researchers started by using the traditional concepts of validity and reliability, recently they have developed their own language with concepts such as trustworthiness, soundness and authenticity to justify the interpretation and conclusions of the research (Konyana, 2001). Authenticity is the faithful reconstruction of participants' multiple views (McMillan & Schumacher, 2001). An attempt was made to reconstruct the participants' multiple views in the data analysis.

3.7 CONCLUSION

This chapter discussed the research design and the methods that were used to collect data that would answer the research questions. It has described the processes followed in the design and dissemination of the questionnaires and the planning and conduct of the interviews. Basically, three data collection methods were used, namely, survey questionnaires, interviews and documentary evidence. However, casual observations were also used. Finally, ethical considerations in dealing with interviews were discussed. It was noted that although all principals and teachers had been afforded an opportunity to decide whether they wanted to participate in the study and had agreed, the fact that participants had to talk about each other's roles in the changes in the schools created some discomfort and made probing highly necessary.

CHAPTER 4: PRESENTATION, ANALYSIS AND INTERPRETATION OF QUANTITATIVE DATA

4.1 INTRODUCTION

The Imbewu Project (IP) was an important externally funded initiative. It was based on the principles of co-operation between an outside agency and donor, the DFID and the ECDE. Although cooperative agreements between outside agencies and education departments such as the IP are limited in terms of their capacity to address the total needs, inequalities and backlogs in rural education, they nevertheless point to one of the possible strategies for approaching the problems of under-development, and of eliminating at least one of the inequalities which exist in the EC. The inequalities include poor management capacity and performance of principals, poor quality of teaching and learning, lack of teaching and learning material, and limited involvement of communities in the governance of the schools. These were some of the inequalities that the IP was designed to address as mentioned in section 1.4. It is generally conceded that because these initiatives tend to be short-term in nature, usually no more than three years, they are limited in their impact and any changes that are introduced are usually not sustained. One would expect the same problems with the IP. But there were some circumstances specific to the IP which gave rise to optimism that it would have a bigger and more enduring impact. This first phase of Imbewu “was located ‘outside’ ECDE in order to avoid bureaucratic red tape” (ECSEEC, 2001: 57), but worked within government frameworks and worked closely with education departmental officials. Under these circumstances we might have expected dramatic success since there was political will and support as well as funding and expertise. On the other hand I have shown that there were tensions in the IP’s goals: on the one hand it embarked on school improvement, on the other it sought to add momentum to educational transformation. While these goals could be congruent, they could also result in competition. The most important person in determining the success of IP was the principal. It was primarily through him/her that IP operated. Principals have a great deal of power in schools and are held accountable by their employers, the ECDE. While they are under increased pressure to run a financially viable and educationally successful school, transformation imposes on them the obligation also to implement a different order of school change and to do so in

conjunction, democratically, with other stake-holders. Having historically run schools with the minimum of consultation or need to consider the opinions of others, this conflict of accountability and priority could impact on the IP. These tensions are cause to temper optimism. In this chapter I show that the IP's impact was varied, but limited. This statement must be provisional because this study is not an evaluation of the IP per se but rather an examination of 'stakeholder' views. Nevertheless, the impact of the IP affects stakeholder views and stakeholder views will have influenced the success of the IP. In this thesis, and more specifically in this chapter, I examine some of the factors that influenced the way in which the IP was implemented and how it was received and thereby, indirectly, impacted on the overall influence of the IP on school management practices and the sustainability of any changes introduced. In the first section, I examine the position of principals including their histories and how these histories and accumulated experiences may well have prevented the IP from having the optimal impact. I then discuss the views of the participants on the IP training and how its nature and duration could have influenced IP implementation. Next, I examine the views of role players about changes they may have experienced in their school management practices. Lastly, I discuss the contextual and educational factors that may have impacted on the implementation of the IP.

4.2 PROFILES OF RESPONDENTS

The first section of both the teacher and principal questionnaires sought information on the biographical and professional particulars of the respondents. These particulars are important as they influence the way people view things and in this case they would be expected to have influenced the way the respondents viewed and responded to the IP intervention and its implementation and ultimately its impact on management practices. These particulars include the following:

- Gender
- teaching experience (in terms of number of years)
- highest position held before being principal (going up through the ranks)
- number of years as principal
- capacity as principal (temporary/permanent)
- age group

- highest academic qualifications
- professional qualifications

The respondents were all African and all Xhosa first language speakers. The reason for this lies in the history of the region from which the sample was drawn, namely, a former homeland, the Transkei, as reflected by the legislative measures which follow. These legislative measures culminated in the virtual elimination of other racial groupings in the Transkei and ensured that the homeland had a preponderance of Xhosa speaking Africans. The laws included the following: Group Areas Act no 41 of 1950, the Bantu Authorities Act of 1951, the Group Areas Development Act of no 69 of 1955, the Separate Amenities Act no 49 of 1953, the Coloured Persons Act no 3 of 1961 and the Promotion of Bantu Self Government Act no 31 of 1961 (Behr, 1988: 14). The laws were based on racial discrimination and segregation. All Africans in SA and in the former homelands like Transkei were discriminated against and the respondents in this sample would have been subjected to discrimination in education. They would therefore fall in the group that would need the intervention.

4.2.1 Profiles of Principals

The following tables, 4.2(a) to table 4.2(o) below show the principals' biographical information and tables 4.2(k) to 4.2(o) show the cross tabulations on the same data.

Table 4.2 (a) Gender of Principals (n=33)

Gender	Frequency	Percent
Male	14	42%
Female	19	58%
Total	33	100%

Table 4.2(a) shows that the position of principal at the level of the current GET in this region was dominated by women who constituted 58%. This is in contrast to both the national patterns where management positions have historically been dominated by men. For example, according to Wolpe, Quinlan and Martinez (1997: 198):

Historically, women have been awarded very few promotion posts compared to men. The data from the years 1987 to 1991 for the African departments show that 8% of all female teachers held the position of principal. In 1994, statistics for teachers of all race groups showed only four percent of female teachers held the position of principal compared to 11 percent of male teachers.

The situation in the table above could mean that, because of the changes that have been taking place with respect to gender equity there are districts in the Transkei region of the EC in which the number of female principals has begun to exceed that of men. Secondly, Transkei is the region, where, according to Ngubentombi (1988: 255) a commission of inquiry had recommended that in primary schools “inclusion of more women teachers in the promotion lists to principalship and vice principalship”. So in this situation the previous attempts by the Transkei government to promote women into senior positions and the current Gender Equity policy must have combined to produce this situation in this part of the EC. The views of respondents would be expected to vary according to gender. The preponderance of female principals in this sample would be expected to have an effect on how the IP would be viewed generally. This is because the way females view and do things tends to differ from that of males. For example, a study conducted by Shautz (1995: 1) in the province of Ontario, Canada involving 519 female school principals and administrators found that female principals tended to derive more personal satisfaction from their work than men; exerted more control over teachers’ professional activities; and had a greater understanding of what was taking place in the classrooms than men. It would be expected that the fact that most of the principals were women would have an effect on the implementation of the IP.

Table 4.2(b) Principals' Teaching Experience (n=33)

Teaching experience	Frequency	Percent
1-5 years	0	0%
6-10 years	0	0%
11-15 years	4	12%
16-20 years	6	18%
Over 20 years	23	70%
Total	33	100%

Table 4.2 (b) shows the majority of principals who participated in the IP had lengthy teaching experience. For example, 70 % had teaching experience of more than 20 years and 18% had teaching experience of between 16 and 20 years. They would thus be expected to have a major positive impact in supporting their teachers during the implementation of the IP. Although it is not always the case, it is usually expected that lengthy experience is accompanied by wide experience. One of the personal qualities that the principal must have in order to be able to implement the changes successfully is wide teaching experience, sound knowledge of educational management and good general knowledge of other disciplines (Westhuizen, 1996: 153). It may be that the more teaching experience a principal has, the higher the capacity to understand and implement changes. However, the situation at hand might contradict Westhuizen's observation in that it involves many principals with teaching experience of between 16 and 20 years who underwent their teacher training during the 1980s. The 1980s were a period of protest and turmoil in South Africa when the collapse of the "culture of teaching and learning" in schools reached its climax (Christie, 1991). Such collapse was coupled with the erosion of professional attitudes on the part of teachers and loss of respect for the boundaries of time and space that led to irregular school attendance and poor ethics. Students were exposed to poor pedagogies such as rote learning in an authoritarian environment and undemocratic ways of teaching. Society under apartheid tended to be rigid. Blacks were to be educated to serve as cheap labour in a white ruled and dominated society, and teachers were not meant to produce creative and critical thinkers (Davis, 1991; Christie & Collins, 1991). For this reason, those who qualified as teachers and principals during the 1980s through to 1994 may not have learnt how to operate in a

systematic, knowledgeable and well organized teaching and learning environment. The schools under study belonged to the group of EC rural schools that suffered, and still continues in the new dispensation to suffer, setbacks in curriculum reform as a result of the problems mentioned. With this background, it is therefore unclear whether the teaching experience that the principals would bring into the teaching and learning situation during the implementation of the IP would be of much use and relevance for transformation. The IP is supposed to capacitate principals to transform teaching and learning in their schools in three years of intermittent in-service training, monitoring and support. I believe that the effects of years of poor quality of Black education under apartheid were deep and therefore any transformation process would take very long to achieve. For this reason, a lot more time than three years of in-service training, monitoring, support and money would have to be invested in the principals to transform them before they could be fully entrusted with the process of overseeing the transformation of teaching and learning in their schools. For the sustainability of any transformation of teaching and learning in the situation envisaged the education department should take over and enhance the transformation processes initiated by the IP in terms of training, monitoring and support, assuming that the expertise is available. Slavin, Dolan and Madden (1994: 4) with respect to Success for All, noted that the programme required a great deal of professional development done over an extended period of time.

The views of the principals and teachers about the extent to which the IP helped the principals to improve their schools and to implement a transformation agenda will be discussed in the next chapter.

Table 4.2(c) Highest Positions held before Principalship (n=33)

Position	Frequency	Percent
Deputy principal	9	27%
Head of Department	7	21%
Teacher/educator	17	52%
Total	33	100%

Table 4.2(c) shows that 27 % of the respondents had been deputy principals before being appointed as principals, 21% had been heads of departments and a large percentage, 52 % had been ordinary teachers. This is very significant as it implies that the majority of principals, i.e. 52% had had no management experience whatsoever when they assumed the position of principalship as they had neither been HODs nor deputy principals. This could be attributed to the Employment Equity Legislation (1998) and the DoE fast tracking women into managerial positions as well as the initiatives taken by the then Transkei government mentioned above. Even though most of these principals would not have gone through the ranks, it means most of them had been promoted on the basis of long teaching service as shown in table 4.2 (b) above. The existing principal corps was unlikely to have been well suited to guide the process of transformation but, on the other hand, was in need of training such as IP offered.

Table 4.2(d) Experience as Principal (n=33)

Years of Experience	Frequency	Percent
1-5 years	6	18.2%
6-10 years	9	27.3%
11-15 years	7	21.2%
16-20 years	5	15.2%
over 20 years	5	15.2%
Missing	1	3.0%
Total	33	100%

Table 4.2 (d) shows that a large percentage of principals, 78.9% had experience of more than 5 years as principals and 51% had experience of more than 10 years when the IP started. The table shows that 18.2% had experience of between 1 and 5 years, 27.3% had experience of between 6 and 10 years, 21.2% had experience of between 11 and 15 years, 15.2% had experience of between 16 and 20 years and 15.2% had experience of over 20 years.

Whereas this could indicate accumulation of education management knowledge, the relevance of that experience for education transformation and change management in

the new SA dispensation remains a question. However, knowledge of the physical, technical conditions and environment of the school or knowledge of the communities around the school would be a strong basis for the implementation of the IP. One of the reasons given by principals, according to Westhuizen (1996: 147), for why they often do not succeed in implementing the changes was lack of administrative knowledge and inadequate leadership. The fact that 51% of the principals had experience of more than 10 years meant that most of them had the necessary administrative knowledge and experience in terms of the number of years of service. However, education management in the 1970s and 1980s occurred under very authoritarian models of leadership characterised by non-participatory decision-making approaches and the suppression of critical thinking. Consequently, some of this experience might be an obstruction to transformation. Some experienced principals could, for example, have a negative attitude towards the new education policies which they might perceive as enforcing a new way of doing things as will be seen in the next chapter. Underlying this negativity could be insecurity as the desired changes could be viewed by the older principals as a negation of all the “experience” they believe themselves to have accumulated over time.

It might be assumed that some of these subjects would welcome or reject transformation as a radical departure from the previous political dispensation. Those critical of the very system that they were forced to operate under as education managers in the past, would be likely to welcome the IP as an alternative approach to education. It is those who identified with the previous authoritarian system who were most likely to resist transformation.

Table 4.2(e) Capacity as Principal (n=33)

Capacity	Frequency	Percent
Acting	2	06%
Permanent	31	94%
Total	33	100%

Table 4.2 (e) shows the majority of principals (94%) was employed in a permanent capacity and only 2% were in acting positions. This could be an advantage as it was

likely to give the principals confidence in taking decisions and implementing innovations. A principal who was in an acting capacity would find it difficult to take final decisions regarding the IP as s/he would probably feel that s/he did not have the mandate to do so and might not be the one who would have to implement them in future.

Table 4.2(f) Principals' Age Group (n=33)

Respondents' Age Group	Frequency	Percent
Less than 25 years	0	0%
26-35 years	1	3.0%
36-45 years	14	42.4%
46-55 years	11	33.3%
56-65 years	7	21.2%
Total	33	100.0%

The age group of 36 to 45 years seems to be the best for a country to invest in terms of training because principals belonging to this age group still have a lot of contribution to make to the profession. This can, to a large extent, also be said with regard to the age group of 46 to 55 years. That most of the principals were in these age groups was important. It implies that even if they were to be promoted to higher levels (Education Development Officers) they would still be of benefit to teacher development and be able to use the knowledge and skills acquired from the IP for the benefit of the schools long enough before their retirement at age 65.

Looked at from the position of the IP, investing in the training of principals who are close to retirement would be a waste of resources as they would soon leave their positions without having had enough time not only to put to practice the new management skills but also to share them with other staff members immediately below them.

Table 4.2(g) and table 4.2(h) present principals' academic and professional qualifications respectively.

Table 4.2(g) Principals' Highest Academic Qualifications (n=33)

Academic level	Frequency	Percent
Matric	23	69.7%
Bachelor's degree	6	18.2%
Honours degree	4	12.1%
Masters degree	0	00%
Doctors' degree	0	00%
Total	33	100%

Table 4.2 (g) shows that most respondents, 69.7%, had matric as their highest academic qualification, while 18.2% had a bachelor's degree and 12.1% had an honours degree.

Matric was a basic requirement for doing a three-year and later four-year teacher qualification at the primary and junior secondary school level (the current GET level). The fact that nearly three quarters of the principals only had matric implied that most did not have an adequate academic qualification for teaching. This qualification was grossly inadequate for principals. Although this study did not particularly seek to examine the relationship of academic training to job performance it seems fair to speculate that the very low levels of academic qualification amongst these principals would in the first instance have contributed to the poor delivery of quality education and secondly have militated against the success of IP.

In the Transkei region of the EC post-matric students from poor families who could not afford to go to university ended up in colleges of education where they automatically qualified for a bursary on admission. In addition, most of the students who went to the colleges of education usually did not gain admission to the university as they had not obtained matric exemption. Therefore, if one combines the poor quality of the schools from which they attained their matric and the fact that most of them had not attained university entrance, one would easily doubt the quality of the

matric qualification of this cohort of principals. The consistently low matric pass rates of the Eastern Cape as shown in chapter 1 table 1.1 seems to reflect this legacy. The quality deficit reflected by this legacy of poor quality at the lower and senior primary as well as junior has a negative impact at the senior secondary level. In addition, this legacy of poor quality would be expected to have a negative effect on the implementation of an intervention such as the IP.

Table 4.2 (h) Principals' Professional Qualifications (n=33)

Prof. Qualification	Frequency	Percent
PTD	4	12.1%
PTC	13	39.4%
JSTC	4	12.1%
STD	9	27.3%
SSTD	2	06.1%
PGDE	1	03.0%
Total	33	100%

Table 4.2 (h) shows that most (39.4%) of the principals had PTC as their highest professional certificate, 27.3% had STD, 12.1% had PTD, and 12.1% had JSTC, 6.1% had SSTD and 3.0% had PGDE. A professional qualification is gained after special training for professional service. PTC used to be the old two-year professional qualification that was taken after the Junior Certificate. This was discontinued in the 1980s. The PTD qualified one to teach in the primary school and was done after passing matric. It involved 4 years of training as a teacher. A person who teaches at the primary school, secondary school or college of education level without a professional teacher qualification is regarded as professionally unqualified.

Cross tabulations were used to show the relationships between variables.

- gender and age,
- gender and teaching experience,
- gender and experience as principal
- gender and academic qualifications
- gender and professional qualifications

Thus, tables 4.2(i) to 4.2 (g) show the cross tabulations on principals' data.

Table 4.2(i) Gender by Age group (n=33)

Age-group

Gender	Less 25	26-35	36-45	46-55	56-65	Totals	Percent
Male		1 3.0%	8 24.2%	2 6.1%	3 9.1%	14	42.4%
Female			5 15.2%	10 30.3%	4 12.1%	19	57.6%
Total		1	13	12	7	33	100

Table 4.2 (i) shows that females constituted 57.6% of whom 15.2% were in the 36-45 age group, while 30.3% were in the 46-55 age group and 12.1% were in the 56-65 age group. In terms of the IP it would seem judicious to invest resources on the 36-45 age group of the working force to enhance capacity. At the same time, the 46-55 age group, which constitutes the majority of females, is also worthy of investing in, since they still have many years of service to offer. Males formed 42.4% of the teaching force of whom 3.0% were in the 26-35 age group, 24.2% were in the 36-45 age group, 6.1 % were in the 46-55 age group. Most of the male principals below age 55 (33.3%), like their female counterparts below 55 (45.5%) would still have many years of service to offer and therefore the IP resources spent on them would be of much use for education for many years to come.

Table 4.2(j) Gender by Teaching Experience (n=33)

Teaching Experience

Gender	1-5 years	6-10	11-15	16-20	>20	Total
Male			4 12.1%	3 9.1%	6 18.2%	13 39.4%
Female				3 9.1%	17 51.5%	20 60.6%
Total			4 12.1%	6 18.2%	23 69.7%	33 100%

Table 4.2(j) shows that female principal have much more experience than their male counterparts. While 51% of female principals had experience of 20 years and above, only 18.2% of male principals were in this category. This was consistent with the correction of gender discrimination prevalent at the time in most spheres of life in the EC and in SA as a whole, where it was easy for a male teacher to get promotion with less demands than for his female counterpart.

As mentioned in section 1.2.1 power relations were extremely male-dominated and a conscious decision had to be made to ensure that females were considered for promotion. This is evident in the decision made by the Report of the Commission of Inquiry into Education in the Republic of Transkei which submitted its findings to the then Transkei Government in November 1979. The commission made the following recommendation in respect of primary schools: “inclusion of more women teachers in the promotion lists to principalships and vice principalships of primary schools” (Behr, 1988: 253). The reason for this recommendation was prompted by the identified need to reverse the prevailing discrimination against women regarding promotions. This decision shows that the Bantustans were not always just dumping grounds for the unemployed; but on occasion gave the local governments a chance to take independent decisions and produce policies which were ahead of their time.

Table 4.2(k) Gender by Experience as Principal (n=33)

Experience as Principal

Gender	1-5 years	6-10	11-15	16-20	> 20	TOTAL
Male	3 9.1	4 12.1%	3 9.1%	2 6.1%	2 6.1%	14 42.5%
Female	3 9.1%	5 15.1%	5 15.1%	3 9.1%	3 9.1%	19 57.5%
Total	6 18.2%	9 27.2%	8 24.2%	5 15.2%	5 15.2%	33 100%

Table 4.2(k) shows that the female teachers had more experience as principals. The table shows that 9.1% of both males and female respondents had experience of 1-5 years; 12.1% males and 15.1% females had experience of 6-10 years; 9.1% males and 15.1% females had experience of 11-15 years; 6.1% males and 9.1% females had experience of 16-20 years; and 6.1% males and 9.1% females had experience of over 20 years. The largest percentage for both groups had experience of 6-10 years of principalship. After 10 years the table shows that some kind of attrition kicks in to diminish the cohort of principals diminishing the prospects of a longer service.

Table 4.2(l) Gender by Academic qualifications (n=33)

Gender	Matric	B. Degree	Hon degree	TOTAL
Male	8 24.2%	3 9.1%	3 9.1%	14 42.4%
Female	15 45.5%	3 9.1%	1 3.0%	19 57.6%
Total	23 69.7%	6 18.2%	4 12.1%	33 100%

Table 4.2 (l) shows that female teachers are less well qualified than male by a large margin. The table shows that 24.2% of the male respondents and 45.5% of the female respondents had matric; 9.1% of both males and females had Bachelor's degree; 9.1% of males and 3.0% of females had honours degrees. In both groups therefore, the majority of respondents had matric as the highest academic qualification. While the percentage of both males and females having the bachelor's degree is the same, the percentage of females going for senior degrees is lower than that of males, although in numerical terms, the difference is not great - three males and one female have higher degrees. Nevertheless, the smaller number of women with higher degrees might be explained by women shouldering family responsibilities where they are expected to attend to household duties more than their male counterparts. It could also be linked to the cultural socialization mentioned earlier (Wolpe, et al, 1997).

Table 4.2(m) Gender by Professional qualifications (n=33)

Professional qualifications

Gender	PTD	PTC	JSTC	STD	SSTD	UED	HED	PGDE	TOTAL
Male	1 3.0%	4 12.1%	1 3.0%	7 21.2%	0	0	0	1 3.0%	14 42.3%
Female	4 12.1%	8 24.2%	1 3.0%	3 9.1%	2 6.1%	0	1 3.0%	0	19 57.5%
Total	5 15.1%	12 36.3%	2 6.0%	10 30.3%	2 6.1%	0	1 3.0%	1 3.0%	33 100%

Table 4.2(m) shows that there is little difference between male and female in that all had a professional qualification. This means that the difference in professional qualification between male and female teachers is not a significant variable. However, it shows that PTC and PTD were dominated by females which meant that in terms of professional training, females had lower qualifications.

A good proportion of the female respondents (24.2%) had PTC, as against 12.1 % of the male respondents holding the same qualification; 21.2% of male respondents had STD as against 9.1% of female respondents; 12.1% females had PTD while only 3.0% males had the same professional qualification. From the table one learns that most females tended to do PTC and PTD while most males were inclined to do STD. PTD and PTC were meant for the then lower primary section which was dominated by females. It suggests that females seem to dominate at the level of the very young learners like PTD, PTC and even BA in primary education. Young learners are known to require patience and it is generally accepted that females have the patience to deal with them whereas many males do not. Since young learners are found in the lower classes of the primary school, it follows that there should be far more females than male teachers at this level (Wolpe et al, 1997: 197).

4.2.2 Profile of Teachers

The following section presents a data analysis of questionnaires that I administered to a sample of those primary school teachers who participated in the IP. Management involves working through and with people and in a school situation the principal works through and with teachers. So the teachers are in a better position to provide evidence about their principals' management practices and styles.

The first section of the teachers' questionnaire sought biographical information presented below in tables 4.2 (n) to table 4.2 (q). These teachers were those who attended the IP training and thus, together with their principals had the responsibility for the implementation of the IP intervention and thus held its success and failure in their hands.

Table 4.2(n) Gender of teachers (n=119)

Gender	Frequency	Percent
Male	17	14.3%
Female	102	85.7%
Total	119	100%

Table 4.2 (n) shows that that most of the teachers in this sector in the region were females. 14.3% of those teachers that were selected for the IP training, the so-called key teachers, were males and 85.7% were females. This situation is an exaggerated version of the national picture which shows that the GET sector tends to be dominated by women. In Transkei, for example, out of the fourteen (14) colleges offering the four-year Primary Teachers Diploma, four were meant for females only. This preponderance of females therefore was bound to reflect in the schools. This situation is the same as the one that prevails at national level, namely, that 68% of all teachers in SA (in 1995) were females and 32% males (Wolpe, et al, 1997: 198). Among African teachers in primary schools 73.5% were women and 26.5 are males (Ibid: 82).

Table 4.2(o) Position held at the school by key teachers (n=119)

Position	Frequency	Percent
Deputy Principal	1	0.8%
Head of department	23	19.3%
Educator	92	77.3%
Missing	3	2.5%
Total	119	100%

Table 4.2 (o) shows that very few of the key teachers 20.1% (0.8%+19.3%) had real authority to influence other teachers as they were heads of departments (HOD). This was important for the monitoring of the implantation at the school level on a daily basis. The majority of these key teachers, 77.3% were ordinary teachers. This was because teachers who were selected for training did not have to hold administrative positions to participate in the IP. This was bound to affect both the implementation of the IP and the sustainability of the changes that were introduced.

The selection of teachers for training did not target the HODs. They therefore had to be trained by teachers in the IP activities in the school. The HODs are responsible for supervising teaching and learning in their departments and should, therefore, be in a position to oversee the implementation of changes in teaching and learning in their departments. The fact that they were not trained meant that they were weakened and would have to depend on their subordinates for information regarding the IP activities. They thus had no way of ensuring that any changes included were implemented and were not abandoned. This is significant because it was likely to influence the sustainability of the changes implemented through the IP. The next chapter will shed light on the views of teachers and principals about how the selection or non-selection of HODs for training would have influenced the implementation of changes in teaching and learning.

Table 4.2 (p) Teaching experience of Teachers (n=119)

Teaching experience	Frequency	Percent
1-5 years	3	2.5%
6-10 years	42	35.3%
11-15 years	19	16.0%
16-20 years	13	10.9%
over 20 years	41	34.5%
Missing	1	0.8%
Total	119	100%

Table 4.2 (p) shows that a large percentage of teachers, 61.4%, had teaching experience of over 10 years while 34.5% had experience of more than 20 years. As already mentioned, those teachers who had experience of 10 years and above were trained in the early 1980s, at the height of the students' uprisings. In this climate respect for the boundaries of time and space were lowest and the culture of teaching and learning suffered severely. The experience of ten years and above (coupled with maturity) could mean that these teachers could contribute to effective implementation of the IP intentions or designs as well as their own staff development intentions. While this experience could be a positive thing for the success of the IP, it could well be that the IP programmes were introduced to cohorts who had become disenchanted with the whole process of education and would thus be less than enthusiastic in the implementation of what the IP proposed as beneficial changes. The lack of sufficient, positive professional attitudes could easily be carried into the current situation. The current situation which began in the early 1990s spawned cohorts of less than ten years experience who presumably would be more amenable to change since they would have undergone teacher training when there were already signs of change as evident in the reports of the National Education Policy Investigation in 1990 to 1992 (Lemon, 2004; Hyslop, 1992). Although these teachers in most instances may have lacked the experience and seniority to be forceful and to lead the implementation, the training and the follow-up monitoring and support by the trainers that was planned would help give them the confidence to do so.

Table 4.2 (q) Teachers' Age groups (n=119)

Age group	Frequency	Percent
Less than 25 years	2	1.7%
26-35 years	40	33.6%
36-45 years	43	36.1%
46-55 years	28	23.5%
56-65 years	6	5.0%
Total	119	100%

Table 4.2 (q) shows that most of the teachers (93.2%) were between 26 and 55 years of age. Only 1.7% of the respondents were less than 25 years in age; and only 5% were belonged to the age group of between 56 and 65 years. The fact that there are few teachers in the group of teachers who are less than 25 years may be explained by the fact that colleges of education were closed down in 1999. Normally, most learners would complete matric at about 19 years of age and spend 4 years at the colleges of education. When the questionnaires were administered in 2002 these last groups of teachers from the colleges of education would have been working for 2 years. In addition, failure and repetition rates in rural schools of Transkei have always been high. The factors mentioned could explain why the percentage of teachers below 25 is low. The table also shows that 69.7% of the teachers were between 26 and 45 years. These seem to be the best cohorts of the age groups for a country to invest in, in terms of training, because they still have a lot of contribution to make to the profession. This can, also, to a large extent, be said with regard to the age group of 46 to 55 years to which 23.5% of the teachers belonged. This means that their IP training was a worthy investment as many teachers still had many years of service ahead. People who are nearing retirement tend to ignore changes whereas those who still have many years of service to offer often feel obliged to focus. The fact that many people were far from retirement meant that many would be obliged to adopt a positive or at least a less hostile attitude towards the IP.

Tables 4.2(r) and 4.2 (s) present the teachers academic and professional qualifications.

Table 4.2 (r) Teachers' Highest Academic Qualifications (n=119)

Highest academic Qualification	Frequency	Percent
Matric	74	62.2%
Bachelors degree	20	16.8%
Honours degree	5	4.2%
Masters degree	0	0%
Other (specify)	12	10.1%
Missing	8	6.7%
Total	119	100%

Table 4.2 (r) shows that most respondents, 62.2% had matric as their highest academic qualification, while 16.8% had a bachelor's degree, and 4.2% had an honours degree and 10.1% had other qualifications such as the Diploma in Education (DipEd).

Matric was an entrance requirement to the three-year and four-year teacher qualifications that trained teachers for the primary and junior secondary school levels. The fact that most teachers, 62.2%, had matric, therefore, implied that they could handle content at these levels. As already mentioned, most of the students admitted to the colleges of education in Transkei had obtained a school leaving certificate. The pre-requisite for their admission was a good pass symbol in English and a major subject and not the aggregate symbol. This means that generally the quality of the students admitted to the colleges was not high. The subject content taught at the colleges was also very low. At the same time, as mentioned in chapter 1, section 1.3 the quality of in-service was poor. In the light of this one would expect the quality of teaching and learning in the primary and secondary schools to be low. Due to the shortage of teachers with degrees some of the teachers with matric from the colleges of education were employed in the senior secondary schools. The primary sector lays a foundation for the secondary sector. It is therefore not surprising that the quality of education in the Transkei as reflected in the matric results has continued to be low.

Most of the teachers in the primary schools who had the responsibility of implementing the IP belonged to this cohort of teachers from the colleges of education. This would mean that the implementation of the IP, especially in the classroom situation, would be weak unless continuous in-service, monitoring and support was offered. Because the IP, like most externally funded projects, was tied to a three-year cycle continuous in-service and support could only be possible if its activities were institutionalized within the ECDE structures “to ensure the sustainability and continuity of activities and systems after project closure” (ECSECC, 2001: 57).

Table 4.2(s) Teachers’ Professional Qualifications (n=119)

Professional qualifications	Frequency	Percent
PTD	35	29.4%
PTC	26	21.8%
JSTC	5	4.2%
SSTC	1	0.8%
STD	29	24.4%
SSTD	2	1.7%
UED	2	1.7%
HED	5	4.2%
HDE	5	4.2%
PGDE	1	0.8%
Missing	1	0.8%
Other	7	5.9%
Total	119	100%

Tables 4.2 (s) shows that most (29.4%) of the teachers (respondents) had PTD as their highest professional certificate, 21.8% had PTC, 24.4% had STD, 4.2% had JSTC, HED, and HDE, 1.7% had SSTD and UED and 0.8% had PGDE. As mentioned earlier PTC was a professional qualification that was done after the old junior certificate. The fact that a high percentage of 21.8% of the teachers had PTC implies that this particular cohort of teachers probably did matric through correspondence.

This would cast doubt on the quality of their matric results since it implies that their command of the subject content could be very low. This would influence the implementation of the IP and would demand more resources in terms of time and money for continuous training, monitoring and support to ensure sustainability of any changes that would have been introduced through the IP.

Cross tabulations were used to show the relationships between:

- gender and age,
- gender and teaching experience,
- gender and experience as principal
- gender and academic qualifications
- gender and professional qualifications

Thus, tables 4.2 (t) to 4.2 (x) show the cross tabulations on teachers' data.

Table 4.2 (t) Gender by Age group

Age-group (n=119)

Gender	< 25	26-35	36-45	46-55	56-65	Totals	Percent
Male	0	9 7.6%	5 4.2%	6 5.0%	0	20	16.8
Female	4 3.4%	29 24.4%	35 29.4%	24 20.2%	7 5.9%	99	83.2
Total	4 3.4%	38 32.0%	40 33.6%	30 25.2%	7 5.9%	119	100%

Table 4.2 (t) shows that of the 119 teachers who participated in the study, 99 (83.2%) were females. This confirms the view that teaching was a female dominated profession but in this case, it was even more heavily dominated by women than the national average which was just below 70%. The table shows that 53.8% of the females were between 26 and 45 years of age. A working force of the 36-45 age group is appropriate for a country to invest in, in terms of training because they still have a long service to offer. While the 46-55 age group which constitutes 20.2% of the females is not very young, it is still relatively safe to invest in with regard to the

number of years they are likely to put into the service. Of the 20 (16.8%) male respondents, 11.8% were between 26 and 45 year of age. The fact that women dominate at all age groups is consistent with the fact that the primary, senior primary and even the junior secondary sector were dominated by women as discussed in table 4.1 (a) and 4.1 (n).

Table 4.2 (u) Gender by Teaching Experience
Teaching Experience (n=119)

Gender	1-5 years	6-10	11-15	16-20	>20	Total
Male	1 0.8%	8 6.7%	3 2.5%	1 0.8%	5 4.2%	18 15.1%
Female	2 1.7%	33 27.7%	18 15.1%	12 10.1%	36 30.25%	101 84.9%
Total	3 2.5%	41 34.5%	21 17.7%	13 10.9%	41 34.5%	119 100%

Table 4.2 (u) shows that the females overall had more teaching experience than males. Of the 119 respondents 18 were males and 101 were females. Of the 18 males, 6.7% had experience of between 6 and 10 years, 2.5% had experience of between 11 and 15 years, and 4.2% had experience of over 20 years. Of the 101 females, 27.7% had experience of between 6 and 10 years, 15.1% had experience of between 11 and 15 years, 10.1% had experience of between 16 and 20 years and 30.25% had experience of more than 20 years. Thus, those teachers who had experience of 10 years and more were bringing in experience from the 1980s which, as already mentioned, would demand more investment of time and money for intensive training, monitoring, conscientisation as well as patience. More than a third of all the teachers (mostly women), had more than 20 years teaching experience, that is, were very experienced. This might mean that they were set in their ways or it might mean they knew the schooling system well and were well placed to make improvements via the IP.

Table 4.2 (v) Gender by Academic qualifications (n=119)**Academic qualification**

Gender	Matric	B. Degree	Hon degree	Other	Missing	Total
Male	11 9.2%	2 1.7%	0 00	4 3.4%	0	17 14.3%
Female	64 53.8%	18 15.1%	5 4.2%	8 6.7%	7 5.9%	102 85.7%
Total	75 63.0%	20 16.8%	5 4.2%	12 10.1%	7 5.9%	119 100%

Table 4.2 (v) shows that women were better qualified than their male counterparts. Of the 17 male respondents, 9.2% had matric, 1.7% had Bachelor's degrees and 3.4% had other qualifications. Of the 102 female respondents, 53.8% had matric, 15.1% had Bachelors' degrees, 4.2% had honours degrees and 6.7% had other qualifications. The fact that more females than men have senior degrees may be explained by the fact that educational opportunities have started opening up for them and they are encouraged to further their studies by the prospects of promotion.

Table 4.2 (x) Gender by Professional Qualifications (n=119)**Professional Qualification**

Gender	PTD	PTC	JSTC	STD	SSTD	UED	HED	HDE	PGDE	Other	TOTAL
Male	2 1.7%	5 4.2%	0	8 6.7%	0	0	0	1 0.8%	0	1 0.8%	17 14.3%
Female	31 26.0%	20 16.8%	6 5.0%	17 14.3%	6 5.0%	2 1.7%	5 4.2%	5 4.2%	1 0.8%	9 7.6%	102 85.7%
Total	33 27.7%	25 21%	6 5.0%	25 21%	6 5%	2 1.7%	5 4.2%	6 5%	1 0.8%	10 8.4%	119 100%

Table 4.2 (x) shows that there are no significant differences in the training, as measured by professional qualification, among males and females. However, the

table shows that most females tended to do PTC and PTD while males were inclined to do STD.

Gender is an important when considering the role that teachers play in school efficiency and transformation. In the first place, the number of female teachers far exceeds that of males. In the second place, the female teachers in this study were older, more experienced and better qualified. Although there is no necessary link between gender and teacher style or performance, in a research that she conducted, Shakeshaft (1989) found that women have a more consultative and tolerant management and teaching style. The fact that the majority of the teachers in this sample were females may well have benefited the implementation of the IP intervention.

The section below presents the profiles of the parent members of the school governing bodies who underwent the IP training. One of the objectives of the IP was to assist the transformation goal of decentralizing decision making and promoting democracy. Insofar as governance and management was concerned, IP sought to enhance community involvement in the development, support and security of primary schools. SGB members, together with the principals, were therefore trained in this area, because, according to the SASA they were responsible for governance and management. The principal is a member of the SGB and is responsible for professional management of the school. One of her responsibilities is to manage the relationships between the school and the community. The success of the IP was also dependent on the relationship between the principal and the community, namely, the SGB and the parents, among others. So the SGB members are in a better position to provide evidence about their principals' management practices and styles. The views of the SGB members were therefore important in this study and will be explored in more detail in the next chapter.

4.2.3 Profiles of members of school governing bodies

The following tables 4.2 (y) to 4.2 (ac) present the profile of the members of the SGBs. When I went to the schools to distribute questionnaires I discovered that most of the SGB members were functionally illiterate. They therefore could not fill in the questionnaire and even those who could write were reluctant to fill it in. I therefore had to ask them to give me the information and I filled it in myself. This information was very limited. With the members of the SGB therefore I used mainly interviews.

Table 4.2 (y) Gender of SGBs (n=8)

Gender	Frequency	Percent
Male	8	100%
Female	0	0%
Total	8	100%

Table 4.2 (y) shows that all the all 8 members of the SGBs interviewed were males. The principals and teachers, on the other hand, were largely female. This had implications for how IP was implemented and may well have generated gender tensions which would affect the implementation of the IP. Instances of these tensions will be cited in the next chapter. The fact that SGB chairpersons were largely male and functionally illiterate and had to deal largely with female principals in positions of authority and female teachers as members of the SGB presented a serious challenge to the successful implementation and success of the IP, particularly regarding governance and management of finances.

Five of these SGB members belonged to the cluster of schools that was used for the interviews to be discussed in chapter 5. Selection for IP training targeted chairpersons of the SGBs. As a result the people who were trained were chairpersons except where s/he was not available in which case the deputy chairperson attended the training. The fact that all the SGB members in this sample were men may suggest that most chairpersons of the SGBs were male. This is because this study only targeted those SGB members who attended the training. The chairpersons had the responsibility of cascading the information to the other members of the SGB.

Table 4.2 (z) Position in SGB Committee (n=8)

Position	Frequency	Percentage
Chairperson	6	75%
Deputy chairperson	2	25%
Total	8	100%

Table 4.2 (z) shows that 6 (75%) of the respondents were holding the position of chairpersons and 2 (25%) were deputy chairpersons of the SGBs. The fact that most of the respondents were chairpersons or their deputies was guided by the design of the IP. As mentioned above the chairpersons were targeted for training. The fact that most of the respondents were top officials of the governing bodies meant that that they would be in a position of authority to ensure implementation the knowledge acquired during the IP training. However, the fact that the chairpersons were male and had been brought up to believe in patriarchal values that gave them a sense of entitlement in relation to women posed a challenge to the harmonious relationship with female principals, teachers and SGB members. This relationship may well have limited the impact of the IP.

Table 4.2(aa) Experience as SGB member (n=8)

Experience	Frequency	Percent
1- 5 years	8	100%
6-10 years	0	0%
11-15 years	0	0%
16-20 years	0	0%
Total	8	100%

Table 4.2 (aa) shows that all the respondents had experience of between 1 and 5 years as SGB members. The SGB committee had just been introduced through the Schools Act (1996) and these were therefore the first group of SGBs elected in terms of the Act. However, some had functioned as members of the school committees that were mentioned in chapter 1. Therefore, while the conditions under which they worked

were different in the sense that the Schools Act gave them more authority; they had been involved with schools before.

Table 4.2(ab) SGBs' Age-Group (N=8)

Age group	Frequency	Percentage
Less than 25 years	0	0%
26-35 years	1	12.5%
36-45 years	1	12.5%
46-55 years	0	0%
56-65 years	3	37.5%
66-75 years	3	37.5%
Total	8	100%

Table 4.2 (ab) shows that 1 (12.5%) of the respondents was in the 26-35 age group, 1 (12.5%) in the 36-45 age group, 3 (37.5%) in the 56-65 age group, and 3 (37.5%) were in the 66-75 age group. Most of the SGB members were mature enough to handle the work in terms of age but as will be discussed below, the older members tended to have very low levels of formal education. The older members seemed to be politically mature having been exposed to the struggles and discrimination of the apartheid regime for a long time as well as the Bantustan era, which, although it offered better life for many, had its own political challenges. On the other hand, as people get older they tend to be less inclined to change and are also inclined to resist younger people in authority who attempt to force change as witnessed in cases of generational conflict in the recent past (Campbell, 1992).

Table 4.2 (ac) shows the academic qualifications of the SGB members.

Table 4.2(ac) Academic qualifications (n=8)

Academic level	Frequency	Percentage
Less than JC	6	75.0%
Junior certificate	1	12.5%
Matric	1	12.5%
Bachelor's degree	0	0%
Total	8	100%

Table 4.2 (ac) shows that SGB members were lowly schooled. One (12.5%) of the respondents had JC and 1 had matric. The remaining six had the old primary school qualifications, which were distributed as follows: 1 had Std 1, 2 had Std 3, 1 had Std 4, and 2 had Std 6. Of these, 3 were in the 66-75 age group, 2 in the 56- 65 age group and one in the 26-35 age groups. The respondent who had JC was in the 56-65 age groups and the one with matric was in the 36-45 age groups. None of the SGB members had any form of professional qualification. The one with matric had a Diploma in ABET. My experience is that SGB members who are better educated tend to clash with principals, especially those with more experience and older, and therefore negative towards change. Such a situation therefore would lead to the failure of the IP as more energies and time would be spent on fighting. At the same time older and illiterate SGB members, if they don't agree with the principal tend to be inactive to avoid confrontation with the principals. This situation would not have benefited the IP either.

Table 4.2 (ac) shows that the level of formal education of the SGB members in most rural areas is very low. The level of formal education of the older members of the SGB seems to be lower than for those with slightly higher education levels.) The low level of formal education, which in many cases borders on illiteracy (because of the poor and disadvantaged environment in which the SGB members live) is identified by Maile (2002) as one of the reasons, especially in rural areas, for the inefficiency of school governing bodies. Maile notes that this low level of education precludes parents from accessing relevant management information from the principal. The low level of education could be remedied if the information on management could be made available to parents who lack formal education even in their own language. Without the relevant information the SGB members are unable to participate effectively in school governance. While Sayed & Carrim (1997: 91) note that tensions and contradictory notions of participation in SASA do not enhance participation and may exacerbate inequalities between Whites and Black, such inequalities are also likely to exist even between urban and rural Black SGBs. It should be remembered that the transformation agenda of SASA included ways of doing things that were often quite alien to people. A specific case in point is the abolition of corporal punishment. This form of punishment continues to be used and supported by teachers in defiance of the law and many parents, particularly African

parents, still make liberal use of corporal punishment as well (Morrell, 2001). While parents certainly would support improvements in the quality of education provided to their children it is much less certain that they would support the gamut of transformation measures included in the SAA and in the IP intervention. We cannot therefore assume that the relationship between parents (SGBs) and principals and teachers would have been harmonious in the process of the IP implementation.

4.3 PARTICIPANTS' VIEWS ON THE IMBEWU PROJECT

As mentioned earlier, although there were valid reasons to be optimistic about the IP, its impact has been perceived as limited and any successes that were gained in terms of changes do not seem to have been sustained. The first section of this chapter discussed the histories of the participants and how these and their accumulated experiences may have influenced the impact of the IP. In this section I describe which modules were attended variously by principals, teaches and SGB members and then I discuss their views about the IP training and how its nature and duration could have influenced its implementation. Next, I examine the views of role players about changes they may have experienced in their school management practices. Lastly, I discuss the contextual and educational factors that may have impacted on the implementation of the IP.

4.3.1 The Participants' involvement in the IP Training Programme

Most of the principals and teachers in the primary schools of the study area who had the responsibility of implementing the IP belonged to a cohort of teachers with a poor quality of training. The training modules were developed to target what were regarded as their weaknesses and needs to equip them to improve their schools.

According to the ANC (1994: 27) the relationship of principals with teachers and students, and their ability to work productively with the school community and the school governing bodies must be supported by an adequate programme of orientation and training and effective support services from the Provincial Education and Training authorities. As a provincial professional development programme, the IP therefore offered training to all participants in the schools to enable them to implement

the programme in their schools. For this reason, the first research question of this study sought to establish the participants' (teachers, principals and SGB members) views regarding the training they received from the IP programme. With certain modules and themes, such as vision crafting, managing change, transforming teaching and learning processes, developing and managing resources all school role players were trained together. This is in keeping with what Theron (1996: 148) suggest, that one of the prerequisites for successful management and implementation of transformational change is that training should be provided for those individuals who are to initiate and/or manage the change. According to Theron (1996: 148), change is a gradual process and thus requires the active engagement of the agents of change until the change has been fully assimilated into the school. This implies that the transformation of and provision of quality education in the selected schools through the IP could only be achieved through the training of the relevant role players. To comply with this the IP required teachers, school principals and SGB members to attend training together in those areas of management where the success of the school depended on their participation and co-operation.. Consequently, in addressing the first research question, 'Did the intervention provide adequate and quality training and orientation for school principals, teachers and members of the SGBs to enable principals to manage the tasks referred to above?'. Principals, teachers and in some instances, members of the SGBs were initially asked which IP modules they attended. Unfortunately, SGB responses were unclear so the table below will only indicate the attendance record of teachers and principals.

Table 4.3.1 (a) The number of participants attending various modules.

Responses	Principals (n=33)	Teachers (n=119)
1. Planning for whole school development	30 (91%)	0%
2. Financial management and control	29 (88%)	0%
3. Developing systems and processes for human resource productivity	26 (79%)	0%
4. Developing and managing relationships with the community	28 (85%)	0%
5. Transforming teaching and learning processes	26 (79%)	88 (73.9%)
6. Managing relations within the school	28 (85%)	88 (73.9%)
7. Vision crafting for school development	29 (88%)	93 (78.2%)
8. Managing material and physical resources	29 (88%)	82 (68.9%)
9. Managing change	29 (88%)	99 (83.2%)

Attendance rates for principals were, on average very high, peaking at 91% with the ‘Planning for whole school development’ module. Significantly, the lowest level of attendance was for the ‘transformation’ module (79%). Teachers were not invited to attend some modules as indicated above (0%) and while their attendance was below that of principals, nevertheless two thirds to three quarters of all teachers attended the modules. There are two ways to view these levels of attendance. The one way is to note that attendance was ‘compulsory’ and to note that figures less than 100% indicate a lack of enthusiasm or commitment. This may well have been the case with some individuals. The other way to view the figures is to note that many of the participants had to travel considerable distances (up to 50 kilometres, often on poor roads) to the workshops. A lack of school funds to pay for transport and inclement weather were thus likely to have impacted on attendance.

The higher levels of principal attendance can be explained by their having the resources to attend, but also by their commitment to and interest in improving school efficiency. The ‘management’ modules (modules 1-4 in the table above) coincided with the management areas that are included in SASA. The consistency between the EMD modules of the IP and the management areas in SASA suggest that the designers of the IP training programmes were guided by the policy. Therefore, the IP programme would serve to support and enhance the work of the ECDE in improving school efficiency.

4.3.1.1 The most beneficial aspects of the Imbewu Training

In the questionnaire, participants were asked “Which of the Imbewu ‘functions’ (modules) were the most beneficial?” Participants were invited to indicate as many of the modules as they wanted and, in the following question, were asked to motivate their answers. The question was designed to establish perceptions about the value of the training. Amongst the questions I was interested in were: did participants think that the training would improve their skills? help to create a more efficient school? Improve teacher and principal performance? Contribute to transforming the school?

The table below presents the responses of the principals and SGB members on the EMD modules (modules 1-4 in Table 4.3.1) in which they were trained together.

Table 4.3.1(b) The number of principals and SGB members (expressed as a %) who indicated which were the most beneficial aspects of Imbewu Training. (Multiple responses were permitted)

Aspects of Training	Principals (n=33)	SGB members (n=8)
Planning for whole school development	18 (55%)	1 (12.5%)
Financial management and control	18 (55%)	2 (25.0%)
Developing systems and processes for human resources productivity	12 (36%)	1 (12.5%)
Developing and managing relationships with the community	11 (33%)	5 (62.5%)

It can be expected that the extent to which the role players benefited from the training on the various modules would have had an effect on the success of the IP implementation

The table shows that in those aspects of management where principals and SGB members were trained together, principals seem to have benefited most except for management of relationships between the school and the community. If indeed principals benefited most, this would be expected to have contributed to the success of the IP in those particular areas of management. This is because the principal is, for a greater part, more important as a change agent than the SGB. The fact that the principals did not, according to the table, gain maximum benefit regarding relationships with the community is telling. It confirms that the democratization aspects of the transformation agenda were not all warmly supported by principals and that, specifically, principals did not welcome the need to work with SGBs who were often poorly informed about school matters yet had the power to influence school affairs. Put differently, principals were not happy to relinquish the powers they hitherto had had to make decisions nor were they convinced of the need to consult widely. The percentage may have reflected a negative attitude towards that particular aspect of change.

As the table shows, for all modules the differences between principals and SGBs are high. The percentages are higher for the principals in the first three modules (which they obviously found to be relatively useful) but not the last module (which involves developing democratic school governance and would have meant having to negotiate issues with the SGB which in turn would have meant a departure from earlier styles of autocratic management used by the principals). The higher percentages in the first three (school improvement) modules may be due to the fact that the principal is accountable for everything that happens in the school and has an investment in improving the quality of education in his/her school.

With regard to developing and managing relationships with the community the percentage for SGB members is almost double that of the principals. As mentioned in chapter 1, previously there were school committees who were not accorded the necessary respect by the principals because they were illiterate. In the new

dispensation the role that the SGBs have to play is specified through the SASA which has given them more power and responsibility. This was their first experience that they participated in the training and had begun to understand their role in the governance of the school and the relationship between the school and the community. They thus put more value on this aspect of the training. Understandably, principals were less enthusiastic about this aspect of the course as they did not want to have to consult SGBs which entailed more time and effort in an already difficult job.

Table 4.3.1(c) The number of principals, teachers and SGB members (measured in %) who identified various IP modules as beneficial (multiple responses were permitted).

Aspects of Training	Principals (n=33)	Teachers (n=119)	SGBs (n=8)
Managing change	16 (48%)	59 (49.6%)	1(12.5%)
Vision crafting for school development	14 (42%)	58 (48.7%)	2 (25 %)
Manging relationships with school	8 (24%)	16 (13.4%)	4 (50%)
Transforming teaching and learning	5 (15%)	52 (43.7%)	1 (12.5%)
Managing material and physical resources	4 (12 %)	22 (18.5%)	1(12.5%)

Table 4.3.1 (c) shows that the percentages of principals (48%) and teachers (49.6%) who found training in managing change beneficial are relatively high while that of SGB members (12.5%) it is much lower. ‘Managing change’ was a module that had immediate, practical application that was much more relevant for teachers and principals than for SGB members who are not involved in the day to day management of schools. In fact, the modules that received the highest endorsement from teachers and principals were those that engaged with immediate practical problems. The least support from principals was for the transformation module (‘Transforming teaching and learning processes’) because they are ambivalent about the more radical changes envisaged by ‘transformation’. On the other hand, teachers who tend to be younger than principals, who may have been imbued with the political visions articulated in anti-apartheid struggles and have more to gain from transformation (which will give teachers a greater say in the running of the school) found this module beneficial.

Less than half of the principals (42%) and of teachers (48.7%) found the training on vision crafting to be beneficial. While the 25% of SGB members who found vision crafting most beneficial is lower than for principals and teachers the difference is lower than it is with regard to the management of change. Vision crafting is a process in which all the stakeholders were to be equally involved and as indicated above, this may be because their role in the school has become more important and it was probably the first time that they had been trained and begun to understand their role in the governance of the school and in functions like vision crafting. The vision crafting module succeeded in bringing the role players together and getting them to determine what was the common need at a particular point in time which in many schools was visible through the building structures that were set up during the IP period. However, this particular activity did not seem to have survived even the three year period of the project.

The difference in the percentage of principals (24%) and teachers (13.4%) with regard to managing relationships within the school is understandable when one considers that although teachers are integral in the maintenance of relationships in the school, the principal is the most accountable for the smooth running of the school and for developing and maintaining relationships. The percentage of SGB members (50%) is higher than for the other two groups. This could be caused by their new prescribed role in the governance of the school which brought them closer to the teachers, the principal and the learners, that is, increased their involvement in the relationships within the school. Training in this area therefore should have made more impact on them than for principals and teachers who were being trained in areas that they were used to and grappled with on a daily basis.

Only a very small percentage of principals (15%) said they found transforming teaching and learning most beneficial compared with 43.7% of the teachers and 12.5% of the SGB members. One explanation for this discrepancy is that principals are not particularly supportive of a transformation agenda whereas the (younger) teachers are. Another possible explanation is that teachers grapple with real teaching and learning in the classroom situation on a daily basis while principals have to facilitate and manage teaching and learning on supervisory level and not on a daily basis. Therefore, any training in improving teaching and learning is more likely to benefit those who deal with it directly (teachers) than those who simply manage and facilitate it. An analysis of the data from

interviews in chapter 5 will shed more light on the views of the principals about this aspect of the training.

The small percentages of principals (12%), teachers (18.5%) and SGB members (12.5%) who said they found the training on managing material and physical resources beneficial are almost equal although the percentage for teachers (18.5%) is slightly higher. This suggests low levels of engagement or interest in these resources which may be explained by the fact that such resources are already in a poor state of repair and the resources necessary to fix them are not available. It is the parents who are primarily responsible for fund-raising to cover such costs and in poor schools parents have little capacity to do this.

The relatively low response rate concerning the beneficial impact of the modules raises questions about the delivery of the modules as well as the quality of the training or the follow-up support that was supposed to be provided to the respondents in their work places. It also causes concern about the quality of the trainers. It suggests that the training would have been one of the major weaknesses of the IP that limited its success and impact. According to the respondents, trainers were selected mainly from amongst the department officials and lecturers from former colleges of education. These had to be trained themselves before training the teachers. The extent to which such training could have enabled them to handle the training of principals, teachers and SGBs is a matter of serious concern about the training. In fact, when some principals were asked to comment generally, some mentioned that some of the trainers obviously focused on theory, not on practice, as they had never been principals themselves. It is therefore possible that the modules were not well taught resulting in limited benefit for the participants and ultimately to limited success of the IP implementation in general. This concurs with the findings by Mestry (2004: 127) from the focused interviews that he conducted with SGBs, principals and teachers, that:

The SGBs are not effectively trained to manage the school's finances efficiently. Some of the principals objected to the cascading model of training and found the contents of the workshops to be too theoretical. There are some trainers who do not have a sound financial background.

This was apparently the case with the IP regarding the cascading model that the project adopted. The ECSECC (2001: 43) makes the observation that "Even the

cascading training model did not work as expected because information was distorted as it was cascading to colleagues”. One would expect this to be worse in the former Transkei where conditions were described as poorer than in other areas of the EC province (ECSECC, 2001). One SGB member trained from each school would be expected to train other parent members yet most of these members had limited schooling. One would expect this cascading training to be weak and ineffective and therefore lead to poor understanding of the content of the IP and finally undermine its implementation. This was evident in the responses of the SGB members’ attitude when asked for interviewing. Most said very little and some seemed reluctant to speak as if they were being asked to spy on their principals.

4.3.1.2 Reasons why some aspects of training were regarded as beneficial.

Principals and teachers were asked to give reasons why they thought training in selected modules and themes was beneficial. The ideas and themes emanating from their responses were categorized.

(a) Principals' responses

The responses of the principals are presented and discussed under the following relevant subheadings.

Importance of financial planning

As already noted, the strongest support (over 55%) from principals was expressed for areas that had immediate practical application in the school setting and would contribute to improvement and efficiency in the school environment. The importance of financial planning in the effective running of the school was cited as the reason why training in financial management and control was seen as beneficial. According to the principals, training in financial management had helped them to be accountable with regard to presenting financial reports and in the regulations of finances generally. This was possible because, as a result of the knowledge they gained from the training, they could plan, budget and finally, prioritise. Everard and Morris (1996: 200) note that the success of investment decisions depends on planning through the process of budgeting. During the process of budgeting thought should be given to increasing revenue through, inter alia, fund

raising. The section on financial management shows that all the participants thought that training in fundraising enabled them to increase their revenue.

Empowerment of managers

Empowerment of managers was cited as the reason why training in human resource management was seen as beneficial. Principals stated that training had given them skills and helped them develop confidence, making them proud of their work and their schools. Since it enabled them to plan beforehand, it helped them handle ensuing activities effectively. They also mentioned that such training empowered them to manage change. Carl (1995: 13) note that empowerment does not take place overnight but it is a drawn-out process which takes place over a long period. The concern of this study, therefore, is the short duration of the training which is unlikely to have been enough for principals with the background that was described earlier to be enabled without the process being taken over and prolonged by the district and the province and continued over a longer period of time.

Importance of planning

Principals saw planning as important because it provided guidance and helped them to succeed in reaching their set goals which in turn have become increasingly the yardstick by which their performance is measured. Planning also encouraged them to tabulate their activities, thereby helping them to remain conscious of their goals. Van der Westhuizen (1996: 154) states that one of the functions of the principal is to devise time schedules for reporting results and identify sources of aid in reaching the desired outcomes.

Importance of relationships among stakeholders

Only a third of principals made this a priority, believing the IP training in this area ('Developing and managing relationships with the community') to be beneficial. These principals, unlike others who do not want to spend time engaging with 'the community' believe that focusing on developing good relationships with the community, particularly parents, will improve cooperation among the stakeholders and result in the effective running of a school. These principals could see the benefits of training SGBs and making them part and parcel of the school. This thinking is in line with an international literature which supports school-community cooperation. Van Deventer (2003: 189) remarks that it is important to establish sound relationships in the school which involve the interaction between the educational leader and the group. Through such

interaction role players tend to develop common understandings. Stoll and Fink (1996: 135) note the need for parents and teachers 'reading from the same page' to promote pupil learning and development. The principals observed that it was their responsibility to establish relationships with everyone in the school. Everard and Morris (1996: 206) observe that good practice requires principals to cultivate fruitful relationships with the parent body and note that problems are more easily resolved by parents and teachers together than by either alone. Such relationships influence even the smallest task they undertake.

(b) Teachers' responses

Vision crafting brings stakeholders together

The training on vision crafting was seen as beneficial because it gave guidance in the drawing of development plans for the school. It brought parents to the school and it encouraged parents' involvement in the affairs of the school. It also made teachers aware that they could not have vision on their own but that all stakeholders in the school should sit together and develop one common vision. Such a vision helps schools to define their own direction and develop an attitude that says 'we're in charge of change' (Stoll and Fink, 1996: 51). Teachers argued that for a long time parents regarded the school as a private place for learners and teachers only and this made it difficult for most problems to be solved. According to the teachers the IP training on vision crafting changed this.

© Response of the SGB members

Of the eight SGB members, one said that good relationships between the SGBs and the teachers helped in the development of the school. One said that vision crafting "gives direction in anything that one wants to do, it is like a plan". Three said that parents were playing an active role in the education of their children. One member mentioned that consultation of parents by the principal had improved understanding between the two. Two did not make any comments.

Summary

Attendance levels in the IP training were high but given that IP training was compulsory, they cannot be regarded as exemplary. It is thus clear that interventions such as this face

numerable obstacles. The responses concerning the usefulness ('beneficial') of the IP training confirm that some found the training useful but that many were not prepared to say that the training was useful. Whether this was because they were undecided or actually disliked/did not agree with the training is not clear. Amongst the principals the aspects of the training that received the most positive comment were those that would immediately impact on school management and would improve efficiency. But some principals also appreciated those aspects of the training that prepared them for a new (democratic) vision of schooling. Before 1994 principals were just put into positions of principalship without any form of preparatory training for the responsibilities of leadership as prescribed by the SASA. The IP training went some way towards providing such training and was therefore justifiably regarded as beneficial at least in laying the foundation for further training.

For teachers, appreciation of the training differed. Some of the most positive comments related to those aspects of the training that gave them a stake in the running of the school. The relatively low percentages of endorsement by participants may indicate that the training was of poor quality. The poor quality of training may result from the poor quality of the trainers or that the time for the training may not have been enough or the follow-up that would have helped the stakeholders to implement and internalise the content of the training was either limited or poor. In addition, the training manuals did not offer much material for reading to enable a person to do follow-up reading on his/her own to understand anything that one might have missed during the training.

4.3.2 Principals and teachers' views on the changes in the management practices of their schools.

While it is acknowledged that the impact of the IP was limited by many factors and that most of the changes achieved could not be sustained, it must be noted that those participants who underwent the training and were involved in the implementation of the IP have changed in their understanding of the need for change and in some respects.

The second research question, 'To what extent and in what ways have school principals participating in the IP changed their management practices?' was posed to both principals and teachers. The following section discusses the views of principals

and teachers on changes in management practices after participating in the IP training and implementation.

4.3.2.1 Developing systems, processes and support structures for teachers' development

Although systems are no guarantee that changes will take place, they are one of the first steps in the process of change in schools. The principals working in co-operation with the teachers that participated in the IP succeeded in putting in place systems, processes and support structures that were aimed at improving the way teachers do their work to enable them to provide quality teaching to their learners. Putting structures is a process but it needs people who are capable of operating effectively within the structures.

4.3.2.1.1 Encouraging Collaboration

Although the argument by Hargreaves (1994) is that teacher culture is undergoing transformation, primarily from one distinguished by individualism and classroom autonomy to one marked by collaboration and teamwork, this is not a description that easily applies to South Africa. In the recent period, however, the adoption of the OBE approach indicates attempts to steer it in that direction. Collaboration creates an opportunity for teachers to learn together. However, a collaborative culture takes a long time to develop.

One of the core principles used during IP training and expected to be used during implementation in the school was collaboration. Collaboration also underpinned the principle of clustering of schools used in the implementation of the IP. According to the ECDE (2000: 31) schools were organised into clusters of not more than 5 based on proximity to one another in order to encourage interschool collaboration, networking and mutual support. For this reason principals and teachers were asked whether collaboration was encouraged in their schools or not.

It is obvious that collaboration between teachers and between teachers and the management team are necessary for a school to function effectively. In this sense, collaboration is essential. On the other hand, collaboration can erode the autonomy of

a teacher, can force teachers to work collectively when they might be more comfortable working alone and can be perceived as a threat by a principal who has historically worked with a top-down management model. It is therefore not a foregone conclusion that all stakeholders would have supported efforts to promote collaboration.

Table 4.3.2 (a) Is collaboration encouraged in your school?

Responses	Principals	Teachers
Yes	100%	85.7%
No	00%	5.0%
Missing	00	9.2%
Total	119	100%

Table 4.3.2 (a) shows that all (100%) principals said they encouraged collaboration in their schools and 85.7% of the teachers concurred. This shows that the understanding of principals (that they support collaboration) is not entirely shared by teachers. This suggests that principals are possibly more vested in the rhetoric of collaboration than in its substance, more inclined to continue with their individualistic leadership role than with diluting their power through collaboration though given high levels of teacher agreement (that collaboration is encouraged) this point should not be overemphasized.

According to Hargreaves (1995: 150), "throughout literature on leadership, change and the working lives of teachers, the principle of collaboration is repeatedly emerging as a productive response to a world in which problems are unpredictable, solutions are unclear, and demands and expectations are intensifying." Elmore (2000: 1) notes that the participation of teachers in roles that require them to acquire knowledge and solve problems in groups and networks as opposed to individuality fosters higher levels of commitment and satisfaction among teachers. In a study that he conducted Nias (1989) found that the majority of teachers wanted more collaboration with other teachers. The problem with the use of collaboration in schools is that it has never been a norm during school days and during teacher training for many teachers including principals. It is therefore very difficult for many teachers (and particularly principals) and therefore needs to be developed gradually and over time until it becomes a culture of the school. The IP has set the tone for its adoption as a form of sharing information, problems and possible solutions during in-service training.

Principals were asked to give the ways in which they encouraged collaboration in their schools. Teachers were also asked the same question with regard to their principals. Lumby (1997: 40) suggests that one way to encourage collaboration is to provide space and opportunity for staff to share and talk about their work in their classrooms e.g. staff meetings, informal visits by the school principal to teachers in their classrooms. The aim should be to establish and sustain an organisational culture that facilitates openness and sharing. Prinsloo (2003: 222) suggests meetings, round table discussions, brainstorming and inter-group activities as some of the ways used by principals to encourage teacher collaboration in order to improve their productivity. The extent to which these means were used is found in the responses of principals and teachers which have been categorized and are discussed below.

Encouraged collaboration through staff meetings and discussions

Principals cited staff meetings as one way in which they encouraged collaboration. In such meetings suggestions, proposals and ideas were brainstormed and these were discussed openly and freely. It was also the view of teachers that staff meetings were used by their principals to encourage collaboration. They also noted that in such staff meetings they were allowed to contribute, that the principal put views and ideas on the table and allowed discussions on them. Staff meetings were also used by the principal to present his/her vision of the school for discussion.

While the observations of the respondents suggest that the IP did succeed in at least introducing the practice of collaboration in schools and raising awareness about its importance and value, there is no indication that effective participation and engagement in the discussions did exist and whether such discussions were based on useful knowledge. While many authors such as Hargreaves (1995), Elmore (2000) and Prinsloo (2003) acknowledge the importance of meetings and discussions as ways of developing collaboration, Lumby (1997) advises that collaboration should involve changing the 'meeting' concept to 'not something done to teachers, but something that teachers actively seek and do in order to share, to learn and to become more mutually capable'. He further suggests that discussion should be preceded by acting 'doing and discussing' so that it becomes an opportunity to reflect on and evaluate the action. Many authors such as McNiff (1994), Hitchcock and Hughes (1995), Elliot (1991), Walker (1994) and

Walker (1996) call this action research, which provides a framework for planning, doing and reflecting. The Eastern Cape Department of Education in its Professional Development Policy Framework (2000) suggests that action research “will be the main method of research for reconstructing teaching and learning” in the Eastern Cape. The position of this study is that action research can be used in disadvantaged schools such as those found in the Eastern Cape of South Africa to enhance teachers’ understanding of their practice, and to improve their professional skills to enable them to improve their student learning. There is no indication in the responses of the principals and teachers to show that these meetings mentioned were planned with the purpose reflecting on activities that were focused on learning and how they differed from an ordinary staff meeting. This suggests that though the concept of collaboration may be known, the principals have not moved it from the meeting concept in practice. It did not therefore have the desired effect on teachers.

Encouraged collaboration by encouraging teachers to plan together/teamwork

Encouraging teamwork and planning together by teachers came out as one way in which principals said they encouraged collaboration. This included planning lessons together and sharing ideas about their work and in teaching. This would involve observing each other and correcting each others' mistakes. Planning together and working as teams was one of the common ways in which the teachers also saw the manifestation of collaboration in their schools. This involved planning and presenting lessons together, conducting in-service training among the teachers, giving advice to those who had problems and encouraging co-operation in teaching and learning activities.

Hopkins and Stern (1996: 506) contend that high quality teachers participate in teams that plan and teach together. Lumby (1997) contends that working in teams arises through genuine dialogue and does not mean merely discussing things but a sustained, systematic, open-minded desire to engage with colleagues in a synergistic and interpretative approach to professional learning. Dialogue in this sense does not mean just talking but also deep listening. This suggests that collaboration should be adopted in all teacher education, both pre-service and in-service. For this cohort of teachers engaging in teamwork would not have been the norm before the IP. This is because teacher isolation rather than teamwork in teaching has always been a norm both in teacher training and in the schools. The report on the baseline study of the Department of Education notes that “Imbewu support teams met

regularly with key teachers from school clusters for information sharing and reflection on their accomplishments since being trained.The process promoted and encouraged teamwork among teachers” (ECSECC, 2001: 50). The principals and teachers who underwent training observed that they had to sit together during the cascading training of their colleagues as they had done in the training workshops. This suggests that there could be an opportunity to develop the culture of collaboration by ensuring that there is planning, doing and reflection as discussed above. The problem is that developing this culture of collaboration needs support from school principals (which may not always have been consistent or enthusiastic) as well as ongoing assistance from structures like the ECDE which, in this case, according to the schools, was not generally forthcoming.

Encouraged collaboration by encouraging shared decision-making

Principals mentioned shared decision-making as one way in which they encouraged collaboration. This included consulting teachers and giving them a chance to contribute to the identification of problems and in deciding how such problems should be solved. Teachers did not say anything about participating in decision making suggesting that they did not see this as a form of collaboration or that they did not agree that such a process occurred. I have already indicated why principals might not have been genuinely interested in collaborative decision-making. Reasons would include habit (historically principals had more autonomy and independence) and the new assessment processes which make principals personally accountable for a school’s performance.

Encouraged collaboration by ensuring transparency

Transparency was mentioned by principals as another way in which they encouraged collaboration. Because transparency ensures that everybody understands what is going on, they are able to share suggestions, consulting each other on issues that they don't understand, a positive atmosphere is created. Transparency included reporting when one had attended a workshop.

Encouraged collaboration by encouraging formation of subject committees

Subject committees were mentioned by both principals and teachers as one way in which collaboration was encouraged in their schools. This encouraged teachers of the same subjects to work together and discuss issues and share information on content and methods of teaching as well as new approaches that had to be adopted. Carl

(1995: 265) observes that in-service training may form an integral part of the school's instructional development programme in which subject committees and workshops are used. In this regard the principal and other training leaders should play a dominant role.

Subject committees can ensure that teachers have a supportive atmosphere to learn about new developments and approaches in a subject and such working together may help to encourage collaboration even in other areas in the school. Hargreaves (1995: 154) observes that collaboration increases teachers' opportunities to learn from each other between classrooms, between departments and between schools. It can be a powerful source of professional learning, a means of getting better at the job.

Encouraged collaboration by celebrating special days

Principals mentioned celebrating special days and successes as one way of encouraging collaboration. They noted that celebrating successes and special days helped to pool people's efforts towards a common purpose in the preparation and this tends to stay and filter to other activities afterwards. This usually gives the school the opportunity to collaborate with the community. The vision crafting process played this role by bringing all the stakeholders together to formulate the vision of their school.

Delegating

The view of the teachers was that their principals delegated work to them as one way of encouraging collaboration. Of course, delegation is also a way of reducing one's own workload. They asserted that after the IP training their principals started to display trust and to regard them as professionals. Mosoge & van der Westhuizen (1998: 81) note that delegation of authority for specific tasks encourages teachers to plan together, share ideas and seek help from others. The responses reveal that planning together was gradually becoming the way of doing things in that both principals and teachers say it is used in planning and presenting lessons, in extra-mural activities, and workshops and in-service training among teachers.

The impact of collaboration on teaching and learning

Principals and teachers were asked to express their views with regard to the impact of collaboration on teaching and learning. The phrasing of the question allowed for open-ended responses. The responses by principals and teachers differed, in some cases markedly. Perhaps the most striking was that a large number of principals spoke about an improvement in communication among teachers and yet no teacher made this point. This calls into question the different perspectives of teachers and pupils and demonstrates the different ways in which their respective investments might have caused them to interpret the IP training. Principals had good reason to find that the training had improved matters in their school and thus made positive statements about the communication between teachers. Teachers on the other hand were unable to confirm such an improvement which suggests that progress towards collaboration may be more partial than at other times claimed.

By the same token, far more principals than teachers attributed to collaboration improvements in teaching and learning. Responses to this question were open-ended yet it would seem that while three quarters of principals commented favourably in this regard, only half of teachers had a similar view. Once again, this suggests that teachers who were dealing with learners more directly, were more sanguine than principals about the impact of IP. Nevertheless there was a lot of positive comment. Principals noted that teaching and learning became “enjoyable and less demanding” and this made both teachers and learners “to perform better than expected”. The culture of teaching was “revitalized”, they said. The quality of teaching and learning improved as teachers' work was integrated. Teachers indicated that more of their number “displayed willingness to work”. Lessons were properly planned, teachers improvised regarding resources and stood in for teachers who were absent from work. They said that students were also more “co-operative and willing to work”. Teachers said that teaching and learning had become “more interesting and effective” because it was shared by teachers and learners. Teachers improved their skills of teaching as well as relations with learners.

One other theme that emerged was around joint decision-making. Not one principal mentioned this as resulting from the IP training whereas nearly a third of teachers identified this as a product of the training. This highlights the desire of teachers to be

involved in school decision-making and the possible preference on the part of principals for the preservation of centralized (rather than joint) decision-making. It also demonstrates that the IP intervention was able to introduce and promote a transformation agenda in schools which resonated with teacher hopes and expectations.

4.3.2.1.2 The Use of evaluation to improve teacher productivity

The IP sought to strengthen its impact by institutionalizing evaluation. It did this by providing training on evaluation and by showing that evaluation was a critical tool in school improvement. Matoti (1996) in his research on teacher evaluation in the primary schools of the Eastern Cape found that teacher evaluation was an important process for in-service training and teacher development. Many interventions now include evaluations as part of the intervention in order to gauge progress and to provide mechanisms to entrench the impact of the intervention. At the level of the participants evaluation is also important in generating buy-in and improving productivity. Evaluation and monitoring were built into the IP programme and the districts and regional office staff had to be prepared to enable them to offer continuous monitoring, support and evaluation to the schools. The aim was to assess the progress made in the IP implementation. This shows that evaluation at all levels of the system is important not only for accountability but for development.

Bollington, Hopkins and West (1990: 2) note that appraisal can be seen both as a form of in-service training and as a means of identifying further in-service training needs. It can be seen as a method of providing support for those engaged in change and as a means of monitoring the effectiveness of INSET. This was the aim of evaluation by trainers in the IP. According to Sergiovanni (1991: 284) appraisal is also linked to attempts to develop the management of schools. At the same time, as Matoti found, evaluation is one way in which the principal helps teachers improve productivity and at the same time ensure that they do their work. It is therefore an inherent and important component of her/his management functions for transforming teaching and learning as envisaged by the IP. Principals and teachers were therefore asked to describe specific evaluation activities that were used in their schools after involvement in the IP intervention and their answers are discussed below.

Portfolio assessment

Principals said that they used portfolio assessment to evaluate their teachers. Teachers also mentioned that their principals and SMTs assessed them through both learner and teacher portfolios. Some teachers mentioned that when the trainers visited their schools they asked for the portfolios in order to assess progress in the IP implementation process. It appears that the use of the portfolio as form of presenting proof of work for appraisal was institutionalised.

Class presentations/class visits

Principals mentioned class presentations as one of the methods by which they evaluated their teachers. These included class visits where the principal or the SMT observed teachers presenting lessons, sometimes including parents. They stated that they wrote reports and gave continuous feedback on their performance, and kept proper records. Sergiovanni (1991: 284) notes that the principal is responsible for monitoring teaching and learning in her or his school and does so by visiting classrooms, talking with people and visiting with students. Carl (1995: 265) also observes that class visits may be used as valuable in-service training opportunities. According to the teachers, class visits conducted by the SMTs including checking both learners' and teachers' work seemed to be used more frequently than other activities that were also mentioned such as discussion, monitoring and guidance and written reports. However, such activities as discussion, guidance and written reports, usually go hand in hand with class visits.

4.3.2.1.3 Principals' and teachers' views on class visits/observation

In order to improve the performance of teachers and thus contribute to better conditions of teaching and learning IP conducted training for principals to improve their relationships with teachers as well as to contribute to the professional development of teachers. Much, but not all, of this training was conducted in the 'Developing systems and processes for human resource productivity' module. The training focused on promoting more interaction between principal and teacher and on improving report backs by the principal on his/her observation of teacher performance. When asked whether IP had 'given them guidance on conducting classroom visits?' 24 out of 33 principals (73%) said yes. Only one of the principals said this guidance was unhelpful while 12 and 17 said, respectively, that the guidance was 'very

helpful’ and ‘helpful’. On this basis one could conclude that this aspect of training was successful.

Teachers were also asked about this aspect. They were asked to comment on the principal’s performance in relation to classroom visits. Over 90% confirmed that principals were conducting classroom visits (which apparently had been rare before IP training). Of these all but 2 out of 119 teachers who responded, said that the training was unhelpful. This constitutes very strong evidence that IP training had indeed made a difference here.

It is widely acknowledged that classroom observation is the “mainstay of most teacher evaluation” (Darling-Hammond et al, 1983: 308). It is an “essential feature of staff development” (Poster & Poster, 1993: 61). Through class visits the principal or member of the SMT is able to observe and assess both the teachers’ and learners’ activities and how learners respond to the teacher as well as how they interact with each other. However, the value of classroom visits probably is realized by the way in which class visits are reported and discussed with teachers. It is here that the developmental element occurs. In my questionnaire, I asked teachers and principals what form the report back on the classroom visits took.

Table 4.3.2 (b) Principal and Teacher responses to the Question: How does the principal provide feedback on class visits?

Responses	Principals	Teachers
Discussion and written reports	16(55.2%)	58 (52.3%)
Discussions	5(17.2%)	47 (42.3%)
Written reports	4(13.8%)	5 (4.5%)
Discussions, written reports & others	2 (6.9%)	1(0.9%)
Missing	2 (6.9%)	0
Total	29 (100%)	111 (100%)

In this table we see that most common form of feedback, acknowledged by teachers and principals alike, was ‘discussion and written reports’. Possibly the most desirable form of feedback involves discussions, written reports and other forms of communication that consolidate the findings of the classroom visit and help to develop and support the teacher. But such feedback consumes time and energy and only 1 out of 111 teachers said that s/he had received such support. It is important and interesting to note that, in general, principals indicated that they were more

thorough in their feedback than teachers were prepared to acknowledge. This gap in perception may have something to do with principals trying to show that they were undertaking teacher development diligently and thus exaggerating the actual effort they were putting in. Feedback that relies only on discussion or on a written report is one-dimensional and is probably the least effective. It is also the easiest way to provide feedback and takes the least time. Not surprisingly, nearly half of teachers indicated that they only got one type of feedback, and most indicated that this was 'discussion', the easiest type of feedback for a principal to provide.

Bollington et al (1990: 5) notes that teachers are far more likely to improve if they are provided with feedback and opportunities to communicate effectively about their work. An effective class visit should be followed by a discussion and a written report. A written report helps as a form of accountability for the person conducting the class visit. It also serves as a point of reference for improvement or lack of improvement of the work of the person being visited. Discussion gives both persons an opportunity to interact and clear any misunderstandings that may exist.

Although the principal is responsible for management including supervising teaching and learning, s/he does this largely through the deputy principal and the HODs. The design of the project was such that the deputy principals and the HODs who are directly involved in teaching and learning were not targeted for training. I therefore believe that it was not possible for HODs at this time to actively conduct class visits on teachers to assess them on the use of methods learnt from the IP training in which they themselves had not attended. I strongly believe that, although there was cascading training of teachers by their colleagues who had been trained, this weakened the effect of the IP of the transformation of teaching and learning.

4.3.2.1.4 Views on teacher participation in decision-making

As has been indicated, the 'transformation' agenda which included democratization and decentralization was one of the areas of IP training that was likely to receive ambivalent responses from participants. Principals, for example, are not likely uniformly to embrace democratization as it has the potential to reduce their power within a school and place a burden of consultation and teamwork on them in a context

where they were comfortable taking decisions alone. On the other hand, it is widely believed that collective decision making results in better decisions and improves the productivity of teachers because they feel part of the decisions that have been made.

Theories of school improvement indicate the need for democratic decision making which requires a new way of teachers and management working together. In such situations both senior managers and teachers have to function as leaders and decision-makers as they attempt to bring about fundamental changes. Essentially, school improvement necessitates a re-conceptualisation of leadership where teachers and managers engage in shared decision-making and risk-taking (Harris, 1998: 10). Shared decision-making emphasises a new conception of the principal’s role in school management and a different way of relating with teachers. In terms of this conception the principal’s role is based on a form of power that is consensual and facilitative by nature. The principal should actively seek to develop his staff by creating opportunities for them to grow, to learn from each other and to learn from their mistakes. This is challenge to the traditional authority and autonomy of the principal and requires suitable training for both principals and teachers and a change of mindset. Respondents were asked to give specific activities that they used to promote teacher participation in decision-making. The themes that came out from the responses are presented in the table below.

Table 4.3.2 (c) How the principal ensure participation in decision making

Response	Principals	Teachers
Encourages individual contributions/ Consultation and welcoming ideas	18 (54.5%)	39 (32.8%)
Staff meetings	10 (30.3%)	42 (35.3%)
Teamwork		23 (19.3%)
Give tasks	3 (9.1%)	6 (5.0%)
Democratic leadership style		5 (4.2%)
Missing	2 (6.1%)	4 (3.4%)
Total	33 (100%)	119 (100%)

Consultation and welcoming of ideas

There is little difference between the percentages of principals (30.3%) and those of teachers (35.3%) who observe that staff meetings are used as a form of developing teachers' decision-making skills. This is probably because staff meetings have always been used but what is important is that while 54.5% of the principals made the observation that they had improved their use of consultation and welcoming ideas from their teachers as a way of encouraging their teachers' participation in decision-making, only 32.8% of the teachers expressed the same sentiments. The responses of the teachers show that their principals are more likely to proclaim the value of consultation and somewhat less likely actually to utilize it. Having said this, it is important to note that a third of all teachers did acknowledge that their principals were open to consultation. As has been indicated earlier principals have had more autonomy and independence and it takes time and effort to relinquish these.

While no principals mentioned teamwork, 19.3% of the teachers mentioned it as a way of giving them opportunity to participate in decision-making. The fact that principals did not mention this suggests that they might have overlooked the value of workshops in creating space for joint decision-making and participation.

Summary

It is apparent from the responses that the IP did help the principals to develop systems and processes for improving human resource productivity. Working with teachers, collaborating in decision-making, has been an important innovation in this regard. As Hargreaves (1995) suggests, such an approach is useful in a period of transformation where problems are unpredictable and solutions are unclear and demands and expectations are intensifying. Collaboration is seen as a tool for teacher empowerment and professional development. This is because it breaks down teacher isolation, encouraging teachers to pool their resources and their expertise together, and allows them to share, exchange and finally generate critical yet practically-grounded reflection on what they do as a basis for more skilled action. It has become apparent that for transformation to be successful collaboration must become a natural way of doing things with the desire to collaborate and improve themselves residing with the teachers and not forced upon them by experts from outside. This needs continuous support, monitoring and evaluation from the district officials to sustain and develop it into a culture. The IP helped for

create the foundation for this and the view of this study is that the districts have been provided with the infrastructure to achieve this.

Although various ways of developing collaboration were said to have been used, planning together and teamwork, and staff meetings and open discussions seemed to have been the most important. Most principals and teachers indicated that collaboration resulted in improvement in teaching and learning. Improved communication was also mentioned as a result of collaboration. Communication occurs when barriers between teachers have been broken down and is a prerequisite for collaboration to occur. Collaboration was said to have resulted in the willingness of teachers to work because they learn from each other and gain confidence that may have been lacking in both content knowledge and methods of teaching and in this way may change their attitudes towards their work. Joint decision-making develops once collaboration becomes a way of life in a school as teachers share views about their work and make decisions together.

Although most of the principals said that the IP had improved their ability to evaluate their teachers, it was apparent from their vague responses that evaluation was still a difficult area. This was evident from the vague responses when they were asked to give specific activities that they used, for evaluation. The role of the SMTs and that of the principal seemed not to be clear as yet. It seemed that at the time, in 2002, the idea of teacher evaluation was still a sensitive issue. The most important thing that seems to have been successfully adopted is the idea of a portfolio. This implies that to a certain extent, a method of monitoring the work of the teacher that is different from the old form of inspection has been adopted.

Although there was no doubt that class visits were used there, it has been evident that a large percentage of principals used class visits as the form of increasing teacher productivity and their own accountability. Many principals indicated that they used discussions and written reports as a way of giving feedback to the teachers. Written reports are important for accountability purposes on the part of the principal and as a point of reference for further class visits. Discussions are important for the teacher to understand points being made in the report and as an opportunity to raise questions where necessary.

4.3.2.2 Views on changes in financial management practices

The IP training placed much emphasis on improving financial management. Principals were trained (via the module ‘financial management and control’) together with the SGB members (normally the chairperson of the SGB in the school). Principals were asked about the training through the questionnaire. Teachers were likewise asked about this training but they had not received IP training for financial management so they were asked their perceptions of whether the school’s financial management had changed as a result of the IP intervention. The questionnaire further sought to elicit information on how teachers were involved in financial matters such as fundraising, development of a financial policy, budgeting and collecting fees from the learners.

The discussion below and the perusal of school documents on finances to which I had access led me to the conclusion that the management of finances is one of the few areas where the IP has been largely successful.

Training in finance management has two aspects. The one relates to technical matters, for example, budgeting and accounting. Here principals quite often have had little or no training and are therefore short of skills. The other aspect relates to financial decision-making and this involves including teachers in an area where hitherto they have largely been absent. This latter aspect is, in short, part of the transformation process of decentralization and democratisation. IP training was intended to move the school towards autonomy. But in the situation of autonomy management and governance is shared with the school council or governing body. Institutional autonomy included schools attaining section 21 status and managing their own finances once they could prove to the department that they had developed the necessary expertise. To acquire such expertise they had to be trained.

To establish what elements of financial management the IP training had covered, principals were given a list and asked to indicate those they had been trained in. The table below shows their responses.

Table 4.3.2 (d) Aspects of financial management and control in which principals were trained by Imbewu Project.

Aspects of financial management	Principals	Percentage
Developing financial policy, budgeting, bookkeeping, financial statements, financial audits, fundraising (this is a full list of all aspects of financial management)	27	81.8%
All aspects except bookkeeping and financial audits	3	9.1%
All aspects except bookkeeping, financial audits and financial statements)	3	9.1%
Total	33	100%

Table 4.3.2 (d) The table shows that most principals (81.8%) were trained in all the aspects of financial management listed. I believe that those who did not list all the aspects might have been absent when training was offered. Regarding auditing, principals would have been taught about its importance and not the actual function because this is a specialised function.

Principals were also asked to list those aspects of financial management that they had been able to implement while teachers were asked to list aspects that had been practiced in their schools since the IP training and implementation. Their responses are presented in the table below.

Table 4.3.2(e) Aspects of financial management and control principals implemented and practised in their schools.

Aspect of finance	Principals	Teachers
Developing financial policy, budgeting, bookkeeping, financial statements, financial audits, fundraising	15 (45.5%)	62 (52.1%)
All aspects except audits	18 (54.5%)	55 (46.2%)
None		2 (21.7%)
Total	33 (100%)	119 (100%)

Table 4.3.2 (e) shows that just under half of the principals indicated that they implemented all aspects of financial planning offered to them in IP training. Interestingly, a higher percentage of teachers felt that all aspects of financial management had been implemented. The remaining principals acknowledged that they had not instituted audits but had implemented all the other aspects of financial management.

There is a slight difference between the perceptions of principals and teachers but this is hardly significant. The financial aspects of management listed indicate the significant role played by the IP in ensuring the introduction of proper financial management practices and controls in schools. As will be clarified in the next chapter, most principals indicated that financial auditing could not be done in their schools because they did not have the money to engage the services of auditors at the time since auditing is a specialized skill.

The table below shows the responses of principals about the challenges that they said they experienced in the implementation of financial management practices.

Table 4.3.2(f) Challenges experienced by principals in implementation of financial management aspects

Reasons	Frequency	Percentage
Inadequate duration of training	14	42.4%
Reluctance to pay school fees	7	21.2%
Lack of funds (for auditing)	6	18.2%
No obstacles	4	12.1%
Missing	2	6.1%
Total	33	100%

Table 4.3.2 (f) shows that the challenge that was identified by most principals (42.4%) was the inadequate duration of training. This suggests that training did not allow for assimilation and in-depth understanding of the new practices. Since financial management had traditionally been monopolized by the principal, handling the finances of the school has become one of the sensitive aspects of school governance and management that had to be understood not only in terms of the practices. The new approach to financial management has demanded a change of mindset especially on the part of the principal and many are battling in this regard. How the principals and teachers dealt with the problem of short duration of training will be clear in the next chapter from the interviews. Another challenge cited by 18.2% of principals was inadequate school funds as well as the inability of parents to pay school fees. This is related to the context which is characterized by poverty, and lack of employment as described in chapter 1.

Principals were asked to give reasons for the success achieved in putting into practice some of the aspects of financial management and control. The table below presents their responses.

Table 4.3.2 (g) Reasons for principals’ success in implementing changes in financial management and control

Reasons	Frequency	Percentage
Involvement of stakeholders	18	54.5%
Imbewu workshops	10	30.3%
Working as a team	5	15.2%
Total	33	100%

Table 4.3.2 (g) shows that most (54.5%) principals gave the involvement of key stakeholders such as SGB members, parents and teachers as the main reason for introducing changes in the management of finance. Involvement of stakeholders may be attributed to many factors the most important of which was vision crafting. The vision crafting process that was used to bring role players together to formulate visions for their school culminated in a celebration that brought them together and each began to realise hi/her importance in the development of the school. The result was involvement in raising funds, for example, for the construction of extra classroom space which need had been raised by them through their visions. The fact that 30.3% of the principals gave ‘Imbewu workshops’ as one of the reasons for success might seem to be a contradiction of what they had just mentioned as the reason for their failure in table 4.3.1 (i). However, this explains that while the training may not have been long enough, it did introduce them to the knowledge that enabled them to initiate financial structures and practices. Working as a team was also mentioned as another reason for success in introducing some of the financial management practices. The response ‘working as a team’ serves to re-emphasise positive role played by involvement of stakeholders mentioned earlier. The fact that role players in the IP were trained together in those aspects in which they were expected to work together played a significant role in instilling the team spirit which transferred to the schools during the implementation. How this team spirit helped role players to deal with the problem of short duration of the training will be discussed in the next chapter.

One of the characteristics of school-based management is shared decision making in many aspects of management, including finances. This sharing has to be facilitated by the principal. The table below shows the responses of both principals and teachers with regard to the aspects of financial management in which teachers were involved.

Table 4.3.2(h) Aspects of Financial management in which teachers were involved

Aspects of financial management	Principals	Teachers
Financial policy, budgeting, fundraising, finance committee	22 (66.7%)	75 (63.0%)
Fundraising	9 (27.3%)	40 (33.6%)
Missing	2 (6.1%)	4 (3.4%)
Total	33 (100%)	119 (100%)

Table 4.3.2 (h) shows that most principals (66.7%) and most teachers (63.0%) indicated that teachers in their schools were involved in most of the financial practices such as developing a financial policy, budgeting, fundraising and as members of the finance committees. It is important to note the relatively high percentage of respondents, 27.3% of the principals and 33.6% of the teachers who said the teachers were involved in fundraising only. Although teachers have a role to play in most functions through representation in the SGB and finance committee, they should take part in budgeting, for example, as they know the needs of the school. In most primary schools teachers actually collect the moneys from their classrooms and hand them over to the treasurer because there is usually no administrative personnel to do this.

Although the Schools Act, 1996 prescribes financial management as the prerogative of the SGB, the principals have to facilitate its functioning (Mestry, 2004). The principals and teachers were asked to identify aspects of financial management in which the SGB was involved. Their responses are presented below.

Table 4.3.2(i) Aspects of Financial management in which SGBs were involved

Aspects of finance	Principals	Teachers
Financial policy, budgeting, fundraising, bookkeeping, financial statements, banking	28 (84.8%)	98 (82.4%)
Fundraising	3 (9.1%)	7 (5.9%)
Budgeting		8 (6.7%)
None		6 (5.0%)
Missing	2 (6.1%)	
Total	33 (100%)	119 (100%)

Table 4.3.2 (i) shows that the large majority of principals (84.8%) and teachers (82.4%) believed that SGBs were involved in developing financial policy, budgeting, fundraising and banking, including financial statements. The number of principals (9.1%) who said the SGBs were only involved in fundraising is small but it is significant that in 2002, 2 years after the closure of the IP there were still schools that had participated in the IP in which the involvement of the SGBs was limited only to fundraising. This is possibly the result of tensions with principals who are reluctant to share power and the result of SGBs with very limited capacity to engage in fundraising..

While the SGB is responsible and accountable for the management of the funds of the school, the principal, by virtue of her/his position as the chief accounting officer in the school and as the ex-officio member of the SGB has a very important role to play in the financial management of the school. The principal has the responsibility of facilitating, supporting and assisting the SGB in the execution of its statutory functions relating to the assets, liabilities, property and other financial management issues. Mestry (2004: 129) notes that the principal should work collaboratively with the SGB in the management of finances. Where this collaboration does not take place, there is usually either conflict or withdrawal from performing the functions, usually by the parent component of the SGB. The withdrawal usually occurs in rural

areas where, because of limited knowledge and lack of information, the SGB members may feel powerless and marginalized. The value of the IP training for helping the principals and the SGB members to understand their roles is notable. But, as will be discussed in the next chapter, there were undertones to the fact that principals were making most of the decisions and using SGB members to endorse them. This implies that although SGB members may be participating they may not be getting the space to engage in decision –making. The fact that a large percentage of both principals and teachers observe that the SGBs in their schools participate in many of these functions indicate that the IP has succeeded in ensuring that the SGBs play a role prescribed by the SASA. One advantage with financial practices is that most of them, like use of receipt and cash analysis books, can be routine and unless one is prone to corruption, once one has been trained and practiced it successfully, it is not easy to forget the practice. What is usually needed is for such control measures as internal auditing practices to be put in place. Mestry (2004: 131) notes that although the SASA makes no provision for internal auditing it is vital that the SGB has an internal auditing mechanism in place. He suggests that the SGB could appoint a team from its own members or appoint someone from the community to do regular checks of the school finances, for example, once a month.

Table 4.3.2(j) Aspects of Financial management in which parents were involved

Aspects of finance	Principals	Teachers
Budgeting, fundraising, financial policy	17 (51.5%)	56 (47.1%)
Financial reports (annual reports)	9 (27.3%)	25 (21.0%)
Fundraising	6 (18.2%)	35 (29.4%)
Missing	1 (3.0%)	3 (2.5%)
Total	33 (100%)	119 (100%)

Table 4.3.2 (j) shows little difference of perception between teachers and principals. It also shows that about half of the principals (51.5%) and half of all teachers (47.1%) observed that as a result of the introduction of the IP in their schools, parents became involved in budgeting, fundraising and development of the financial policy. This table reveals that the major involvement of parents in the participating schools was

fundraising and being called at the end of the year to be given annual financial reports. The IP seems to have placed a great emphasis on training participants in fundraising because the schools that were targeted were in the poorest regions of the province and were disadvantaged in many ways, including suffering a shortage of classrooms.

According to Mestry (2004: 127) the SGB has the role of preparing an annual budget and submitting this to parents and getting their approval. Getting approval means that they have to make the parents understand the needs of the school and how money would be spent and why. Even though they do not prepare the actual budget, approving means that they are involved in budgeting because this study assumes that they would have discussed it before approving it. This is an improvement from the situation that existed before when parents were not involved at all. It is hoped that in approving the budget parents are given space to engage in the necessary discussion.

4.3.2.3 Views on changes in relationships with the community

Although the impact of the IP was limited and changes achieved were generally not sustained, there were indications that in areas such as community involvement, it did succeed in educating the communities about their roles in school governance and management. While generally this and other changes were not unique to the IP, the IP helped in fast tracking the implementation of such policy imperatives as parent involvement in school governance through the SGB. The areas of tension which were bound to rise were better handled and managed because of the IP collaborative training approach.

In this study 'community' has referred to parents and the school governing body. Although parents are represented in the SGB which is responsible for governance, the principal is still expected to deal directly with them at times.

Non-participation of parents in the running of the school was one of the problems in the rural schools of the Transkei region of the EC in the apartheid era. In terms of the new dispensation, improving relations between the schools and the communities thus became one of the priority areas in education. Thus, although the SASA provided for

the representation of parents in the school by the SGB there has been an additional need to improve relations between parents and the school. Hence, one of the broad aims of the IP was ‘to enhance community involvement in the development, support and security of primary schools’ (Imbewu, 1999: 23). For this reason, a module on managing relations with the community was included in the training of principals and the SGB members. According to Woods, Jeffrey, Truman and Boyle (1997: 86) principals “preside over fundamental redefinitions of the relationship between parents and schools”. The principal is thus seen as the facilitator in the development and maintenance of relations between the school and the community. In this study the principals were therefore asked about their relations with the parents after participating in the IP training and implementation. Teachers were also asked if they had noticed any changes in the way the principal related with the SGB as a result of the IP. The table below shows the responses of both the principals and teachers regarding this.

Table 4.3.2(k) Has there been any change in the principal’s relationship with SGBs after IP training?

Category	Principals	Teachers
Yes	32 (97%)	114 (95.8%)
No	1 (3%)	3 (2.5%)
Missing		2 (1.7%)
Total	33 (100%)	119 (100%)

Table 4.3.2 (k) reveals a very heartening picture which shows that the vast majority (nearly all) of principals and teachers agree that the IP training improved principal-SGB relations. The principals and teachers were asked to give examples of the changes in the relationship between the principal and the SGB. Their responses are presented in the table below.

Table 4.3.2 (I) Changes in principal's relationship with the SGB

Responses	Principals	Teachers
Active participation	14 (42.4%)	59 (49.6%)
SGB co-operation	10 (30.3%)	49 (41.2%)
Attendance of meetings	7 (21.2%)	11 (9.2%)
Missing	2 (6.1%)	
Total	33 (100%)	119 (100%)

The three responses in table 4.3.2 (I), namely, active participation, co-operation and attendance of meetings, all point to the fact that the parent members of the SGBs had become more involved and active in the governance of the school. Although attendance of meetings was a form of co-operation, it was mentioned specifically as one example of change. This is because if the parent component of the SGB does not attend meetings and does not co-operate with the principal there is no way in which the SGB can function. The SGB should not only represent the parents but should also serve as a link between the school and the parents. They should help mobilize the parents for parents' meetings to discuss such issues as security that need them directly.

The changes in terms of SGB co-operation could be attributed, among others, to the IP approach of training the SGB members together with the principals and in other areas with teachers. Such an approach helped each role player to understand his/her role. The group work approach during the training meant that these role players were actually placed in situations where they sat together in groups during the training in the presence of the trainers. This made the development of relations with the SGB by the principals easier because they had already been initiated in their roles through the training. Although there are schools where tensions continue to exist as a result of power struggle between the principal and the SGB, there is strong evidence that there has been a shift in the direction of involving parents more actively in school affairs..

The principals and teachers were also asked to explain the effect that changes in the relationship between the principal and the SGB had on the running of the school. The table below presents their responses.

Table 4.3.2 (m) Effects of changes in principal’s relationship with SGBs on the running of the school

Responses	Principals	Teachers
Co-operation	16 (48.5%)	65 (54.6%)
Smooth running	8 (24.2%)	33 (27.7%)
Joint running	7 (21.2%)	
Shared ownership		10 (8.4%)
Missing	2 (6.1%)	11 (9.2%)
Total	33 (100%)	119 (100%)

Table 4.3.2 (m) shows that the improvement in the relationship between the SGB and the school resulted in the further co-operation and smooth running of the school which contributed to a marked improvement in the relationships between the stakeholders. As mentioned earlier the impact of the IP in this area was significant.

The table below presents description of changes in the principal’s relationship with the parents.

Table 4.3.2(n) Description of changes in the relationship between the principal and the parents (N=33)

Response	Principal	Teachers
Improved participation and involvement	23 (69.7%)	74 (62.2%)
Improved attendance of meetings	8 (24.2%)	29 (24.4%)
Smooth running		11 (9.2%)
Missing	2 (6.1%)	5 (4.2%)
Total	33 (100%)	119 (100%)

Table 4.3.2 (n) shows that the changes in the relationship between the SGB and the school resulted in improved participation and involvement in the school by parents which was reflected through improved attendance of parents’ meetings.

Although attendance of meetings implied involvement and participation, it was mentioned specifically as one example of change. This is because, as with SGBs, attending meetings is the only way in which the school and the SGB can access parents to discuss fees, the problems experienced with learners and other issues such as security affecting the school.

Fullan (1991: 227) observes that decisions about the precise nature of parent involvement are related to cultural, ethnic and class differences. My experience is that involvement of parents in rural areas where the communities are illiterate or have less schooling is often limited and can therefore be said to be related to class as well as gender because the few women members of SGBs are often passive. Principals have continued to struggle to get parents to participate in the education of their children. This reluctance is related to their perception of the role of the school. Their perception has always been that the principal and teachers are responsible for everything related to the child placed in their care. While the responses of both the principals and teachers indicated that there was a slight change to this perception, it was doubtful if this could be sustained without more resources of time and continuous training. In 4 of the 5 schools where interviews were conducted there was evidence of improved participation, co-operation and involvement of parents that was attributed to the influence of the IP. The report by the ECSECC (2001: 40) notes the need for continuous support and management of change because people tend to revert back to old habits and styles unless there is continuous support and monitoring. This is important with parents as well. People need to be motivated, supported and appreciated especially when they are still involved in the process of learning.

The respondents were asked to describe the effects such changes had on the running of the school. Their responses are shown in the table below.

Table 4.3.2(o) Effects of changes in principal’s relationship with parents on the running of the school

Responses	Principal	Teachers
Community involvement	17 (51.5%)	55 (46.2%)
Smooth running of school	12 (36.4%)	35 (29.4%)
Missing	4 (12.1%)	6 (5.0%)
Teamwork		13 (10.9%)
Total	33 (100%)	119 (100%)

Table 4.3.2 (o) shows that improved relations between the school and parents resulted in community involvement and the smooth running of the school. Some instances of this involvement will be discussed in the next chapter.

Community involvement was one of the main aims of the IP. Fullan (1991: 249) observes that parent participation is effective when someone or some group has the responsibility for organizing and conducting specific activities that bring parents and school together for a particular purpose. This seems to have been the case with the vision crafting process which culminated in the production of visions and missions by all school role players and celebrations that brought role players together for the benefit of the school. Fullan (Ibid) concludes further that the vast majority of parents find meaning in activities related to their own children than in school- or system-wide endeavours. For example, in most of the schools parents seem to have managed to build some form of structure, whether a classroom or a principals’ office in the schools discussed in the next chapter because these were meant to solve a specific problem related to their children. As mentioned earlier, this is the area in which the IP seems to have been visibly successful.

4.3.2.4 Views on changes in managing material and physical resources

One of the broad aims of the IP was ‘to improve the quality and availability of appropriate teaching and learning materials’. The IP supplied all the participating schools with teaching and learning material. For this reason the IP had a module on ‘managing material and physical resources’. All the school role players were trained

in this module. There were two themes related to this that were recurring in all the modules, namely, transforming teaching and learning and developing and managing resources in under-resourced environments. The principals and teachers were asked what the impact of the provision of teaching and learning material was in their schools. The table below presents their responses.

Table 4.3.2(p) The Impact of the provision of teaching and learning material

Responses	Principals	Teachers
Improvement in quality of teaching/learning	14 (42.4%)	55 (46.2%)
Availability of resource materials	6 (18.2%)	13 (10.9%)
Developed sense of ownership	4 (12.1%)	
Improved use of discovery methods		36(30.2%)
Gained managerial skills	7 (21.2%)	
Teacher motivation and confidence		10 (8.4%)
Missing	2 (6.1%)	5 (4.2%)
Total	33 (100%)	119 (100%)

Table 4.3.2 (p) shows that just half of all principals and teachers (42.4% and 46.2% respectively) thought the provision of teaching and learning material had improved the quality of teaching and learning, the core business of the school. Teachers emphasized that they were now able to involve the learners in class and learners developed creative thinking as a result of the IP. As will be seen below, the provision of material helped the teachers to understand OBE better. Teachers developed self-confidence and were motivated. 30.2% of the teachers said the material facilitated the use of a learner-centred approach and encouraged use of discovery methods. One of the problems with learner-centred approaches is that the teacher must provide learners with learning material. The lack of teaching and learning material has been one of the reasons why teaching and learning have continued to be teacher-centred in Black schools in the EC.

Managing teaching and learning material included ensuring its safety and that it was used effectively. Thus principals were asked if they had storage for keeping the material. This was necessary because one of the problems of the region where the research was done was backlog in the provision of classrooms.

Table 4.3.2 (q) Availability of storage space for keeping teaching/learning material

Responses	Principals (n = 33)	Teachers (n = 119)
Yes	16 (48%)	60 (50.4%)
No	15 (42%)	56 (47.1%)
Missing	02 (9%)	3 (2.5%)
Total	33 (100%)	119 (100%)

Table 4.3.2 (q) shows that 48% of the principals and 50.4% of the teachers said their schools had secure storage space for keeping the teaching/learning material provided to all the participating schools. A relatively high percentage (42%) of the principals and 47.1% of the teachers said their schools did not have secure storage or any storage at all. The unavailability of secure space for keeping teaching and learning material, according to the respondents, resulted in the loss of most of the material such as science kits. This loss meant that in some schools, despite the training, teaching and learning could not have been improved as would have been the case if this had not happened. The backlog in classroom provision continues to be a serious challenge in the EC despite the improvements. The provision of expensive teaching and learning material to schools without ensuring its safety shows that contextual factors were not always seriously considered in the planning of the project.

The fifteen principals who indicated that they did not have storage were asked where they kept the teaching material. Nine (60%) of these stated that they kept the material in nearby homes. This obviously affected the extent to which it could be used effectively. Principals stated that when it rained it was difficult for the material to be collected as it would be damaged. They further noted that it disrupted the management of the school as pupils had to be sent to collect and to return the material for storage. Sometimes learners would be sent to collect the material only to find the owner of the homestead was away. This therefore limited the positive impact of the IP on teaching and learning in those schools which did not have proper storage facilities. Yet the provision of teaching and learning material was a critical strong point of the IP. This strength was necessarily compromised by the consideration that some material got damaged, was vandalized or lost and affected time management.

4.3.2.5 Views on the transformation of teaching and learning

Although one of the main objectives of the IP was to improve the quality of teaching and learning in the primary schools under study, contextual and other factors militated against its optimal impact. In addition, there was no guarantee that any changes that were initially achieved could be sustained.

Transforming teaching and learning was an important theme that recurred through all the modules. The teachers were actually trained in their respective subjects. Principals were expected to improve teaching and learning, and teaching and learning material was provided to achieve this. For this reason I wanted to establish whether principals were involved in the actual teaching as this was likely to have an impact of their management and supervision of teaching. In addition, I wanted to know if the IP had any effect on the relationship between the principal and the teachers. This is because such a positive relationship seems to have an extraordinarily positive effect on of teaching and learning. According to Fullan (1991: 108), effective principals showed an active interest by spending time with teachers, planning, helping teachers get together, and being knowledgeable about what was happening. The table below shows the number of principals who said they were involved in the actual teaching.

**Table 4.3.2(r) Do your responsibilities as principal include classroom instruction
N=33**

Category	Frequency	Percentage
Yes	28	85%
No	03	09%
Missing	02	06%
Total	33	100%

Table 4.3.2 (r) shows that an overwhelming majority (85%) of principals regarded hands –on teaching, notwithstanding the importance management, as essential to their vocation as principals. Those principals who said they taught each mentioned that

teaching gave them an advantage as this kept them informed and gave them confidence in supervising and guiding teachers.

How the principal views teaching affects the way teachers view it and the approaches that are likely to be emphasized in the school and in the supervision of teaching and learning. How a teacher views teaching and learning influences the approaches that she adopts in the teaching and learning situation. Transformation of teaching and learning includes changing methods of teaching and learning and this change is related to the perception one has of teaching and learning. For this reason, after participating in the IP programme, both principals and teachers were asked to select from a list of activities to indicate the meaning that they attached to teaching. The table below shows their responses.

Table 4.3.2 (s) How principals and teachers viewed teaching after participating in Imbewu.

Item	Principals	Teachers
Helping learners acquire learning skills	17 (51.5%)	65 (54.6%)
Both transmission of knowledge and helping learners acquire learning skills	14 (42.4%)	48 (40.3%)
Missing	2 (6.1%)	6 (5.0%)
Transmission of knowledge	0	0
Total	33 (100%)	119 (100%)

Table 4.3.2 (s) shows that most respondents saw teaching as going beyond rote learning to helping learners acquiring learning skills with the teacher as facilitator.

As was mentioned earlier, teachers in the Transkei region of the EC tended to use transmission style of teaching which is teacher-centred and therefore encouraged rote learning and passivity on the part of learners. This was linked to the unavailability of learning and teaching materials which was caused by under-funding of African education. The fact that the IP provided learning material was recognition that availability of learning material makes it possible for teachers to plan activities that encourage learners to play an active role and therefore take more responsibility for

their learning. However, as mentioned earlier, the loss of the teaching and learning material provided contributed greatly to the failure of the IP to impact on teaching and learning as envisaged.

Table 4.3.2 (t) Description of changes of relations between principal and teachers after participating in Imbewu

Responses	Principals	Teachers
Teamwork	18 (54.5%)	63 (52.9%)
Sound communication	7 (21.2%)	28 (23.5%)
Participative management	5 (15.2%)	20 (16.8%)
Positive attitudes	3 (9.1%)	6(5.0%)
Missing	2	
Total	33(100%)	119 (100%)

Table 4.3.2 (t) shows that many principals had begun to adopt a participative style of management as a result of the IP. The majority of principals (54.5%) and teachers (52.9%) thought that relations between the teachers and the principals were characterised by teamwork which implied that s/he was involving teachers in management. Involvement of teachers could mean that the principals are willing to share power but it could also mean that they are overwhelmed by the amount of work brought by site-based management.

Although the impact of the IP was limited and changes achieved were generally not sustained, there were indications that in areas such as community involvement, it did succeed in educating the communities about their roles in school governance and management. While generally this and other changes were not unique to the IP, the IP helped in fast tracking the implementation of such policy imperatives as parent involvement in school governance through the SGB. The areas of tension which were bound to rise were better handled and managed because of the IP collaborative training approach.

Table 4.3.2 (u) Impact of changes in the relationship of principal to teachers in the running of the school

Responses	Principals	Teachers
Improvement in attitudes	13 (39.4%)	54 (45.4%)
Effective teaching and learning	9 (27.3%)	36 (30.3 %)
Smooth running	8 (24.2%)	23(19.3%)
Missing	3 (9.1%)	6 (5.0%)
Total	33 (100%)	119(100%)

Table 4.3.2(u) shows that 39.4% of the principals and 45.4% of the teachers thought that there had been an improvement in the principal's attitude towards teachers. Such attitudes are likely to correlate with better working relationships and hence result in more effective teaching and learning and the smooth running of the school. The three changes mentioned by all the participants actually complement one another in ensuring an atmosphere that is conducive to effective learning and improvement in the quality of education. These changes in the relationship between teachers and principals suggest that the IP had had a positive influence on the relations between the principal and the teachers.

4.4 CONTEXTUAL AND EDUCATIONAL FACTORS THAT INFLUENCED CHANGE IN THE SCHOOL MANAGEMENT PRACTICES IN THE CONTEXT OF THE IMBEWU PROJECT.

As already mentioned the impact of the IP was not optimal. A number of contextual and educational factors have been identified by the participants as the reason for its failure and for its success where this was the case. Because of the variations in the contexts, histories and experiences, there was a tendency for contrasting views of the same situation and apparent contradictions. In order to get deeper insight into this complexity Chapter 5, based on in-depth interviews, will be devoted to a further consideration of the IP's successes and failures, strengths and weaknesses.

One of the strong points about the IP identified by all participants and inherent in its design was the provision of teaching and learning material to all the participating schools. Where this was used effectively, noticeable improvements in teaching and learning were achieved. However, this advantage was undermined by the fact that most of the schools were dogged by vandalism and lack of security. It was unfortunate that about half of the schools in the sample seem to have lost the material due to lack of security and vandalism. One of the reasons for the IP to include teaching and learning material was to improve the quality of teaching and learning. Because of this weakness it is possible that little improvement in teaching and learning as well as in its management may have occurred in many of the schools.

The failure to target HODs for training in the schools undermined the sustainability of any changes that might have been achieved in teaching and learning and as well as its management. Schools were provided with teaching and learning material but teachers were not trained in using it. So even in those schools where the material was kept safely, in some of them it could not be used effectively. This further limited the number of schools in which the teaching and learning material could be effectively used in addition to those that lost it. This undermined the success of the IP. Shortage of classrooms and accommodation was another serious problem which undermined the success of the IP in improving teaching and learning. The negative attitude of teachers, particularly those that had to be trained through cascading by their colleagues, made it difficult to introduce some changes propounded by the IP effectively. This attitude further undermined the success of the IP as all teachers had to buy-in for initiating IP activities in the schools.

While co-operation with the community was, in general terms, a success, it must be recognized that the illiterate and impoverished nature of the community did have a negative effect even here. Illiteracy, poverty and unemployment affected the contribution that parents could make towards supporting the education of their children as well as financial management. It also affected the management of teachers and learners. In disadvantaged communities parents do not seem to have effective control over their children. As a result learner absenteeism tends to be high making management and improvement of teaching and learning difficult.

4.5 CONCLUSION

The factors of age, experience and the quality of a teacher's training determine whether these are going to have a positive or negative impact on the success or failure of an intervention. In the case of the IP advanced age, lengthy experience and the poor quality of teacher training tended to serve as obstructions to the optimal impact of the IP.

On the other hand, the unusual situation that well over half (58%) of the principals in the region under study were females had a positive effect on the IP implementation especially with regard to teaching and learning. This was because research has found that female principals tend to exert more control over teachers' professional activities and have a greater understanding of what takes place in the classrooms than men.

The success of an intervention rests on a number of elements: the training of participants, support as well as monitoring over an extended period of time are essential for the institutionalization and sustainability of interventions. In the IP, while the quality of the training was perceived as good, it appeared that the duration did not allow for assimilation and in-depth understanding. In addition, the cascading model of training was regarded as a threat to the successful implementation of the IP as it reduced the amount of knowledge that reached the majority of teachers in the schools. The IP training seems to have helped principals and SGB members to understand their role in the school and to participate better than before.

The 'management' modules of the IP coincided with the management areas that are included in the SASA. The consistency between the EMD modules of the IP and the management areas in SASA suggest that the designers of the IP training programmes were guided by the policy. Therefore, the IP programme was appropriate for supporting and enhancing the work of the ECDE in improving school efficiency.

Poverty proved to be a serious challenge to the success of the IP intervention in the most disadvantaged schools. The poorest schools were unable to take full advantage of the IP intervention in terms of training manuals and learning material compared to those which were better off.

The democratization aspects of the transformation agenda were not all warmly supported by principals and specifically, principals did not welcome the need to work with SGBs who were often poorly informed about school matters. However, they were ready to use them in those aspects that were not directly related to their own management work such as mobilizing parents to attend meetings, providing security for the school and contributing to the provision of additional classrooms and or offices. Principals continued to wield power in the SGBs because they were superior to all parent members of the SGBs in terms of knowledge, expertise, and official information from the department.

The principals working in co-operation with the teachers that participated in the IP succeeded in putting in place systems, processes and support structures that were aimed at improving the way teachers do their work to enable them to provide quality teaching to their learners. These included collaboration, evaluation, classroom visits and decision-making.

Amongst the principals the aspects of the training that received the most positive comment were those that would immediately impact on school management and would improve efficiency. But some principals also appreciated those aspects of the training that prepared them for a new (democratic) vision of schooling.

The IP intervention was able to introduce and promote a transformation agenda in schools which resonated with teacher hopes and expectations. Some of the most positive comments related to those aspects of the training that gave them a stake in the running of the school.

Some contextual factors such as a shortage of classroom and office accommodation undermined the achievements of IP. Furthermore, the failure to provide sufficient teaching and learning material undermined the efficacy of the IP training in some schools.

While it is acknowledged that the impact of the IP was limited by many factors and that most of the changes achieved could not be sustained, those participants who

underwent the training and were involved in the implementation of the IP noted that they have changed in their understanding of the need for change.

CHAPTER 5: QUALITATIVE DATA ANALYSIS AND INTERPRETATION

5.1 INTRODUCTION

In this chapter I look in more depth at the perceptions of principals, teachers and SGB members. I visited five selected schools and interviewed each of the informants who were based there once. The methodology that I used was discussed in Chapter 3.

The purpose of this chapter is to provide more detail of and insight into the views of the school role players. In Chapter 4, using analysis of a questionnaire, I was able to identify the major trends in the perception of principals, teachers and SGB members. To recapitulate, these included that principals responded positively and well to the school improvement aspects of the training and with some ambivalence towards those measures which tended to reduce their power or impose further obligations (such as working and consulting with SGBs) on them. It was found that teachers responded positively to those measures that increased their participation in school governance as well as to training that was likely to improve their classroom performance. SGB members also appear to have welcomed the IP training as for the first time they were trained to participate in the development and governance of schools. On the other hand, Chapter 4 also pointed to some limitations including the low levels of qualification of many teachers and the deep and enduring effects of poverty.

In this chapter I asked the stakeholders to talk at greater length about how IP had affected their work in schools and how it had affected the school environment. I was interested to hear their perceptions of the impact of IP and in order to make sense of this, I began by asking all role players about the quality of the IP intervention.

The chapter proceeds in the following manner. The first section discusses perceptions of the quality of the IP training. The next section examines the impact of the IP intervention. It does so in a number of sub-sections. The first examines school management and resources, the second examines perceptions of changes in the climate of teaching and learning, the third focuses on relations within the school community and with the SGB while the final one examines the intractable issue of school power relations.

5.2 ADEQUACY AND QUALITY OF TRAINING PROVIDED BY THE IMBEWU PROJECT

The first phase of IP (with which this thesis only is concerned) consisted mainly of training and the implementation of activities in the schools as well as monitoring and evaluation. Training was the first activity that involved teachers, principals, SGB members and trainers. As mentioned in section 2.2 1, training is one of many factors that determine whether the activities of the intervention will be successfully implemented. I therefore believed that exploring the participants' perceptions of the quality of the training was important as a starting point. The perceptions of participants towards the training would determine their attitude and ultimately their understanding of the programme. Their positive attitude and understanding of the programme would influence their commitment to the project's activities during the implementation process. I assumed that the quality of the training would be related to the experience and knowledge of the facilitators or trainers themselves, the time spent on each module and the approach adopted in the training workshops. The first interview question I asked was therefore about the quality of the training. The first research question 'Did the intervention provide adequate and quality training and orientation for school principals to enable them to manage the tasks' was posed to the principals and because they, together with the SGB members, were trained on management issues, the SGB members were asked the same question. The next section therefore discusses the responses to this question.

The responses to this question revealed that the principals thought the training was of high quality. They described it as 'good' (P1, P4, P5), 'so good' (P2), 'a good job' and 'thorough training' (P3). The training was conducted by the education development officers (EDOs) and the lecturers from the former colleges of education which had just been dis-established. As a follow-up to her comment about the EDOs and the subject advisors, Interviewee P3 said:

Well, on the whole they (trainers) did a good job, because the lecturers and these subject advisors would notice that the EDO has omitted something and then they would go over his or her work because the EDOs were in and out, they would present and go away.

The principal suggests that the EDOs seemed not to be getting enough time for the training and were continually being disturbed during the workshop by calls for other engagements from their offices. This is an important observation that is also expressed by a co-ordinator of the IP who was involved in that phase of the IP under discussion and is currently an EDO now involved in the current phase. She remarks:

These school visits, after school visits comes another module. In fact there should be consistency but because of time, we don't have time. In the first place, this is done by EDOs who have their own work to do. It would be better if Imbewu could, in each district, have people who are solely for Imbewu, we would have a feel about Imbewu schools.

The teachers and the SGB members shared the same views with their principals.

They were good though they were not at the same level but mostly they were good (K9)

The training was good and it helped me especially in dealing with the differences that existed in my school among teachers. (SGB7)

The comment above suggests that those training facilitators who had been college lectures were more focussed during the training than those who were EDOs. This is because the EDOs still had to return to their offices and attend to their normal duties. This shows that the commitment of the EDOs to the IP training was limited and this had to do with the design of the project which did not include the EDOs as an inherent part of the IP programme so that they could be obliged to devote all their time to the training. The comment by the ECSECC (2001: 19) seems to support the remark about the design of the project. The comment was that: "the first phase of Imbewu was located 'outside' the ECDE in order to avoid bureaucratic red tape. This led to confused perceptions that Imbewu was an alternative to ECDE". The perceptions that the IP was an alternative to ECDE may explain why the EDOs were expected to be doing the training while they were also expected at the same time to continue with their normal duties. It means the project was perceived as peripheral to the activities of the province. The lack of commitment and obligation might have undermined the training and the implementation process of the IP.

Despite the fact that the trainers “did a good job’ some participants conceded that they did have problems understanding some of its aspects. The comment by interviewee P1 below hints that the participants had difficulties understanding but this was compensated for by a discussion by those who had attended the training at the school before they trained other teachers. This obviously meant that they had to spend more time than they expected yet the project was bound to a fixed three-year period.

The deputy principal attended the vision-crafting module, but I discovered that they (deputy and teachers) came back with difficulties. They didn’t understand it but the manual was there. So we took the manual, discussed the manual and then became motivated such that even myself even though I didn’t attend the vision crafting module, I understood it (P1).

The principals, teachers and SGB members who attended the training had to train those who had not attended. The cascading training model was therefore used. Most participants were experiencing the IP activities for the first time and, although the training was described as good by many, the fact that it was squashed over a short period did not give the participants enough time to assimilate what they had learnt to enable them to immediately train others. Limited assimilation and understanding, however, did not mean that they would not continue with the implementation. It meant that they had to spend time trying to consolidate their knowledge and understanding before they could train their colleagues in the school. In the process of training their colleagues, it is possible that the information could be distorted. The ECSECC (2001: 43) notes that the “cascading-training model did not work as expected because information was distorted as it was cascaded to colleagues”. This problem was also expressed by most of the participants. For example, one principal (P4) made the following statement about the cascading model of training:

Yes it (cascading model) works. But if they could have funds I wish they could take all the teachers for training.Because other people may not understand when it is presented by us alone. (P4)

This comment was also made by a teacher from another school:

It (cascading) is not completely right because when you hear something directly from the person, you gain a lot... whereas when you hear it from the second or third person it can never be exactly the same, you see, because if s/he grasped 80% of that may be s/he will deliver 60 % and maybe you will grasp 40% and yet if we were all trained, it would be different. (K10)

She continued thus:

They should have scheduled time and taken this group, then take another group, rather than rushing to finish all the modules, ensure that every teacher has been trained in a particular module.(K10)

No, it was not enough we really needed some more training but what we were given was actually good for us but it was not enough. (K9)

It does help the training of non-key teachers...although I personally would prefer that everybody listens herself or himself because sometimes you feel that if they were present they would understand better by listening themselves.(K3)

The teachers were not used to the programme, i it's new and it's worse to those who were not the key teachers the other teachers, the other teachers who did not go for the workshop and they are still experiencing problems. (K5)

The same sentiments that training needed to be done for all teachers were expressed by the SGB members:

Educators all need to be included in the training workshops because some are hard to change. This causes divisions in the school. (SGB7)

While the participants seemed to have positive comments about the quality of the IP training, they seemed to be critical of its duration. For example, P1 said the following about the duration of the training “Yes, we were satisfied because we gained something (P1). The reason given for the satisfaction with the duration seems to stem from the fact that, even though it was short, it did introduce them to the content of the modules which they knew nothing or little about. They were therefore better off than before. However, P2 was explicit about the insufficient duration of the training when she said:

No, it was not enough because when we were there we wanted to know, we were so interested but because of limited time we went back to our schools, you see without that complete information. (P2)

Interviewee P2 continued that:

I felt that if we can get enough time I am sure everything will be o.k. but that information at least gave us something for a start. (P2)

Teachers echoed the same sentiments:

I would like the department to give more time, I think it was short because there was a lot to learn from those modules. (K14)

I could say it was short, I think I would prefer to add more time because you find that when you try to implement the module, there comes another module of which you have to implement that's why I said it would have more time than it had.(K11)

The training was short and I sometimes missed something because the interpreters were not good and the presenters were rushing. (SGB1)

The phrase ‘at least it gave us something for a start’ echoes the same sentiments expressed by P1 that “at least we gained something”. These phrases show that the participants acknowledged that, despite the short duration, the IP did succeed in initiating them to new knowledge to the extent that, as P1 notes, they were able to discuss among themselves the areas that they had not understood before they trained other teachers. What this suggests is that the short duration forced them to spend more time during the implementation. This was demanding and might have affected the implementation and understanding of those who had to be trained through the cascading model. This was expressed by P2 and P3 as follows:

Definitely, if we can get more time for training, then we will find it easy to implement. (P2)

It was rather short because we usually took one week, then went to school to train other teachers. (P3)

Because this was our first experience, we also have to organise parents to come, we have to prepare. For the occasions (vision crafting) that were supposed to be organised at our school the trainers wanted us to bring the parents closer to the school right from the start. The week that we used to spend for training, then go back to the school, and organise parents, starting with the SGBs, calling the stakeholders and telling them that the school has to prepare for the vision crafting was too short. They would give us limited time to prepare before they announced their visit for the vision-crafting launch. We were not provided with money. As a result we had to ask for money from the parents. This made time seem too short. Despite this we were able to prepare for these occasions to be successful. (P3)

The above excerpts identify the time constraints under which participants worked. The time allowed for both training and implementation was insufficient and obviously compromised the implementation process. There is also a hint that, although this project was meant to reduce inequalities and its effects, there was a tendency for these inequalities to increase in relation to the benefits from the training. The role players were supposed to organise vision crafting event to bring the community into the process but this still hinged on the availability of money. As will be seen later, they also had to pay for transport to the training centres themselves. For each module each participant was given a training manual but they were not provided with any manuals to distribute to the teachers in the schools. So the school had to make funds available to make photocopies for all the other teachers. This was not feasible for schools with meagre funds. These financial issues indicate that those schools that were financially better off would be able to make better use of the opportunity for training and implementation and ultimately providing quality education than those who were more disadvantaged.

With regard to the quality of the trainers, the participants observe that the majority of them were good especially the college lecturers and the subject advisers.

The quality of the trainers good, of course people differ, you find that the other one is good and the one is not like the first one, they are not equal. (P1)

It would be the EDOs, subject advisors and those lecturers who were from the disestablished colleges. The college lectures and the subject advisors were better than the EDOs. However, they were also trying but you would get the impression that they were not getting enough time for training or were being disturbed. So the majority of the trainers were good, particularly the lectures and the subject advisors. (P3)

Teachers' views supported those of their principals. For example, interviewee K2 said:

They were sure about what they were doing and wanted to ensure that people understood; they were good.

As indicated earlier, training is one of the many factors that influence the success of implementation. Another is the buy-in of participants. While the key teachers seem to have been motivated by the training in a big group situation with teachers from

other schools, this was not easy for the non-key teachers who had to be trained by their colleagues at the schools through cascading. This is obvious from the statement by P1 when asked how the training of their colleagues affected the implementation:

For the first time it affected the implementation because they (non-key teachers) did not transform easily, but the ones who attended the training at least there was direction, they were motivated, but these ones were a bit slack but as the time went on they picked up. With those who were not trained at first there was difficulty. So, we needed more time to train them before we could start (P1).

The principals and key teachers also had to contend with the attitude of the non-key teachers towards the training as they introduced the other teachers to the IP activities and this needed time. The difficulty stemmed from the fact that, firstly they had not been selected for the training. Secondly, they needed to be convinced about the need for the changes that were being introduced through the IP. Changing practice and habits is difficult and extended time is needed to achieve it. It becomes even more difficult when one has to be initiated into new habits by the very person with whom one has been working and sharing the same activities and attitudes for a long time. One has to work at changing her or his attitude first. The following comment shows that the attitude of the non-key teachers was negative.

They showed lack of interest, actually they were voicing it out that they hate this Imbewu. Then you had to tell them that Imbewu empowers them with many things, that when you are a teacher you expect that one day you may be a school principal or an HOD. So you need that training, everybody needs that training because it capacitates everybody, so that things are no longer as before when we were fumbling. (P3)

I only noticed one teacher who was negative towards Imbewu, the male teacher. So I noticed that he thought it had a lot of work. (P2)

We as the team that represented the school succeeded, because we managed to get teachers to work as groups... Before, at our schools we used to theorise about the need to work as a team so that we can bring our problems on the table in order to solve them together. But we did have problems of teachers who were negative, they thought that we were the only teachers who were supposed to know about the Imbewu training, that they who did not attend the training are less involved and are not even interested to learn and get training so that they can understand this. They would give us problems about many things, sometimes you would find that they would not want to participate fully, but we tried hard and also because we were also trained about how to manage their resistance to the change, that we should not fight with them, bring them

slowly on board, by looking at the things that make them show no interest in knowing about the things done at the workshop; so we used to have such problems and you would find that they felt that we were just adding more unnecessary workload, so it was a matter of trotting .. along with them slowly, in as much you will find that when the time comes for reflection, they would be reluctant and remind you that they did not attend the training, then you have to remind them that if the key teachers attended the training, it is understood that the whole school has undergone the training (P1).

In addition to the attitudes of their colleagues that they had to contend with, one principal describes the other challenges that they had to face, namely, time and money for reproducing the training manuals.

When Imbewu started we used to call them and train them. We would have time for a training session. The key teachers, all of us who went for training in fact we would return to the school and share the modules among ourselves, just as the trainers did at the workshops and then you go to them for the training with the training material. But you would find that it is not like at the workshop because, unlike at the workshop, the teachers at the school didn't even have the manuals that we had at the workshops, we who were at the workshop are the only people who have manuals, we who are facilitating are the only people who have manuals, now they depend on us, they have nothing to refer to. You find that you don't even have funds to be able to make photocopies for them. So we are not given copies of manuals for the teachers at our schools that we are supposed to train. You are not even asked how many teachers you have in your school, so that you can be given a pack for your teachers at the school and so that when you start the training they also have manuals to refer to. (P3)

Most of the schools did not have money to reproduce the training manuals for all the teachers in the schools. The failure of the project designers to include the production and supply of manuals for the non-key teachers was a serious shortcoming for the project. It is another clear example of a situation where the context was ignored in designing and planning the project. As mentioned in chapter 1 the schools under study are in the most disadvantaged communities. Most therefore could not, from their meagre school fund, afford to pay for transport to the training venues as well as the production of workshop documents that were very thick. The fact that the non-key teachers had to be trained without having their own copies presents and draws a desperate picture of the implementation process because this training was the basis for its success.

As already indicated some teachers (those not involved directly in the IP training) were not enthusiastic about the cascade phase training they received. When asked

how the negative attitudes of the non-key teachers affected the implementation, the respondents indicated that it slowed them down. Their sentiments are represented by interviewee P3 as follows:

It influenced it, because, as I said it made it slow but as we were required to keep portfolios of evidence so that when they (monitors) come to make a follow-up on the work and to assess the learners and the community, it would be slow but it would be done until it was completed, it was necessary that it was finished because they (monitors) would follow us to see that each activity was done. (P3)

The excerpt above reveals that the principals and key teachers experienced challenges such as the negative attitude, lack of interest and resistance to change. The non-key teachers tended to think that only the key teachers were supposed to implement the IP activities. The respondents all noted the pressure of time that they needed to persuade their colleagues to come on board which indicated that both the training of the principals and key teachers and the training of teachers at the schools needed extended periods of time.

The non-key teachers had problems because, as the principals and key teachers intimated, the information that reached the non-key teachers was distorted and reduced. This view was expressed by the non-key teachers as represented by interviewee NK 1 thus:

Cascading was not beneficial as I felt that those who went for training did not share the information I think the information got distorted when it was transferred to us.

5.3 CHANGES IN SCHOOL MANAGEMENT PRACTICES

The principals observed that when they were appointed to the positions of principal they were never trained and therefore did not know the extent and nature of their responsibilities and had been forced to find their way on their own. In the absence of training in management on assuming principalship, like principals elsewhere, their success had been gauged on maintaining stability (Fullan, 1991: 145) rather than stimulating change. The principals conceded that the training that they received from the IP had empowered them to become change agents in their schools.

One principal said:

We principals, we don't get training to be principals. Because of Imbewu, we are good principals for our schools now, because Imbewu taught us everything, how to manage the schools. Ever since we attended these trainings we became agents of change. (P2)

The statement indicates that the training seems to have helped principals to change their conceptions of themselves and their identity. Fullan (1991: 167) notes that depending on their conceptions of their role, the principal will work with change or avoid it. Therefore, in order to change one needs to change his/her conception of his/her role. When principals stated that the IP has changed them into agents of change it gives the impression that they were aware that they were expected to assume responsibility for improving the quality of education in their schools. In addition, the SASA also makes principals responsible for implementing a new dispensation including more democratic decision making and child-centred learning.

The principals were united in their appreciation of receiving knowledge and skills related to their roles as school managers. Knowledge creates confidence and a sense of identity. This sense of identity is evident in the point made by Interviewee P3:

As for me personally, it has transformed me towards my work, it has encouraged me to work. We were fumbling, we had no direction as principals, and we could not see beyond, it opened my eyes, I know how to guide my school, because if you are a principal who does not know anything, who does not want to know, who does not read books, you wont be able to guide your teachers and enforce the department regulations that are in the school policy

The point made here also reveals, 'opened my eyes' how the training helped them understand their roles as principals and how it encouraged them to value continuous learning in enhancing their leadership quality. The current emphasis placed on principals to be learning experts is alluded to by Botha (2004).

5.3.1 Changes in financial management practices

Chapter 4 indicated that principals were most positive about those elements of IP training that they thought would help to improve the running of their schools and raise the quality of learning and teaching. In this section I focus on the principals'

perceptions of the impact of IP training on their own performance in the school setting.

As mentioned earlier the South African Schools Act, (1996) introduced school-based management in South Africa. School-based management involves a process of decentralising decision-making concerning the allocation of resources to the school level and the democratisation of school governance and management. The IP was introduced in SA at the time of transformation which was characterised by this decentralisation. This decentralisation and attendant responsibilities pose challenges and demands on the personnel, particularly the principals, in the schools as it gives them roles that demand expertise, resources of time and money that are usually limited or non-existent in certain schools in SA.

In primary schools in the rural areas the income generated from school fees is very limited because of the impoverished environment in which these schools are located. In school-based management, management of funds is shared with the SGB and this potentially poses problems because it dilutes the power of the principal as well as requiring him to work with a body which is often composed of members who are illiterate and so do not have the necessary skills to work with budgets and school finances.

The broad question of the interview schedule on financial management and control: include the following sub questions: “How do you think the IP has influenced your management of the school’s financial resources?” This broad question was followed by a number sub-questions. These sub-questions included aspects of good financial management that are expected to be in existence in every school according to the new dispensation of site-based management and devolution of power to the schools. Most of these questions were therefore meant to establish the existence and operation of financial controls and related procedures and mechanisms. As indicated in Chapter 4, the IP training did indeed focus on these aspects of financial control. Specific questions asked in the interviews included the following: Does the school have a financial policy? If yes, how was this developed? If not, what were the obstacles? Does the school have a finance committee? If yes, how was it constituted? How does the finance committee function? If not, why is there no finance committee? Does the

school have a budget? If yes, who is involved in drawing up of the budget? Who is involved in the implementation of the budget? Who approves, monitors and controls the budget? Does the school have receipt books? If yes, who collects money? If not, what happens to the moneys received/collected? How are payments made? Are monthly or quarterly statements kept? Are annual reports audited? The following discussion will therefore focus on the response on financial management and changes experienced in this regard as a consequence of the IP.

The responses to the broad question revealed that the principals thought highly of the contribution of the IP in the development of their financial skills and in changing their practices in the management of the school finances. According to the principals the IP helped them ‘a lot’ (Interviewee P1), ‘so much’ (Interviewee P2), ‘a great deal’ (Interviewee P3), ‘gained a lot’ (Interviewee P4; P5). One of the most important changes noted by all the respondents with regard to the management of finances was the principals’ involvement of SGBs in the management of finances in general. The principals and the teachers concurred that participation of SGBs in financial management was an important change that principals had managed to effect in the school as a result of their participation in Imbewu training. Interviewee P2, for example, emphasised the extent to which she was involving the SGBs in the management of school finances since her implementation of the IP thus:

There is nothing we can do without the SGB, even now we are in the process of trying to get a computer, but they can’t just see us giving a report that we took money and bought a computer, they must know before, for that matter, we have to sit down with them and tell them what we think we should do as the school.

One SGB supported this assertion thus:

We, the SGB, we have decide on how school fund and other monies are collected by the school, and the treasurer is a parent. (SGB5)

While the excerpt by the principal above suggests that the principal involves the SGB in decisions about the use of funds, there is a hint that the principal actually makes the decisions and then dictates to the SGB. The principal (P2) said “*we have to sit down with them and tell them what we should do as the school*”.

According to Mestry (2004: 130), in general the principal is expected to facilitate, support and assist the SGB in the execution of its statutory functions relating to the assets, liabilities, property and other financial management issues. The specific areas in which principals and teachers maintained they experienced changes will be discussed in the next section.

One of the areas in which all the respondents agreed there was a change was in the sources of finance. In addition to the school fund from parents and donations, principals mentioned fundraising as one of the sources of revenue for their schools. All the respondents, principals, teachers and SGB members interviewed emphasised that one way in which Imbewu has improved their capacity to increase the school revenue was training them how to fundraise using small things like funny days and spring days. Principals noted that this served to relieve the pressure on the school fund and helped them refrain from raising the school fees every year. Fundraising is of paramount importance especially for schools in poor disadvantaged communities where money is not easy to come by. This is why the IP regards the development of financial management skills, particularly fundraising, as one of its important components. The principals said they were able to do fundraise because they were trained. Mestry (2004: 126) observes that every school manager, whether a member of the SGB or school management team, must have some knowledge and skills relating to the inner workings of the finances of a school and therefore need a firm theoretical framework to underpin their actions. The IP training was meant to provide such a framework and skills to the participants, although the extent to which it was understood by all participants would be assumed to vary according to the participants' educational and literacy levels as well as the quality of the training and the time spent on it. Secondly, the principals stated that they were able to fundraise because the training included the SGBs who were therefore able to influence the parents and the community in supporting such ventures. Everard and Morris (1996: 201) suggest that fundraising should be considered as a source of revenue when going through the budget. The emphasis placed on fundraising by the IP shows the extent to which context was taken into consideration when planning its content. This is significant in view of the importance placed on the influence of context in educational change. Harris (1998:13) suggests that contextual factors must be taken into consideration when applying school improvement strategies. However, the value of fundraising in

schools whose catchments area is as poor as the schools under consideration is bound to be limited. This is because the sources of funds even to support the ‘small ways of fundraising’ will still be the same poor parents who struggle to pay fees. Schools and their contexts are after all like ‘ecosystems’ (Stoll & Fink, 1996). Therefore, the extent to which fundraising can be used to generate funds in order to increase revenue in schools located in disadvantaged communities is limited. However, generating a little revenue is not the same as doing nothing at all. The following excerpts show how the respondents concurred about the value of the IP in encouraging them to fundraise.

...it was difficult even with the school fund, then Imbewu taught us that we have to learn to raise funds for the school, we must not always wait for the government to do these things, at least the little you can do, do it, and then they showed us how to fundraise, meet as an SGB and find ways of raising funds, show parents. There must be a meeting an SGB meeting first, then call parents and tell them that there iswe must encourage parents and teach them what fundraising does for the school, so that we don't have to raise school fund now and then. The small things of R1.00, 50c, R2, will make it possible for school fund to manage, and remain where it is for some time. So it teaches a lot about fundraising and working together as a team. (P3)

All teachers agreed with their principals that the management and control of the school finances had drastically improved. They attributed this to the efforts of the school principal. Like the principals, they also attributed this change partly to the participation of the SGBs. The fact that the SGB was trained and the fact that they were trained together with the principals, according to the teachers, made it possible for the SGBs to understand and accept their responsibilities in this regard.

5.3.1.1 Formulation of finance policy

The change in the management of finances, according to the principals and teachers was indicated by the existence of financial policies. The principals agreed that they managed to develop financial policies in their schools after the IP training and they had managed to do this due to the co-operation of the SGB who mobilised parents. The development of the policy involved all the stakeholders although they admit that their learners are still too inexperienced to play a significant role. The teachers emphasised that the principal played a leading role in this. According to Mestry (2004: 131) the school policy must be developed, adopted by all the relevant

stakeholders and implemented accordingly. The extent to which principals ensured representation of all the stakeholders in the formulation of financial policy, was articulated by Interviewee P3:

All the stakeholders are represented, you (principal) can prepare an outline or draft because they don't know how to go about it, you need to give them guidelines, then you formulate the policy together, considering the South African Schools Act, you should ensure that you use the guidelines.

It is evident that all the stakeholders participated in the development and adoption of the finance policy as required by the SASA and as noted by Mestry. However, it was evident from the principals that, although, the act stipulates that the SGB must ensure the existence of and the effective execution of a sound watertight policy and also management procedures (Mestry (2004: 130), it was the principal who organised and ensured that this happened. Again this was because she had better knowledge about this and had the resources at her disposal. Maile (2002: 329) remarks that illiteracy among SGB members may render them ineffective because it may preclude them from accessing relevant management information from the principal. The knowledge available to the principal may put her in a superior position and encourage her to continue wielding power and authority over the SGB. To emphasise her superior knowledge on this, when asked how the financial policy was developed, one principal said:

You (principal) call a meeting, you call the parents, and then you (principal) tell them that we are trying to formulate a finance policy, then you show them the official guidelines, you are already carrying the book that is going to help you, the South African Schools Act helps you, then you show them the format. (P1)

The statement indicates that this whole process revolved around the principal. There is no indication that the SGB led the process. There seems to be no indication on the part of the principal that the SGB is empowered by being provided with a copy of the Act because, as one principal intimated, they could not read. The impression created is that the act is there to 'help' the principal. She would show them the format but there seems to have been no attempt to help them understand the importance of the process. The principal was in a powerful position in terms of understanding the Act and the principles it embodies. But this did not seem to be the case with the SGB. The SGB in these schools were either illiterate or had very limited schooling and

therefore depended on the principal for reading and the interpretation of the Act. This is the point made by Adams and Waghid (2005: 30) that in the schools that are located in disadvantaged communities, like the schools under consideration, the parent component of the SGB members tend to be either illiterate or to have limited schooling to be able to enact their roles effectively. The issue of unequal distribution of power is pertinent here. In this instance, unequal power distribution stemmed from the powerful position the principal held in terms of knowledge, educational qualification and socio-economic position. This theme of unequal distribution of power is contrary to the principles of equality, participation, empowerment and decentralisation of power that are embodied in the SASA. This situation indicates that there may be a gap between policy and practice, a point made by Elmore (1995: 357) that the gap between best practice and ordinary practice and the lack of closure between policy and practice is a recurring one. This is even serious in the disadvantaged communities in which the schools under consideration are located. It demonstrates that formulating and implementing policy are two different processes. This is the one of the difficulties and contradictions experienced in transforming education in South Africa. Policies have been put in place but implementing them is proving to be a problem as evidenced by the slow rate of change in education. However, there were instances where the SGB member (SGB2) displayed extraordinary understanding of the SASA despite the low level of schooling. This shows that previous experience in a responsible position may prove to be an advantage to the members of the SGB in their work and give them confidence to negotiate space to do their work.

5.3.1.2 Changes in financial control measures

All the principals and teachers agreed that the formation of the finance policy had been followed by the formation of other committees and structures, the most important of which was the finance committee. They emphasised that the finance committees did not exist before the IP but in 2004 when the data was collected they were in existence and from the evidence from the minute books they were still functioning. The respondents noted that they had scheduled quarterly finance committee meetings and sometimes more, depending on the need. Budgeting was also seen as an important indicator of the success of the principal in managing and

controlling the finances of the school. In particular, the participation of all the stakeholders in budgeting was seen as indication of change in the principal. This is apparent in the response by Interviewee P1 when asked to give examples of things that she was not doing before the IP:

Things that we were not doing before, we did not have what is called school fund committee, then Imbewu taught us that you cannot handle moneys alone, you need a finance committee and a finance policy, they go together, they work together....

Van Deventer and Kruger (2003: 241) note that drawing a financial policy, setting up a structure to handle financial matters, delegating some functions and co-ordinating these activities constitute the organization of finances of the school. They note that the school principal holds the position of financial manager in the school. This is the role prescribed by the SASA. The existence of the finance committee and representation of all stakeholders entailed a change in the control and decision-making regarding the use of school monies. It meant that the principal was no longer the only person responsible for school monies. It was emphasised by most respondents that that before the IP monies were controlled solely by the principal, and sharing control of such finances therefore entailed a significant change on the part of the principal. This is obvious in the response by interviewee P3, that:

Before, school monies were kept by the principal, and she would do whatever she wanted to do and would come to the teachers to tell them that 'I have done abc with the school fees', the monies would be controlled by the principal alone.

The view expressed by the principals was shared by most teachers as evident in the response by one teacher:

That has changed the principal a lot, the principal is no longer working alone, we work together as a team and his word is no longer final but now he can listen to our views. (K12)

Interviewee P3 added that the IP taught them the need for a finance committee to ensure transparency. She added that, according to the IP, the members of the finance committee had to be elected from the stakeholders. In this way transparency would be ensured as all stakeholders would be represented and as the SASA stipulates. She said:

In fact, it taught us that there should be a finance committee, we were taught transparency in our schools, that there should be a finance committee, and this should be elected from the stakeholders, the finance committee should report to the SGB, then the SGB will report to the parents, all this must be transparent.(P3)

All the five school principals and teachers concurred that the finance committee gave financial reports on a quarterly basis to the SGB and annually to the parents. They indicated that this had not been the practice before the IP. For instance, when Interviewee P4 was asked to give things that ‘were specifically introduced by Imbewu’ she observed that they had been practising some of these things informally but had not been consulting. After the IP they were compelled to do them formally and involve other stakeholders. She commented that:

You see, the finances, I have gained a lot. We did not have things like petty cash. We did not do them formally as we do them now. They suggested quarterly reports, before we used to sit as teachers, they suggested that we should sit with the stakeholders, include all the stakeholders, even do the budget together, what I am trying to say is that some of these things we did not consult.(P4)

Van Deventer and Kruger (2003) state that ensuring that the necessary control measures prescribed by the SASA are undertaken is the responsibility of the school principal and the SGB. Financial reporting is one such control measure. The SGB and the school principal are accountable for the finances of the school to the parents, the learners, the community and the Department of Education. To be able to give a clear picture of the state of the finances, the principal as the financial manager should ensure that monthly and quarterly statements are kept. A final report on the income and expenditure for the financial year must be submitted to the SGB for approval. Parents must be invited to comment on and acknowledge the annual report. The responses of all the participants referred to confirms that the IP has encouraged principals and the SGB to ensure safety of the school finances through financial reporting. Interviewee P4 remarked that they used to give annual reports in November but that they had been advised to do it at the end of the official financial year, end of February. This is therefore one instance of formalising the practice, aligning the school financial year with the national practice. In addition, representation of all stakeholders on the finance committee and quarterly and annual

reports were seen as forms of transparency, which is one of the principles of democracy emphasised by the SASA.

One of the important things that emanates from these responses is that school principals are aware of the current legislation relevant to the management of their schools and that they attach great importance to the application of such legislation the running of their schools. The two excerpts indicate the importance of the role played by the school principal in ensuring that the official guidelines are used and the need thereof for her/him to be well informed about such policy.

Despite the active participation of the SGB in financial matters, it is apparent that the overlap between professional matters and governance by the SGB, referred to by Mestry (2004) does create problems and tends to give the principal leverage over the SGB. This makes it difficult, particularly in cases where the parents in the SGB are illiterate and economically disadvantaged as many of the participating schools were. As a result, although the structures were in place, there are indications from the principals and the teachers that the principal was still playing a major and determining role even where the SGB was supposed to be in control. The principals therefore tended to work closely with their SMTs and teachers, particularly in relation to decisions of who should be treasurer and in collecting and ensuring that school monies were deposited in the bank. For example, although she later emphasised the role of the SGB, Interviewee P2 initially intimated that she had more confidence in herself and her teachers about money issues. When asked how the finance committee was developed, she said:

We the teachers of, decided to have a treasurer, the treasurer is not the only one who looks after monies, when the school fund has been collected, there are two teachers who check how much has been collected today, how much money we have in the bank, and we get bank statements from the post, then they read the bank statement and I am the first one to know the situation regarding school moneys, then we discuss it. (P2)

Practices such as the use of a cheque account as opposed to the use of a savings account was seen as an important aspect of financial control that was introduced by Imbewu and all school principals had initially managed to introduce it. However, in one of the five schools, which was the smallest in terms of numbers, this had proved

to be a problem. The numbers of learners were so low that the revenue from the school fund was very limited. The school decided to switch to the savings account because the bank charges were absorbing most of the funds. This situation demonstrates the role played by variations in context in the success or failure of interventions at the implementation stage. The school mentioned above was the only one of the five that had not been accorded the section 21 status in 2005. Although the principals and teachers did not know the criteria used, they were certain that the selection of a school as a section 21 was a recognition by the Provincial Department of Education that this school could manage its finances. They attributed this to the co-operation between the principal and the SGB and the IP training. This perception is supported by Mestry (2004: 130) who notes that Section 21 is allocated by the Department of Education only if the school has proven capacity. He observes that such selection was determined by ensuring that the school had managed its own funds efficiently and that it was complying with all the regulations as stipulated in the SASA. This included submitting audited financial statements of the school within the six months of the following year. When the school is allocated section 21 functions, the provincial department deposits the schools' resource allocation directly into the school banking account.

The use of receipt books, cash analysis books and annual and quarterly statements were perceived as forms of financial control introduced by the principals after participating in the IP training. Bank deposit slips were also kept as a form of financial control and for presentation to auditors. Although the principals in these schools had always used receipt books, monies were deposited in the ordinary savings account and no chequebooks were used. This had resulted in the exposure of public monies to easy abuse and corruption. Principals started using cheques after exposure to the IP training which reduced the possibility of fraud. Interviewee P3 adds that

If the school can open a current account there will be no chance of school moneys disappearing, this also makes things easy when there are auditors because we use a chequebook, whatever you do for the school you use a cheque.

Despite this P3 makes a statement that further emphasises that context can play a limiting role in the process of introducing changes in schools.

In cases where rural shop owners, who are used to cash purchases, refuse to accept cheques, the school gets a quotation of the item to be purchased, signs a cash cheque which must tally with the quotation.

This view was shared by most of the respondents. The efforts that they take to ensure that they follow the correct procedures show some of the difficulties that schools in rural areas have to contend with. In addition because of high crime rates, most schools have stopped accepting cash for school fees. But again, the context forces them to deviate from the practice that is accepted as safer, that of asking parents to pay fees at the bank or at least to be flexible its implementation.

As the money is deposited in the bank, we issue receipts to the learners, when they bring deposit slips and then other parents don't like depositing money in the bank, particularly in our backward areas, it depends on the environment. (P3)

The information from the principals indicates that they were empowered by Imbewu to fulfil one of their responsibilities as financial managers i.e. that of ensuring that school funds are collected and deposited in the school fund account. The collection and purchases from the school fund are prescribed by the SASA and the school principal has to ensure that the act is adhered to in managing the fund.

The existence of a financial policy and its formulation according to the SASA indicates that the school principal, as a result of IP training, was aligning her practices to/with current legislation, which demanded that all stakeholders, in particular the SGBs, must participate in the governance of the school. The existence of the finance committee and scheduled meetings of finance committees to discuss the use of money and to budget indicated the practice of transparency in the management and control of finances of the school. This was in line with the democratic principles of broad participation, transparency and inclusiveness that inform the SASA. In almost all the schools the respondents indicated that parents and teachers participated in budgeting and that any form of deviation from the budget was discussed with all the stakeholders. They emphasised that the IP had encouraged them to adopt a participatory style of management. The shift to participative and accountable management practices in the field of the school's finances is important though

ultimately is in danger of being overstated. It is also clear that principals prefer to maintain ultimate control and indeed ultimately are the individuals who are personally accountable for efficient and honest financial management. It is probably best, therefore, to summarize these developments as in the first place unambiguously contributing to school efficiency while in the second place and at the same time constituting part of a contested process of introducing democratic procedures into school governance.

5.3.1.3 Conflicts and contradictions in managing school finances

According to Mestry (2004: 130), the SGB is responsible and accountable for the management of funds of the school. However, the provision that the principal must facilitate, support, and assist the SGBs in the execution of its statutory functions relating to the assets, liabilities, property and other financial management issues causes some contradiction and sometimes leads to conflicts or ineffective functioning by the SGB. This is because the limits and boundaries on each role are not clearly defined. According to Mestry (2004: 127) there is an overlap between professional management by the principal and governance by the SGB. This area of overlap has given rise to many conflicts between principals and parent members of the SGB (Mestry, 2004: 127). This is because it is difficult to differentiate between what professional matters are and what governance entails and each person will interpret it for their own convenience.

In addition, Mestry (2004: 127) notes that section 20 of the South African Schools Act provides the SGB the power to administer and control the schools property, and buildings and resources occupied by the school. The SGB in most cases delegates various financial tasks to the principal and thus holds the principal accountable. A problem with delegation of duties from the SGB to the principal is that the principal is generally better informed with regard to the delegated tasks than the SGB. The danger in this is that the principal may use this information to pursue his or her own objectives at the expense of the school. This implies that the principal is in a position of wielding power when the members of the SGB are either illiterate or have little knowledge when dealing with school financial matters.

A further possible area of conflict is apparent in the positions in the SGB. Maile (2002: 328) notes that neither the principal nor a teacher can be elected as the chairman of the SGB. He observes that this provision seems to be a threat to most school principals because they are used to take decisions alone and it may encourage them to find ways of clinging to power and try to dictate to the SGB. This view is expressed by one teacher indirectly when asked who authorises purchases and as follows:

They (the SGB) do come and are told to sign some cheques after it has been authorised by the principal. They are told about what we have already decided. (K4)

It is significant that this particular teacher was a member of the finance committee who had been to the training. Of additional significance was the fact that she was an HOD who was about to complete her degree in law and therefore understood the implications of the SASA clearly. It was also important that these remarks came after she had indicated that the SGB were participating in the management of finances and that monies were even deposited in the bank by treasurer. This was a very notable contradiction but from observation of the teacher-relationships in the school and the principal's general attitude, I believed her. Her observations may imply that the SGB and the finance committee are not taken seriously in decision-making. When probed she explained that:

Nothing much has changed, because I said from the beginning it entirely depends on the character of a person. If a person is autocratic, it's not easy to change the character of that person. (K4)

The conflict that usually develops between the principal and the parent component of the SGB is apparent from what one SGB member said:

The teachers were included in the finance committee. The principal was one of the signatories by force. (SGB7)

There seemed to be a lot of conflict in this school between the principal and the members of the SGB. What is of interest is that this SGB member was the most highly qualified with a diploma in adult education. He therefore had a better understanding and did not accept being dictated to by the principal. This shows that it may be difficult for other principals to relinquish the power and share responsibility

with the SGB. This could easily undermine the efforts of the department through such interventions as the IP to change the management and governance of the school as fast as it wishes unless monitoring and support is strong. SGBs could be seen by some principals as encroaching on their powers. Since principals are usually in a powerful position in terms of resources and knowledge they may frustrate the efforts of the SGBs to do their work of governance.

5.3.1.4 School Records Related to Finance

In-School records were used to corroborate what principals, SGB members and the teachers had said about the management changes and practices that had been introduced in their schools through the IP. The perusal of these documents revealed that there had been a great improvement in keeping records of activities and practises that were taking place in the schools.

In four of the schools in which I was able to see the records I noted that records of meetings of school committees, staff meetings, cash analysis, and receipt books indicated that some management practices had been taking place before the IP. When the IP started certain changes in the old practices were effected and new practices were introduced.

According to the principals, before the IP they had a trust account with the magistrate's office and monies were deposited in those accounts. When the IP started they were introduced to the current account which involves the use of a chequebook with more than one signatory; the treasurer and one other designated finance committee member. Prior to this the principal was the sole signatory and as such could utilise the school's financial resources without any consultation or any accountability. They were not budgeting and were 'guided by events' on how money was used. The IP training focus was on guiding the principals on the formation of finance policies and finance committees as already been indicated earlier. As a consequence of the IP training, minutes of the finance committee meetings were recorded in separate notebooks allocated for this purpose. The policy documents on finance were made available to me for perusal and I also observed that posters of abridged finance policy statements adorned the walls of the staffroom cum principal's

office. All of this is a demonstration of the successes of IP intervention in this area, since prior to the IP intervention such practices were non-existent.

I had an ample opportunity to go through the records to see the degree of success of the IP training in record keeping. Minutes were written in Xhosa, a clear indication of the involvement of SGB members who were either illiterate or semi-literate and therefore with little or no knowledge of English. These minutes were clearly written and signed by both the treasurer and the secretary. The files that were presented to me showed all cheques that had been issued kept together. Each cheque issued and returned from the bank was stapled together with the quotation, cheque requisition and a receipt and these were kept in a file. All these principals were not signatories for issuing of cheques. Practices such as the use of cash analysis book that were there before the IP were still being practised. All monies collected from fundraising activities were recorded in detail. There was strong written evidence that management of finances was strong and had been such since the intervention of IP.

5.3.2 Managing material and physical resources

This section analyses the perceptions of principals and teachers about the changes in the management of material and physical resources as a result of the IP. The principal and her/his staff have the responsibility for the maintenance and safekeeping of material and physical resources of the school which include classrooms and grounds as well as teaching materials. This responsibility had increased in four of the schools as a result of successful fund-raising which led to the construction of physical structures such as classrooms and principals' offices. These had been built as a result of the co-operation of the parents and the school encouraged by the IP. But responsibility for these resources is not that of the principal alone, and all the stakeholders were trained in a module called managing material and physical resources.

According to Everard and Morris (1996: 201) the control of material resources involves the following: (i) making sure that material resources are actually present by keeping up-to-date inventories which are periodically checked (ii) ensuring that

someone is clearly responsible for the control and maintenance of each piece of equipment.

5.3.2.1 School records of equipment and teaching materials

In the four schools where I was able to see the documents I was given the inventory and the asset register which are the two records of equipment and teaching material such as books. The principals explained that before the IP they did not have the asset register. The IP had introduced the practice of an asset committee and an asset register. They explained that the asset register shows the date an item was received, the order number and the number of items received, how many items were allocated and to whom and how many were returned, how many were written off (if no longer in usable condition) and how many were remaining. Each time an entry was made the stock controller had to sign. On the other hand the inventory book just showed the articles available. There was evidence that management structures for equipment and teaching material such as the asset committee, and records for furniture, books and other material such as garden tools were in place and attempts were made to take proper control of all the material in the school.

Of more interest to me was the teaching material that had been provided to the schools and the extent to which it was used for the purpose for which it was provided – to improve teaching and learning. The responses of the principals and teachers showed that there had been poor planning for the safe keeping of these materials. These included cupboards that were meant to lock these in. It seems as if initially in all these schools these were kept in the schools. In all these four schools most of the material was stolen and vandalised before the remainder was taken to the village for safekeeping. Even the material that was saved could not be used effectively because it could not be collected on time without disturbing teaching and learning and time management in general. The management and the use of the material were therefore difficult when it was kept in the village because of problems of access and distance. Only one of these five schools was able to keep the material in the school where there was a relatively safe storeroom fitted with burglar proofed windows and doors. In addition to the issue of safekeeping, there were problems of effective utilisation of

these materials because teachers had not been trained in their use. The following extracts indicate the problems experienced in this respect:

Unfortunately, before Imbewu we did not have ways of keeping teaching aids, because Imbewu gave us science kits, boxes and charts that are very expensive. We experienced a big loss, there was a break in and the science kits were broken, magnets and thermometers were stolen by learners to play with outside, all these things are very expensive, the teachers were not using them because they were not trained on how to use them. Most of the time the government just dishes the material to schools and you find that teachers don't know how to use them. For example, we have just been given trunks of first aid kits in 2002, I suppose, but the teachers have not been trained on how to use the material. (P3)

It is the same when you want to use it, you can go and fetch it because when we keep it at school it is vandalised. (K12)

5.3.3 Improving the quality of teaching and learning

One of the modules in which the principals and SGBs were trained was developing systems and processes for human resource productivity. Human resources in the school are teachers. Productivity refers to their effective teaching and ability to help learners learn effectively.

According to Hopkins et al (1994: 25) at the classroom level educational changes and innovations are rarely tangible objects but are manifest only in the way that teachers and pupils interact. This means that change and innovation are difficult to view in concrete and instrumental terms in the classroom situation. One of the roles of the school principal is to facilitate the interactions among those who play a role in the education of children, including teachers, learners, parents and members of the community.

Principals said they encouraged teamwork among their teachers. They said that they encouraged teachers to form teams according to phases and subjects. They observed that the formation of teams made it easy for teachers to assist each other in solving problems that they encountered in their classes. Such teams created a platform for them to discuss and find solutions together. When Interviewee P1 was asked what

practises she encouraged in her teachers to ensure improvement in their productivity, she responded thus:

The first thing is to say to them, 'since you are phase teachers, there is foundation phase, intermediate phase, and senior phase, to make work easy, you must meet as a team because some of you will have difficulty, and one may help her, so you must help one another.(P1)

Interviewee P3 shared the same views. She said:

First we have phase meetings with them because the idea of phase meetings was introduced. I get into all the phases, I have to be there if we are going to have phase meetings. I train them that they must work together, so that if there is anything in which one of them has a shortcoming, she can be helped by others, if they work together there won't be anyone get the information from others...and that they must come up with their problems that they encounter in their classes so that we sit together, discuss and find solutions to them. Imbewu also trained us in the skills of dealing with the teachers. (P3)

The principals acknowledged that teamwork offers an opportunity for teachers to share ideas and help each other. This is based on a general understanding that teachers are not the same. Although teamwork has its own weakness and shortcomings, its value is that those who have weaknesses may learn from those who have better knowledge. Working together does not only help those who are weak in some aspects of the work but also brings out creativity in others where it may not have been obvious. Teamwork develops interest and helps create a platform for teachers not only to share problems but also to come with solutions and come up with ideas. This is clear in the following statement by Interviewee P 3:

Making them work together develops interest in them, and you find that these people are creative, nevertheless you do not know that they have creativity and the number of things they know, sometimes they are better than you in others, if you find time to sit at the round table with them and share problems...sometimes you find that the solution comes from them; how about doing this and they bring clever ideas. (P3)

However, teamwork can be delaying and irritating to those people who by nature, prefer to work independently and alone, and if it is not properly planned and made part of development programme as is possible in an action research programme. It can also be disturbing working with people who never or seldom have anything to offer or very little to offer in a team situation because they do not exert themselves enough in

preparing. In addition, for teamwork to be rewarding and fruitful it must be focussed on problem areas. What is more important is openness in a school situation that makes it easy for a person to solicit help when one needs it and to have a well organised teacher development programme that allows planning, doing and reflection on of successes and real problems in the classroom.

According to the teachers the IP had helped the principal to adopt a collaborative approach which had encouraged teamwork not only among themselves but between the principal and the teachers. Most teachers seemed to appreciate their collaborative teamwork. This confirms the findings in a study by Nias (1989) cited by Fullan (1991: 141), that the majority of teachers wanted more collaboration with other teachers. One teacher (K1) said of the effect of collaboration encouraged by the principal:

Yes, it has helped, when you need assistance from another teacher and when you have a problem in a certain area you go there to ask for help. You don't feel small like you used to before. You did not have confidence to ask, it was like you knew nothing although you are a teacher. You can express yourself without fearing to ask something that you don't understand. (K1)

The freedom to express your need for learning by admitting when you don't know something suggests a degree of growth and that space was created for this. The principal facilitated this collaboration not by making it official but by creating the space for collaboration and encouraging teachers to make their own decisions concerning the teams.

Hargreaves and Dawe (1989) suggest that there are two forms of collaboration: one form acts as a tool for teacher empowerment and professional enhancement, bringing colleagues and their expertise together to generate critical yet also practically-grounded reflections on what they do as a basis for wiser and more skilled action. This type of collaboration is organic and very slow to develop (Cohen, 1995: 86). The second form refers to the breakdown of teacher isolation as a mechanism designed to facilitate the smooth and uncritical adoption of preferred forms of action introduced and imposed by experts from outside. In this form of collaboration teachers become technicians rather than professionals exercising professional judgment. This is what Hargreaves (1995: 155) refers to as 'contrived collaboration', which occurs when collaboration is made into an administrative device and tends to suppress the desires that teachers have to collaborate and

improve themselves. The researcher did not detect any evidence of contrived collaboration even in the school where the principal was described as autocratic. In fact, the same teacher intimated thus:

The activities of Imbewu were effective, the other thing is that sometimes when you deal with these activities as a group then teaching activities are a success. When we group ourselves then we discuss such a specific learning area before we go to our learners then teaching becomes successful. (K4)

The statement expresses the enthusiasm for the success associated with the introduction of teamwork. Cohen (1995: 85) refers to psychic and professional gains achieved by teachers from teamwork. The feeling of success in the classroom emanating from discussing as teachers before going to class gives them renewed energy, builds their confidence and gives them a feeling of power and boosts their self esteem. When asked if the principal monitored them when they were grouping themselves, Interviewee K4 responded thus

She did not monitor us, she did not do that but through our positive attitude towards Imbewu, especially the core educators, we grouped ourselves and did the activities.

The impression gained was that the teacher was being critical of the principal but this shows that collaboration was not contrived. However, there were subtle indications that the limited monitoring and evaluation by the trainers had encouraged relaxation on the part of the principal and SMT in the management regarding teaching and learning in most schools with respect to supervision and monitoring the activities of the IP. For example, when asked if the activities of the IP have become part of their daily lives as teachers, one teacher had this to say:

Not all of them because there is also part of management, they (trainers) encourage supervision, then if supervision is not done then activities of Imbewu cannot be of much success. The principals have been encouraged to manage the school and see to it that the IP activities are being done even in the classroom. So the managers, that is, the principals must supervise, that is why I am talking about monitoring, if the monitoring does not come from the trainers, and encourage the principals and heads to supervise, then it means Imbewu activities will not be done. (K4)

Ingvarson and Mackenzie (1988), Supovitz et al (2000) and Hopkins et al (1998) emphasise the importance of a system of ongoing external support, in the form of 'on-

site visits' and 'on-demand support' in increasing the rates and efficacy of interventions and real change in general. External support and monitoring would encourage support and supervision by the school principals, deputy principals and HODs to their staff. This does not negate the role played by local ownership of the intervention but it seeks to emphasise that where a culture of teaching and learning has been destroyed, it can be expected that such local ownership will take a long time to be rekindled. The schools in the rural areas which have been plagued by numerous problems need to be supported over a long period to develop the attitude, the beliefs and a positive conception of their role, and their ability to improve themselves. This is expressed by Cohen (1995: 4) that we need to keep in mind that the reality of school reform is that few grounds are truly fertile and if fertility emerges at all, it will happen at an extraordinarily slow rate, most often in the midst of arid soil. This serves to emphasise the need for improvement to be given enough time to take place, as in cases like the ones under discussion, people may not be receptive and it may take time to change them.

As mentioned earlier, the project had found it necessary to provide the participating schools with teaching and learning material. This was recognising that materials play an important role in teaching and learning. However, as already discussed above, the teaching and learning material was not used effectively. The principals' management of teaching and learning and the extent to which she could support teachers was affected by the socio-economic status of the school. This shows that poverty can make it difficult for some schools to take advantage of benefits offered by interventions such as the IP unless these disadvantages are taken into consideration during planning and/or design of the project. This meant that the inequalities between these schools and their counterparts increased instead of being reduced. This suggests that it is difficult to break the dysfunctionality of schools related to poverty.

Another way in which principals said they helped develop the teachers improve their teaching was by conducting class visits. One of the major changes that they noted was firstly, the fact that, unlike before the IP training, they were required to inform the teachers before the visit to give them time to prepare and not just pounce upon them as it was done before. This, they said, had not been the case before IP. The main focus of the class visits was now on developing the teacher than to hold her/him

to account. As mentioned earlier, the portfolio serves to show what the teacher does. The excerpt below shows that the focus of the class visit was now on developing the teacher and the approach had become more open. There was now an attempt to create an atmosphere of dialogue that makes the teacher to relax. Interviewee P2 had this to say:

As a member of the SMT I also visit certain classes, for example, I do class visits in the foundation phase. So when I get to the class, it does not matter where I start, I ask for the work. There is going to be a stage where the teacher presents the lesson. I write down her weaknesses and where she has done well, and after the lesson I call the teacher alone to the office to discuss the lesson. When I talk to her I have to explain to her, relaxed, that there is really nothing problematic, I just need to correct here and there. I take a piece of chalk and demonstrate to her how the lesson could be better presented so that learners can understand better. ...Most of the time she usually comes to my office after some time to report that there is improvement in the way learners are responding, even where she seems to be lacking in the teaching aids, or where you see that a certain teaching aid can be effectively used to improve learners' understanding of a particular lesson, I usually bring something to her and suggest that it can be used for a particular lesson. (P2)

The comment by this principal is very interesting to me because on one of my visits to her school, I found her busy preparing a teaching aid on a chart paper. On enquiry she told me that she was preparing it for one of her teachers. This close relationship of the principal with her teachers and the extent to which she seemed ready to go to support her teachers in improving their teaching was striking to me and suggested that the IP had had an effect on the principal-teacher relationships in some schools.

Most principals and teachers also commented about the change in the approach of the principals in dealing with teachers in particular, class visits. When asked exactly what had changed in this respect, Interviewee P2 said:

It's the approach, because before you used to see somebody who was useless or lazy, only to find that it is not that she is lazy, its just that she does not know how she can conduct the lesson, and you would also sit and pity the person wondering what was wrong with her or him. But ever since I attended Imbewu I was taught that we should also help one another in the school.

The same view about the change in approach was shared by Interviewee P1:

You have to inform them (teachers), you don't just present yourself in class, you must first of all inform them that you will be visiting them, maybe if you realise that you are pressed with time, you inform three days before, and if possible you can tell them seven days before so that she can be ready and you tell him so that you can offer support on what you found him doing.

One teacher had this to say:

They are checking the work in the classroom, for exampleshe tells you the day she is going to be visiting you. Before, you were not told before the day that you are going to be visited. (K11)

The effect of this on teaching and learning was described as follows

What I have achieved is that there is now better interaction, there's co-operation, they work as a team and you can see the attitude has changed, the attitude is just positive, its just easy and pleasant, its not that situation where if you are going to visit a teacher in class you had to adopt a negative attitude. There is interaction and the teacher shows gratitude for the assistance you have given her. (P1)

The impression created is that the value of a class visit is no longer to inspect but to give support and it is thus important that the teacher must be given an opportunity to prepare. This shows that the IP had taught the principals some degree of professionalism and this included treating their teachers like professionals.

As mentioned earlier, one of the observations was that teacher-principal relationships had changed slightly as a result of the IP in some of the schools, especially in the four. However, there was evidence that some principals, while they were ready to implement certain aspects of change, were determined to contest their power and protect their interests. For example, there were indications that relationships in one of the four schools were extremely tense. There was tension between the principal and some teachers and it seemed that the principal was explicitly autocratic. In fact, it seemed that the principal was having serious problems. This is implied in the following extracts by two of her teachers.

Principals of the old system were dictators, let me put it that way. She belonged to the old order. But with Imbewu she has changed at least. (K5)

Another teacher, when asked how the principals helped them to improve their performance, she said:

It depends on the character of the principal. With my principal she gave us only some idea, but she has some problems with the implementation. (K4)

Like for instance the supervision, that is what I'm talking about, if you cannot supervise as the principal of the school then the work cannot be done. (K4)

The two teachers who made these comments were two of the four in this school who had attended the training with her on many occasions and were aware of the expectations from the principals and the extent to which they were supposed to share in the decision-making. In fact, Interviewee K4 was a HOD and was extremely dissatisfied with the attitude of the principals towards teachers and the SGB members.

The observation by these teachers was confirmed by my own experience with her. There was no principal's office and a classroom was used by both the principal and the teachers, so it was easy to observe the relationships. When I came for the interview with her, which was scheduled for 10 o'clock, I had to sit in the staffroom for an hour waiting for her to finish whatever she was doing. This was despite the fact that she had scheduled the appointment herself after several failed attempts to see her. After about 30 minutes she asked me to leave the room as she wanted to talk to her teachers. Leaving the room meant going outside or to my car. When she finally joined me in the car the first question she asked was how long the interview was going to take. I told her that it was supposed to be about 30 minutes but that it also depended on her responses. She made me feel that I was wasting her time. A few minutes after we started the interview she opened the car window to talk to a man who was walking in the school premises. I had to be as patient as I could. She seemed to be trying to show me that she was in charge. This made me believe what the two teachers had intimated about her dictatorial attitude which did not seem to have been changed in anyway by the IP training.

In the fifth school, it was rare to find everybody at school. However, relations with the principal seemed to be so relaxed that it seemed that authority was weak. This was one of the smallest of the 5 schools with only 4 teachers and the principal. This is the school where the issue of human agency of the principal emphasised by Christie

(1998) was doubtful. According to Christie, a sense of human agency means the ability to act in a way that you are not controlled by circumstances around you even where you can do something. For example, buying handles for doors is something that any principal can manage. The classrooms were never locked, the school was not fenced and the desks were broken. The environment was not conducive to learning.

The majority of teachers believed that since participating in the IP training the principal was encouraging teamwork and that decision-making was inclusive rather than exclusive (Singh, et al, 2002: 59).

One of the skills that principals were taught in the IP training was delegation. Teachers confirmed that in some schools, in the wake of the IP training, specific portfolios had been delegated to teachers who were given responsibility. All the teachers cited the example of subject departments and phase groups. Subject heads and subject teachers were responsible for managing their departments and were given space to share in the decision-making. However, some principals may have been giving space to their teachers because they were not keen to get involved in monitoring the teachers in the changes regarding teaching and learning. One teacher (K4) said about the principal

She [the principal] did not monitor us, she did not do that but through our positive attitude towards Imbewu, especially the key teachers, we simply grouped ourselves and did the activities.

It is clear therefore that the teacher-principal relations are not as cosy as some would rather have us believe. In most schools I visited the interviewees were not forthcoming in expressing their misgivings concerning the teacher-principal strained relations, for obvious reasons, such as the suspicions concerning the confidentiality of the interviews and the resultant fears of persecutions should the information given fall into the hands of the principals. However, hints were dropped here in there. For instance while one of the teachers (K4) was not open about the dire autocratic nature of her principal, she broke down and cried. She later described the situation using a cryptic language to the following effect:

Nothing much has changed, because as I said from the beginning it entirely depends on the character of person. If a person is autocratic, it's not easy to change the character of that person. (K4)

Another one stated less tenuously:

Principals of the old system were dictators, let me put it that way. She [our principal] belongs to that old order, but with Imbewu she has changed. (K5)

The contestation of power by the principals and their attempts to protect their interests will be further clarified in the teachers' description of the relations between the principals and the parent component of the SGB in the next section.

5.3.4 Changes in school-community relationships

Most parents in black schools, particularly in the remote rural areas, either have no schooling or have limited schooling and this limits their ability to play an effective role in the running of the school and giving all the necessary forms of support to the school. In addition, many parents are unemployed, making it difficult for them to pay even the lowest school fees set and to support the school financially. This makes the work of principals and teachers in such schools more difficult than in other schools, especially the former Model C schools and some black schools in the urban areas. Nevertheless, the support of parents is necessary if poor schools are to be improved and, furthermore, it is part of the democratic mission of the SASA to promote democratic school governance. The IP took this into consideration and included a module for principals and SGB members on developing and managing relationships with the community.

One of the most important functions of the school principal referred to by the ANC (1994: 27) and the SASA is to establish and maintain relationships between the school and the community. Consequently, this topic was one of the EMD modules in which the principal and the SGB were trained by the IP. Another broad interview question, therefore, was the establishment and maintenance of relationships with the community. Within this broad question, sub-questions were included. These included

the following: To what extent would you say Imbewu has helped you in establishing close working relationship with the SGBs? Could you give specific examples of how the relationship may have improved since your participation in Imbewu? The following questions were asked to establish if there were indications that indeed the principal was working closely and co-operatively with the SGBs: How many SGB meetings are held a year? What are the reasons for your success or failure in working with the SGBs? How is the attendance of meetings by SGB members? What is the attitude of SGB members towards their responsibilities? What activities do members of SGB undertake in the school? How does the relationship of the SGB with the principal affect the running of the school? How does the relationship with SGBs affect the attitude of parents towards the school?

It will be recalled that principals are not likely automatically to support changes that reduce their power within schools or make their work more onerous. Consultations (part of the democratic process) may well yield better decisions and improve the learning environment but they also impose on principals a set of new tasks which are added to those s/he already has to undertake. The fact that many of the principals were relatively advanced in years and had learnt teaching in the days when authoritarian, top-down practice was the norm, was also likely to have played a part in complicating the response of principals to the initiative to democratize the school and decentralize decision-making. In light of this, I was interested to see the extent to which principals had indeed begun to work with communities and to establish what form such work had taken.

Encouragingly, most principals and teachers believed that there had been significant change in their relationships with the community, that is, the SGBs and the parents. Teachers also observed that whereas previously the principal would take decisions alone, after the IP training there was a change, which was confirmed by all respondents. Principals also observed that participation in the IP had helped them to change the way they worked with the SGBs. They noted that before IP the SGBs were 'inactive'

Imbewu helped me a lot because the SGB before was inactive, immediately when they were called and work shopped by Imbewu and we did that vision-crafting and they have seen that the school is not dependent only on teachers, the school is also theirs. (P5)

One principal said that ‘only those interested would come’ for meetings’ (P1)

It has changed the way I work with the SGB, they were highly involved; Before Imbewu only those few who were interested would come, others would not care but now if you say there are going to be celebrations for something, they show interest and commitment, it is not like before.(P1)

One teacher concurred with the principals about this as follows:

There was a change with the SGB members, they stopped behaving in the way they did before the training where they would be called for a meeting and nobody would attend. Since the training there has been a change in our school, things are not as they were before. (K3)

Principals thought that the major reason why the SGB members began to co-operate with them was that they attended the training with them and this provided them with an understanding of their responsibilities and what was expected of them in terms of legislation. This suggests that lack of knowledge about the nature of responsibilities and expectations was regarded by the participants as one of the reasons for the reluctance of the SGB to participate actively in the governance of the school. The communities in which the schools were located were characterised by extreme poverty. Consequently, the SGB members had low levels of education and therefore lacked the required literacy levels of participation (Singh & Mbokodi, 2004: 301). Their lack of knowledge undermined their motivation and prevented them from enacting their roles effectively (Adams & Waghid, 2005: 30). This lack of literacy resulted in their lack of understanding that they had a positive and constructive contribution to make to the school even without academic knowledge that principals and teachers possessed. Sometimes this lack of literacy resulted in misconceptions such as thinking that whenever a teacher was not at school s/he was necessarily not on duty and would approach the school to confront the principal about their absenteeism, which sometimes would not be the case as teachers sometimes attended workshops or would be officially on leave. So, this lack of literacy and the action based on it would result in unproductive relationships between the school principal and the SGB members.

This was expressed by one principal (P2) as follows:

At the beginning we had an attitude towards the SGBs because even they, when they came to the school they used to come to fight with us, they would come to complain about absenteeism of teachers from school without knowing sometimes that that particular teacher was on leave, but when we attended Imbewu workshops, they would listen themselves, which brought peace between the principal and the SGB. So now, when an SGB member enters the school premises, you (principal) are not anxious about what the problem could be, you know you are going to discuss constructive issues, they also bring their views, you at school, as the principal see the opportunity to share with your SGB members how we can work in order to achieve something, it is pleasing to work with them. (P2)

In reality, in four of the five schools co-operation between the SGB, the parents and the school had resulted in the construction of some form of building whether a classroom or a principal's office during the period 1998-2002. Given high levels of poverty, this is a notable achievement and one which bears testimony to the success of IP training in this regard.

All teachers except one concurred that the IP training and implementation had resulted in changes in the relationship between the principal and the SGB and parents. The teachers shared the same views.

According to the teachers and the principals attending the IP training with the SGB members resulted in some changes in their attitude. They started coming to school to discuss constructive issues such as giving advice to the principal where it was needed. This resulted in a positive relationship between the principal and the SGB. One principal (P3) said of the changes brought by the IP on the SGB:

Imbewu has worked a lot, and I think the reason why it has been so effective is because they attended the training that we (principals) attended. The department demanded that each school must come with its SGBs. So they understood this more so that they were not told by us (principals) this time but by other people (the trainers) from the department of Education what is supposed to be done at school and then the fact that they saw all other SGBs from other schools. You could see that the training was helping them see that they are behind by refusing to take responsibilities such as treasurer because the government wants them to be responsible for monies.....so they hear these things from the horse's mouth and then we find that they are interested... you find that attending the workshops made them to be effective to a point where...even when you (principal) have invited parents to a meeting, they go

from door to door encouraging parents to attend the meeting... and on the day of the meeting they are the first to arrive at the parents' meeting.(P3)

While the principals could be thought to have been in a better position in terms of academic knowledge, by their own admission, they did not know how the SGB could contribute to the school until they attended the Imbewu training. They therefore also lacked understanding of the role that could be played by the SGB. Everard and Morris (1996: 206) note that ignorance often lies at the root of conflict and misunderstanding as it leads to each party harbouring some myths about the other. This seems to have been the case in the relationships between the principals and the SGB before the IP training. Singh and Mbokodi (2004: 301) observe that school communities are sometimes themselves victims of poor education, unemployment and general poverty and are thus not able to play an active role in the education of their children despite the existence of the policy that expects them to do so. Another reason for the change in the attitude of the SGB, therefore, was the change in the attitude of the school principals and teachers themselves, which they also attributed to the training. Their negative attitude had been based on their misconception that the SGBs were illiterate and did not know anything and thus had nothing to contribute to the running of the school. They therefore thought that SGB did not need to be informed about anything about the school. This was evident in the statement by one principal (P3), who said:

For instance, we used to think that they do not need to know what is happening at school, after all they cant read, but Imbewu taught us that for proper functioning of the school you cannot do without the SGB and the parent, because, for instance, the learners are going to be late to school and you have to call a meeting and explain your problem to the SGB. Maybe learners have to take cattle to the dip, they come late, they only come to school when they feel like and then the SGB will come with a solution. We used to know only one way of enforcing when a learner came late to school- closing the gate so that she does not come in.... Now we have changed, we are working with parents. I personally have changed and I am working with the SGBs.... Sometimes when I return from a holiday I find that they have planted the whole garden with a tractor and they report to me that they have done abcd.

Teachers concurred with their principals about the change in the attitude of the SGB members and parents. One teacher said the following:

On the community side Imbewu has helped us a lot with the community involved in and own the school. Before parents were not involved they say they do not want to interfere but now after Imbewu has work shopped them even the members of the SGB there is now good relationship. They always come to school and see how things are going at school. Before you had to call them and it was not easy for them to come. They were so reluctant but if now you call them they come voluntarily to see what is happening even if you did not call them they come just to look if there is anything that they can help with. (K11)

The lessons learnt by principals from the training about the important role that could be played by the SGB is emphasised by Everard and Morris (1996: 208) who observe that while teachers may have an edge over parents in pedagogy, in management many parents can contribute on equal terms. They can be more helpful in the management of change by acting as sounding boards and evaluating the effects. The responses of the principals indicate that this was the case with the SGB after the IP training. They would go from door to door mobilising parents to attend meetings. This suggests that it is not necessarily pedagogical knowledge that is important for SGB to play an active role but as Steyn (2003) suggests, appropriate knowledge and skills about democracy to manage and lead democratically. The misconceptions about the potential role that could be played by the SGB were dispelled by the knowledge acquired from the IP training. The school principals had learnt from the training that there were problems in the school, which they could only solve with the support of the SGB. Problems that could easily be solved through the support of the SGB included learner absenteeism, (P1, P2 and P3), drug abuse and vandalism (P4 and P5). This confirms what Everard and Morris (1996: 209) contend, that SGBs are a potential source of change, and because of their position in the local community may be more helpful advocates of the school and its needs than the principal himself/herself. While Singh and Mbokodi (2004: 301) concede that parental involvement is beset with many problems, and warn against the tendency of policy designers to view community participation as a panacea for all problems in education delivery, they recognise that as part of a larger society they constitute a significant section of the community pertaining to educational matters. They therefore argue that parents need to be involved in the education of their children. Such involvement includes insight into

their children's progress, participation in decision-making and being critical of information on educational issues (Singh & Mbokodi, 2004: 301). This is apparent in the admission by principals and teachers in this study that the SGB were supportive in encouraging parents to attend meetings, that they were able to solve problems of drug abuse and learner absenteeism and sometimes would mobilise parents to offer their labour for helping in building classrooms and in ensuring the safety of the school particularly during weekends and school holidays. These are educational issues for which the principals and teachers are helpless to deal with without the support of the SGB. The SGB therefore serve as a watchdog of the school in the community. It, however, cannot be denied that where there are variations in the socio-economic status, there is a tendency for better educated and wealthier parents to be preferred as the issue of meritocracy referred to by Carrim, et al (1999: 7) sometimes cannot be avoided.

Teachers thought there was a significant change in the relationship between the school principal and the community, that is, the SGBs and the parents. Previously, the principal would take decisions alone but after the IP training there was a change, which was confirmed by all respondents. One respondent had this to say:

Before, the principal would take some decisions, at the end they would regret not having involved the SGBs but every decision that we take now we make sure that the SGBs are involved, so the relationship has changed. (K5)

There is a spirit of co-operation between the parents and the principal with the result that parents are participating actively in the activities of the school (SGB4).

The SGB meets with the principal regularly to discuss about the issues affecting the school and the parents. Things have changed, they are no longer the same as before. Now parents sometimes do come and clean the school, they also attend meetings when they are invited by the SGB. (SGB1)

During the frequent visits to the school, observations supporting the involvement of SGBs were made. On many occasions I found the chairperson of the SGB in the school. I also found members of the community responsible for the school garden in the school on three occasions one of which was a holiday (school for P1). The co-operation with the community was evident in the fact that community members were seen getting water from the school water tank. On enquiring I was informed that there

had been discussions with the community that they could get water provided that they ensured the safety of the school.

While most of the respondents agreed that the principal's relationship with stakeholders has improved in that they were participating in school governance, including financial control, taking care of the physical resources like school buildings, one respondent observed that, although her principal worked well with the SMT and the SGB "*she is a bit autocratic*"(K4).

The contradictions are obvious in the statement by this teacher in that she does not deny the fact that the principal is working well with the SGB as expressed by other respondents but she suggests that the relationship is undemocratic as all the power is in the principals' hands. She takes her point further emphasising that:

she does work with them (parents), authorising and dictating certain things to be done, for instance, Imbewu was teaching parents themselves to decide for their children in certain things and to participate clearly in the school activities but my problem is that it has not changed the principal's autocracy because she is the one who decides on the priorities which must be done at school and thereafter she tells the parents what is going to be done even if the parents need something else. (K4)

This perception of some principals was evident in the response of SGB 7. The point made by this teacher is that the existence of the structure is one thing and engaging in decision-making is another. It also echoes what Carrim and Shalem (1999: 21) observe that there is a plurality of tensions and conflicts in the social relations of the school. As indicated earlier, such tensions are caused by many factors some of which are embedded in the definitions of professional management and governance. However, it may be assumed that in creating a democratic culture one has to start somewhere. Being involved in the democratic structure is the first step that gives people an opportunity to learn and acquire knowledge about democratic principles. It is through learning that people get better in understanding that gives them the confidence and enables them to continue fighting for their democratic rights where these are infringed or limited.

The response referred to above represents what McMillan and Schumacher (2001) call discrepant or negative evidence, because it contradicted the general pattern that was coming up in some way. These authors describe a negative case as a situation, a social scene, or a participant's view that contradicts a pattern of meanings. While this did not completely contradict the point made by most respondents that parents and SGBs were participating actively in the running of the school, it emphasised the point that a lot depended on the personality of the school principal. I observed the situation presented here in the way the principal approached her staff to participate in the interviews. Firstly, it was only after three visits that I was able to talk to her. Every time she pointed out that she was too busy to see me. When I was finally able to talk to her she agreed to talk to her staff about the study but when I came it was obvious that she had not done so and she just instructed them in the staffroom to go and be interviewed. This situation was so embarrassing that I had to apologise to the teachers for this kind of approach and emphasised that participating in the study was voluntary.

5.3.4.1 Problem of Power distribution

The discrepant response by the teacher that the principal was making the decisions for the parents gave the impression that the parent representative 'voice' in the SGB might not be getting a hearing. Adams and Waghid (2005: 31) warn against situations where the parent representative voice in the SGB is not heard arguing that participation and involvement do not always translate into engagement which is the impression given by the discrepant view in this study. This again brings in the concept of power distribution in the SGB. It implies that the SGB may be involved or participating without influencing decision, meaning that they are actually excluded from the process (Adams & Waghid, 2005: 31). Yet the idea of bringing the voices of all the stakeholders together in the SGB is to ensure that they all influence decision-making. What is evident from the discrepant view is that the principal by virtue of her position of leadership power monopolises decision-making. This could therefore imply that they are an active part of the SGB structure in that the majority attend meetings regularly as expressed by all principals, but they may not be engaging effectively. This means that the IP has succeeded in creating structures but the people within the structures are not effective and this suggests that the IP has not largely been successful.

A question was asked to find out how the change in the relationship between the principal and the SGB had affected the running of the school. Both principals and teachers observed that the good relationship between the school principal and the SGB resulted in the smooth running of the school. They said it had also changed the attitude of parents towards the school with the result that they now began to co-operate by attending parents' meetings, which before Imbewu, most did not. They attributed this to the fact that the SGB was mediating on behalf of the principal and the school. Interviewee P2 said:

Eeh! I think after Imbewu workshops things became easy, because before Imbewu even when you (principal) called a parents' meeting, only a few parents would turn up for the meeting, but because of Imbewu that brought us together with the SGB, mine is easy because I talk to the members of the SGB and they are the ones who do all that, so much that meetings are well attended, we no longer have problems of parents who don't attend meetings.

One of the teachers described the effect of the positive relationship between the principal and the SGB thus:

Well, I think the smooth running of the school and their looking after the school buildings. It (positive relationship) affected them (parents) in a positive way in the sense that before we had a problem with the parents, they were not attending meetings but at least now they do attend. (K5)

Another teacher said

It has a great effect because you won't find any parent screaming at teachers at the school although before that was happening so now there is a change. If the parent does come to schools/he will come to the principal and say what s/he wants to say in a respectful manner, then afterwards s/he can come to the teacher to say something you have done to his/her child, they no longer confront us with anger and they are looking after the school.(K12)

This indicates that the co-operation between the principal and teachers and the SGBs has helped improve the attitude and co-operation of parents. Poor school- community relationships were identified by Christie (1998) as one of the major problems of education in South African Black schools. In particular, Imbewu (1999) also identified this as one of the problems inherited from the apartheid homelands. The perceptions of the teachers indicate that the IP has played a significant role in

transforming schools in this regard. It has transpired that one of the roles played by the SGBs was looking after the school property after hours and, where a security guard had been employed, they took the responsibility of monitoring if he was coming to work. This is in keeping with the functions of the SGB stipulated by the SASA. This again seems to be helping curb one of the problems mentioned by Christie (1998) and the Imbewu (1999), namely, vandalism.

5.4 CONCLUSION

In this chapter I attempted to get a more detailed, in-depth sense of how the IP impacted on the quality of schooling, on the project of transformation and on the lives of the various stakeholders (principals, teachers, SGB members). This approach also allowed me to make some sense of the factors that determined the success or failure of IP.

The context in which IP was introduced was critical in determining the impact of the intervention. The Transkei region of the Eastern Cape is one of the poorest in the country and has suffered long years of poor educational provision. This means that delivery of quality education tends to start at a very low base. Therefore, small changes introduced tend to be appreciated more than they would in more advantaged areas. For this reason the participants in this study tended to be positive about changes that would be seen as very small by other people in advantaged situation. This is seen in their descriptions of the changes that while they were not making a mountain out of the changes and their experiences they tended to emphasise that it had done something, had established a foundation for further professional development.

Where there was unanimity among stakeholders about the improvements caused by IP was in the area of financial management. The material evidence of this success was to be seen in new buildings built with monies raised while in the day to day handling of school finances, sensible choices around record keeping, bank accounts and budgeting were routinely made as a direct result of IP training. This goes down as a very positive effect of the IP.

But no process of educational change is without its difficulties. An area in which there was progress, but accompanied by contestation and difficulty was around decision-making. The transformation agenda of decentralization and democratization enjoins principals to include teachers and parents (especially through the SGBs) to participate in school decision-making. There were a number of difficulties with implementing a fundamental shift from past practice which gave principals almost unlimited power to run schools on their own. Principals were not all convinced of the benefits of joint decision-making. Some principals preferred to hold onto an authoritarian, centralized style of leadership and management. Many SGBs had limited skills – their members were illiterate and had limited ability to participate in fund-raising and little experience of financial management. It was logistically difficult to consult with all the stakeholders and to have regular meetings. In some cases, progress towards democratization and decentralisation was limited, yet in others, the emphasis on teamwork and cooperation generated new energy and harmony in the work place and was particularly appreciated by SGB members and teachers who became more active in the school environment.

One of the major challenges of any intervention is to sustain the changes that have been made. Those interviewed for this chapter were not able to make any futuristic statements about whether change would endure or not but there are indications in both directions which suggest that while some changes might last, others may not.

One factor identified as a weakness of the IP was training. The quality of trainers, the duration of training and the cascade model adopted all had problems which may impact on the long-term impact of IP on education. The IP was a short-term intervention and therefore, of necessity, limited time was spent on training and implementation. When people are initiated into something new and involving learning new habits and practices, time is of essence for assimilating, internalising and reflecting on the new practises and processes. The people being trained were expected, via the cascade model, to train others. The IP, however, had monitoring and evaluation that were meant to provide support during the implementation. Such monitoring and support would have compensated for the short training and short time for implementation and institutionalisation. However, the support and monitoring were not always effective and was uneven. Secondly, in addition to the teachers that

were trained, it may be assumed that the IP should have ensured that all HODs and deputy principals (SMTs) in the participating schools were also trained to ensure sustainability of the changes introduced. The SMTs in schools have the responsibility of supervising teaching and learning and if they had been trained they would have ensured that the teachers did not revert to the old methods when the project was withdrawn. Because the SMTs were not trained, in particular the deputy principals and HODs, they could not have had enough expertise and confidence to supervise the implementation of changes in the teaching and learning and ensure that these changes endured.

A major problem for the sustainability of the IP, however, lies with the fact that it was not properly absorbed into the district and provincial programmes. The report of the ECSECC (2001: 51) at the end of the IP (Imbewu 1) stressed that the ‘ECDE needs to ensure that all projects in professional development are institutionalised within ECDE structures’. This assertion suggests that the finding of the ECSECC was that the IP was not institutionalised within ECDE structures. Institutionalisation would have entailed, among others, training all the EDOs in the participating districts so that they understood what was expected of principals and teachers and were able to give support and pressure to ensure they continued using the IP activities. The EDOs are responsible for supporting and supervising schools. They would therefore have cooperated with the SMTs to ensure that the IP activities in the schools were sustained and would have continued to give support to the principals and SGBs on management practices. The comment by the ECSECC reporting at the end of the IP suggests that this was not the case. While there were shortcomings in both the training and implementation, this study acknowledges that the IP successfully laid the framework for the deliver of quality education and transformation. It initiated participants into management processes of which they had been oblivious such as proper financial management and controls, developing and maintaining palpable relationships with the communities they serve and developing systems and processes for improving teachers’ productivity. The IP seems to have succeeded in persuading school role players to set up management structures and related entities that were either non-existent or poorly developed but the people within these structures do not seem to have developed the ability to participate and engage actively with the changes.

CHAPTER 6: CONCLUSIONS AND LIMITATIONS

6.1 INTRODUCTION

The launch of the first phase of the Imbewu Project (IP) in 1997 was one of many attempts to improve the quality of education and to support the province in the transformation of education. It was one of a raft of externally funded initiatives in the post 1994 period that were designed to transform the education system and address the legacies of apartheid education. Many of these initiatives were intended to address the two main features of apartheid education – the racialised inequalities associated with authoritarian pedagogy and teacher-centred (rather than learner-centred) curricula and the vastly discrepant quality of education delivery to the country's children. As I show in this thesis, these two goals were not always in alignment and in the implementation of the IP they occasionally were in tension and even undermined one another.

There were some characteristics specific to the IP which gave rise to optimism that it would have a big and enduring impact. This was because, firstly, there was political will and support as well as funding and expertise. Secondly, the IP adopted certain principles accepted as the core of continuous professional development both internationally and in South Africa (SA), including, among others, collaboration and partnership, systemic and integrated approach to school improvement, whole school development and practice-base inquiry.

This study sought to examine: (1) how the IP unfolded and, through the eyes of the participants, to make an assessment of the impact of its work on the management practices in the participating schools; (2) the ways in which the IP intervention was implemented and identifying those factors which promoted or undermined its efficacy; (3) the factors that influenced the sustainability and institutionalisation of such management practices.

The questions I sought to answer were:

- Did the intervention provide adequate and quality training and orientation for school principals to enable them to manage the tasks referred to above?
- To what extent and in what ways have school principals participating in the IP changed their management practices?
- What educational and contextual factors influenced change in the school principals' management practices in the context of the IP?
- Did the district and provincial officials offer adequate support and monitoring of the project implementation?
- Have the activities of the project been sustained and institutionalised?

In this chapter I discuss the findings related to the training, namely, the selection of participants, the characteristics of the participants, the content of the training, that is, the curriculum of the IP, in particular, the EMD modules and other modules that were relate to management, and the cascading model of training used in the schools and how all these promoted or limited the efficacy of the IP. I then discuss the changes that had been put in place in schools in terms of teacher development, financial management, school-community relationships, management of teaching and learning material and transformation of teaching and learning. This is followed by a discussion of contextual factors that affected the IP and determined whether it would endure or not. Throughout the discussion, questions about the sustainability of the intervention are raised.

6.2 SUMMARY OF THE RESEARCH FINDINGS

The curriculum design of the IP was generally good and relevant to the needs of all the role players but there were aspects that undermined the sustainability of the intervention. These included the selection of participants for the training from the schools as well as the EDOs. The selection of teachers for training did not target the HODs. As a result very few of the key teachers (20.1%) had real authority to influence other teachers in teaching and learning as they were the only ones who were coincidentally heads of departments. Most of the HODs therefore had to be trained

by their teachers in the IP activities at the schools. The HODs are responsible for supervising teaching and learning and should, therefore, be in a position to oversee the implementation of changes in teaching and learning in their departments. The fact that these HODs were not trained in the IP meant that their professional authority in the implementation process of IP activities was undermined as they had to depend on their teachers regarding IP activities in their departments. They thus could not have the confidence to ensure that any changes implemented were not abandoned after the closure of the project. This limited the institutionalisation and sustainability of the changes implemented through the IP.

The selected participants showed certain characteristics and histories which played a part in determining the success or failure of the IP. The study found that the position of principal at the level of the current GET band in this region was dominated by women who constituted 58%. This is in contrast to the national patterns where management positions have historically been dominated by men. Factors such as previous attempts by the then Transkei government in the Transkei region of the EC to promote women into senior positions in the late 1980s and the current Gender Equity policy initiatives may be responsible for this situation. Research by Shautz (1995) has shown that female principals tend to derive more personal satisfaction from their work than men; exert more control over teachers' professional activities; and have a greater understanding of what takes place in the classrooms than men. The fact that most of the principals were women was likely to have a positive effect on the implementation of the IP with respect to managing changes in teaching and learning, which was the major and recurring theme in the IP.

The majority of principals (70%) who participated in the IP had lengthy teaching experience of more than 20 years. This should have been of benefit to the implementation of the IP but paradoxically this may not have been the case. The experience of these principals largely fell in the period from the 1980s through to 1994. The 1980s were a period of protest and turmoil in South Africa when the collapse of the culture of teaching and learning in schools reached its climax. Such collapse was coupled with the erosion of professional attitudes on the part of teachers and loss of respect for the boundaries of time and space that led to irregular school attendance and poor ethics. This cohort of principals might not have learnt how to

operate in a systematic, knowledgeable and well organized teaching and learning environment that is conducive to effective teaching and learning for quality education. To achieve the above professional values these principals needed extended professional development in the form of continuous training, support and monitoring to be able to carry the responsibility of implementing the IP successfully.

Half of the principals had experience of more than 10 years as principals and this meant that most had the necessary administrative knowledge and experience in terms of the number of years of service. However, education management in the 1970s and 1980s occurred under very authoritarian models of leadership characterised by non-participatory decision-making approaches and the suppression of critical thinking. Consequently, some of this experience could have been an obstruction to transformation characterised by shared decision-making among school role players. Some more experienced principals, for example, judging from their attitudes towards some members of the SGBs, had a negative attitude towards the new education policies such as the SASA, which they perceived as enforcing a new ways of doing things such as sharing the control of finances with the SGB and thus undermining their accumulated experience.

The major challenge to the optimal impact of the IP was the cascading model of training. In fact, the 'cascade' approach does not have a good track record in South Africa. James (2002) shows how limited its success in the HIV and LO areas was. The reason why the model is still used is because, despite attempts by the ECDE, a more effective model has not been developed or identified. Problems of scale and limited resources mean that the each-one-teach-one approach which came originally from Paolo Freire continues to influence how training is undertaken in South Africa. Teachers and principals in this study made it clear that the cascading model of training was not as effective as it would be if all teachers had attended the original training. This cascading training resulted in minimum benefit for those who had to be trained through it. Cascading limited implementation success as it did not only distort but reduced the amount of knowledge that filtered to those who had to be trained through it. This was a serious challenge as it nipped the intervention right at the start, that is, when its wide-scale dissemination started.

Principals were enthusiastic about much of the training particularly elements which improved their ability to deliver quality education. They were particularly supportive of training that focused on financial management and planning, skills that they lacked and skills which enhanced their ability to run their schools well. The support of principals was likely to enhance the implementation of the IP in the schools. In those aspects of management where principals and SGB members were trained together, principals seem to have benefited most except for management of relationships between the school and the community. Generally, training was found to be of good quality but the limited training period was seen as limiting for the assimilation and internalisation of the content of the modules. On the other hand, the participants emphasised that despite the shortcoming of the training and the monitoring, the IP training went some way towards laying a foundation for further training and thus was generally regarded as beneficial. What were therefore needed were continuous training, strong support and monitoring by trained district personnel over an extended period of time after the closure of the project.

The research has also shown that the curriculum of the IP was good but the delivery, follow-up support and monitoring were limited and this undermined the institutionalisation and sustainability of the changes that had been implemented. Delivery and support were limited because, although the IP worked within government frameworks and worked closely with education departmental officials, the first phase of its activities was not integrated into the provincial and district programme and there was therefore lack of ownership at these levels of management and consequently, limited personnel to supervise, support and monitor the implementation effectively.

The IP succeeded in getting SGB members to play a more active role in the governance of schools. Many principals noted that the SGBs had begun to play an active role in encouraging the parents to attend meetings and providing security of the school, contributing towards building structures to alleviate the lack of classroom and office accommodation in the school. However, the study also found that the democratization aspects of the transformation agenda were not all warmly supported by principals, especially by the older and more experienced, and that, specifically, principals did not necessarily welcome the need to work with SGBs who were often poorly informed about school matters yet had the power to influence school affairs.

Therefore principals were not happy to relinquish the powers they hitherto had to make decisions, nor were they convinced of the need to consult widely. For example, there was strong evidence that it was not easy for principals to relinquish power regarding the control of funds and decision-making related to finances. It was evident that there was overlap of functions in some areas of governance and management and that certain decisions that were supposed to be taken by the SGB were actually taken by the principal alone, and sometimes with the SMT, and the SGB was simply used to endorse them. The control of finances was an area in which contestations over power were strong. This is because the principals tend to have expert power compared to most of the parent members of the SGB. The situation is made more complex by the fact that, although the SGB is responsible for governance and the principal is the *ex officio* member of the SGB, the principal is the main authority bearer in charge of the school in its totality. It seems therefore that the principals welcomed the support of SGB members regarding mobilising parents to participate in school matters such as attending meetings and providing security for the school. But when it came to sharing power in decision-making and in financial control, there was reluctance and even resistance.

Despite these tensions, most principals, teachers and SGB members emphasised that community relations with the schools had improved. They had been able to set up structures such as the finance committees and asset committees and had established school and finance policies. However, some changes were institutionalised without much shift in the power relations and this meant that certain old practices continued to prevail. This was evident in the power relations between the parent component of the SGB and the principals in some schools. Principals continued to wield power in the SGBs and in some cases, where the SGB tried to exercise its legal authority, there was likely to be open conflicts. However, the establishment of the structures was a step in the right direction for the growth of democracy in schools as these structures actually created opportunity for learning about democracy and thus gave those marginalised confidence to demand space for democratic practises because they developed understanding and confidence in the process of working within the structures. The issue of unequal distribution of power stemmed from the powerful position the principal held in terms of knowledge, educational qualification, and socio-economic

position. This situation is contrary to the principles of equality, participation, empowerment and decentralisation of power that are embodied in the SASA.

The impact of the IP tended to vary. The needs and weaknesses of the role players and the impact of the IP varied from school to school and ultimately from individual to individual according to the individual histories and experiences, the socio-economic levels of the participants and their surrounding communities. These variations resulted in differences in the views and perceptions of the participants about the impact of the IP.

The major challenge faced by the IP success was poverty. Poverty which is prevalent in the EC continues to influence all aspects of society and influenced the impact of the IP intervention. It limited its ability to make a difference. The implementation of the IP tended to favour those who were already privileged with respect to the physical facilities such as school buildings, secure school environments, levels of schooling and levels of employment of surrounding communities, teachers' qualification and motivation, attitudes of teachers and principals towards student learning and towards change. This study has shown that there is therefore a tendency for some initiatives such as the IP to benefit more those who are already relatively better off and in this way inadvertently promote and increase inequalities because the better resourced schools tended to get most out of the intervention project. This suggests that it is very difficult to break the cycle of dysfunctionality. This corresponds with one of the recommendations of the Department (2000: 50) that "effective teaching and learning in many schools will only start to happen when the basic infrastructure is in place". Good interventions like the IP are likely to have very limited impact in schools that do not have the basic infrastructure. This was evident in three of the schools used for questionnaires and in one of the schools used for interviews. Samoff (2001: 15) suggests that to achieve equity, between disadvantaged and advantaged schools 'structured inequalities, at least temporarily' need to be put in place. This means that to achieve justice in situations where there is a history of discrimination, additional resources and assistance should be given to those schools that are extremely disadvantaged until they have reached the level of other schools, at least in terms of the basic infrastructure. I am of the opinion that if focus is not placed on closing the gap between these disadvantaged schools and their more advantaged counterparts, the

former may simply continue to lag behind in many ways and equity may never be achieved.

Having emphasised the role of poverty in limiting the effects of many efforts at improving the quality of education I now reflect on my own primary education experience, on the resources and teachers that we had. The resources then were poorer than what is today available in many schools. My school, which falls geographically in the area under study, started from the then Sub A to Standard 6. There was only one properly built block that was occupied by Standards 5 and 6. All other classes were accommodated in mud rondavels which were not in a good condition, a situation which still persists in many schools. Many parents were very poor and many were illiterate and could not support us academically, a situation which still exists today. There were no grants for children as there are today. Many households survived by tilling the land. This is no longer feasible in most rural areas. But those of us who yearned for education knew that we had to learn hard to get it. Teachers were accommodated in rondavels in households in the area mostly close to the school. Nowadays, many newly graduated teachers who take up posts in poor rural schools experience crime. I cannot remember any instances of crime against the teachers who taught me. Our school was not properly fenced but every member of the community, literate and illiterate, so respected the school that there was no fear that anybody would break in and vandalise the school. Our teachers did their work with admirable diligence. Learners were expected to do their work and corporal punishment was reserved for those who did not co-operate. There was a sense of agency on the part of students, parents and leaders that made it possible for many of us to travel long distances to be at school by 9 o'clock, to understand that even on dipping days we still had an obligation after the dipping activity, to rush for school to receive whatever little tuition we could get at the time of the day remaining. Those were the sixties. The population has increased and so are the challenges to education.

I believe that the effects of years of poor quality of Black education under apartheid were deep but the years of rebelling against apartheid education were also damaging in that they changed the culture and therefore altered the values and attitudes of the younger generations. The goal of changing values and attitudes is difficult and takes a long time. There is a need to change the mindset of education leaders, teachers and

learners and the culture of the school as an organisation. There is a need to build a sense of agency and responsibility in the school on the part of both learners and teachers, and parents, the possibility of acting within school structures in ways that are not simply determined by them. In addition there is a need to change the organisational culture of the school which assists in the development of a culture of concern and the individual and collective capacity to work through the structures. Changing values and attitudes is one of the most difficult things to achieve. This is because these values and attitudes should not start at school but should be a continuation of something that starts at home guided by what surrounding communities and the wider society value. This is a huge challenge that requires a revolution in peoples' minds. A lot of time and money is needed to restore the culture of teaching and learning and to achieve quality education, but so is commitment that is grounded on moral obligations.

The success of interventions like the IP will not have optimum success unless there is commitment and a sense of agency on the part of all role players in the school but in particular, teachers and students under the leadership of the principal. Imbewu has taught us that there is need to plan effectively for externally funded interventions. Such interventions usually cover a limited area and limited time. In order to move forward in improving the quality of education, we should plan in such way that any knowledge and skills acquired through such interventions are never lost.

6.3 LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY

Predictably, this study suffers a number of limitations. Possibly the most obvious is that participants were required to reconstruct what had happened some time before. In some cases they were asked to recall what had transpired up to five years before. The information gathered in this way is not as reliable as information gathered through systematic and independent observations in the process of the actual implementation (i.e. in real time). The following represent the threats that, according to Babbie and Mouton (2001), this situation posed to the validity of the responses.

- Social desirability response sets: the fact that some respondents provide the researcher with responses that they believe are desirable or expected by the interviewer.
- Selective memory: respondents, without deliberately attempting to invalidate a study, might always only recall certain aspects of events or phenomena and in that way generate unreliable and invalid responses. Related to this is the phenomenon of “memory decay” which means that everyone, as time passes, tends to forget some of the relevant detail of an event.
- Interpretation bias: the interviewer might, through deliberate or unintentional biases, distort responses (Mouton, 1999: 64).

The situation described above to a certain extent applied to this study. For example, the IP was implemented between 1997 and 2000 and since the questionnaire was administered in 2002, and the interviews were conducted in 2005, it is possible that memory decay could have taken place. These were some of the major limitations of the study. Because of its dependence on self-reporting, the study used triangulation to increase the validity of the responses. However, because of the variations in the contexts and experiences, there were bound to be variations in the views and perceptions on individual role players.

6.3 CONCLUSION

It is difficult to say whether the IP lived up to its promises or to state how enduring its effects have been mainly because this was not a longitudinal study and, in addition, it was not based on an independent systematic observation.

The process of changing management practices rests on individuals, processes and organisational change. Although there is evidence from the role players that the IP made a difference in changing the management practices of schools in terms of organisational change and processes, it is evident that more investment in terms of time, training, support and monitoring was needed to ensure that individuals’ values and attitudes had changed and that whatever monetary investments were made, had moved the quality of education to a higher level.

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APPENDIX 1

Faculty of Education
University of Transkei
Private Bag X1
UNITRA
5117

14 March 2002

The Permanent Secretary
Department of Education
BISHO

Dear Sir

APPLICATION FOR PERMISSION TO VISIT SCHOOLS IN THE EASTERN CAPE FOR RESEARCH ON IMBEWU PROJECT

This serves to request you to consider my application for permission to visit a selected number of schools in the Eastern Cape from those that participated in the Imbewu Project.

I am undertaking a research study of Imbewu as the Department's professional development and school improvement initiative in the Eastern Cape.

The study is in partial fulfilment of the requirements for the degree of Doctor of Education (DEd), which I am doing with the University of Natal .

The purpose of the study is to evaluate the impact of Imbewu on the management practices of primary school principals of selected schools who participated in the project from 1997-2000.

I hope that the study will make a contribution towards the improvement of school-based in-service education in the Eastern Cape.

When I have completed the study, I will make a copy available to the Eastern Cape Department of Education.

Thank you

Yours faithfully

.....

A N Skomolo (nee Adonis)

APPENDIX 2



Province of the Eastern Cape

DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION
ISEBE LEZEMFUNDO
Private Bag X0032, BISHO, 5605, SOUTH AFRICA

Reference:	Enquiries:	Tel:	Fax:	Date:
	ED Fray	043 – 604 3200	043- 604321 7	26 April 2002

MIS & Physical Infrastructure

**Faculty of
Education
University of
Transkei
Private Bag X
1 UNITRA
5117**

For attention: Ms NA Skomolo

Dear Ms Skomolo

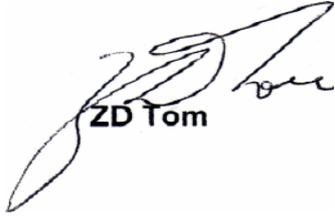
Permission for school visits.

Your correspondence dated 14 March 2002 reached my office on 26 April 2002. It was from the office of the Acting Superintendent General.

Your request is hereby granted and it is expected of you to keep to the terms of reference as indicated and the Department would appreciate a copy of your findings and recommendations at the end of your work.

This letter must be produced to the Head of each institution visited as a means of positive identification.

Yours truly

A handwritten signature in black ink, appearing to read 'ZD Tom', written in a cursive style.

Chief Director: MIS & Physical Infrastructure

ZD Tom

APPENDIX 3

THE IMPACT OF IMBEWU TRAINING PROGRAMME ON MANAGEMENT CAPACITY OF PRIMARY SCHOOL PRINCIPALS

QUESTIONNAIRE FOR SCHOOL PRINCIPALS

INSTRUCTIONS TO RESPONDENT

Please complete the following questionnaire.

Kindly note the following before answering the questions:

1. It is not necessary to place your name or signature on the questionnaire. Any information you give will be treated with utmost confidentiality and will be used for research purposes only. You are therefore **kindly requested** to express your views as openly as possible and as much as you can to help make this research a success. The researcher apologises that this questionnaire had to be a long one. This is deeply regretted but you are cordially requested to give your precious time to complete the questionnaire
2. Use a pencil to mark your answers on the questionnaire.

A. PERSONAL INFORMATION

1. Name of school.....
2. What is your sex?

male	[]	1
female	[]	2
3. For how many years have you been teaching?

1---5 years	[]	1
6--10 years	[]	2
11-15 years	[]	3
16-20 years	[]	4
over 20 years	[]	5
4. What position did you hold before you became a principal?

deputy principal	[]	1
head of department	[]	2
teacher	[]	3
5. For how many years have you been a principal?

1---5 years	[]	1
6--10 years	[]	2
11-15 years	[]	3
16-20 years	[]	4
over 20 years	[]	5

6. In what capacity have you held the position of principal?
- acting [] 1
- permanent [] 2
7. To which age group do you belong?
- less than 25 years [] 1
- 26--35 years [] 2
- 36--45 years [] 3
- 46--55 years [] 4
- 56--65 years [] 5
8. Which of the following is your highest academic qualification?
- Matric [] 1
- Bachelors degree [] 2
- Honours degree [] 3
- Masters degree [] 4
- Doctorate degree [] 5
- Other (specify) [] 6
9. Which of the following professional qualifications do you hold?
- Primary Teachers' Diploma (PTD) [] 1
- Primary Teachers' Course (PTC) [] 2
- Junior Secondary Teachers' Diploma (JSTC) [] 3
- Senior Secondary Teachers' Course (SSTC) [] 4
- Secondary Teachers Diploma (STD) [] 5
- Senior Secondary Teachers Diploma (SSTD) [] 6
- University Education Diploma (UED) [] 7
- Higher Education Diploma (HED) [] 8
- Higher Diploma in Education (HDE) [] 9
- Post Graduate Diploma in Education (PGDE) [] 10
- Other (specify) [] 11

B. TRAINING

1. Tick those Imbewu modules you attended for training:
- a) Planning [] 1
- b) Financial resource management [] 2
- c) Human resource management [] 3
- d) Managing teaching and learning activities [] 4
- e) Community and external relations [] 5
- f) Relationships with teachers and learners [] 6
- g) Vision crafting [] 7
- h) Managing learning and teaching materials [] 8
- i) Managing change [] 9
- j) Other (specify) [] 10

2. Which of the above was/were most beneficial?

3. Kindly motivate your answer

4. Did you receive any in-service training after you were appointed as principal prior to Imbewu?

yes [] 1
no [] 2

5. If the answer to 9 above is yes, what do you consider to be the difference between the in-service training that you received and Imbewu training?

6. If the answer to 9 above is no, please explain the various aspects in which Imbewu has helped you to improve, if any?

C. DEVELOPING SYSTEMS AND PROCESSES FOR HUMAN RESOURCE DEVELOPMENT

1. Do you encourage/instil the principle of collaboration emphasised by Imbewu among the staff?

yes [] 1
no [] 2

2. If yes, how do you encourage collaboration among staff?

3. What has been the impact of collaboration on teaching and learning?

4. What specific activities of evaluation have you been able to use with your staff as a result of Imbewu training?

5. Has Imbewu given you guidance on how to conduct class visits to support teachers?

yes [] 1
no [] 2

6. If yes, how do you give feedback to teachers about class visits? (you may tick more than one answer)

Discussions [] 1
Written reports [] 2
Other [] 3

7. How do you ensure teacher participation in decision-making? Please explain.

D. FINANCIAL MANAGEMENT AND CONTROL

1. List the aspects of financial management and control that Imbewu training included in your training

2. Explain which one(s) of these aspects of financial management you have so far managed to implement with success and how was this possible?

3. What challenges did you experience in implementing aspects of financial management?

4. What were the reasons for the success you achieved in this respect?

5. Were your teachers ever involved in some of the aspects of the financial management and control in your school? (please explain).

6. Were the SGBs ever involved in the financial management and control of the school? (please explain).

7. Were the parents ever involved in the financial management and control of the school? (please explain).

E. DEVELOPING AND MANAGING RELATIONSHIPS WITH THE COMMUNITY

1. Has there been any change in your relationship with the SGB members since you underwent Imbewu training?

yes [] 1
no [] 2

2. If the answer to 1 above is yes, describe those changes clearly

3. Explain the effects that such changes have had on the running of the school

4. Describe any changes you may have experienced with parents as a result of Imbewu

5. Describe the effects that such changes have had on the running of the school.

F. MANAGING LEARNING AND TEACHING MATERIAL

1. Do you have buildings with storage space where teaching material provided by Imbewu is kept?

yes [] 1
no [] 2

2. If the answer to 2 above is no, where is teaching material provided by Imbewu kept?

3. What impact does this have on the use of the material?

4. What impact has the provision of teaching/learning material had on teaching and learning?

G. MANAGING TEACHING AND LEARNING

1. Do your responsibilities include classroom instruction?

- yes [] 1
No [] 2

2..Has Imbewu helped you see teaching as: (you may tick more than one)

- Transmission of knowledge by the teacher [] 1
Helping learners acquire learning skills [] 2
Others (specify) [] 3

3. Give examples of classroom activities that you encourage to support your answer in 2 above

4. Describe any change in your relationship with your teachers since you underwent Imbewu training?

5. What impact have these improved relationships had on teaching and learning?

H. GENERAL

1. What do you think were the strengths of Imbewu with regard to school principals' professional development?

2. What do you think were the weaknesses of Imbewu with regard to school principals' professional development?

3. Which aspects of Imbewu do you think need to be improved? (please explain clearly)

4. What are the factors **in the school that make it easy**, if any, for you to implement what you were trained for by Imbewu?

5. What are the factors **outside that make it easy**, if any, for you to implement what you were trained for by Imbewu?

6. What are the factors in the school that make it difficult for you to implement what you were trained for by Imbewu?

7. What are the factors outside that make it difficult for you to implement what you were trained for by Imbewu?

8. Rate your general impression of Imbewu as an in-service training strategy for school principals

Very helpful [] 1

Helpful [] 2

Not helpful [] 3

Not at all helpful [] 4

9. Please add any information that you think is relevant and can help the researcher in clarifying issues relating to the impact of Imbewu on the performance of the school principal as a leader.

Thank you very much for spending time completing this questionnaire. It is highly appreciated.

APPENDIX 4

THE IMPACT OF IMBEWU TRAINING PROGRAMME ON MANAGEMENT CAPACITY OF PRIMARY SCHOOL PRINCIPALS

QUESTIONNAIRE FOR EDUCATORS

INSTRUCTIONS TO RESPONDENT

Please complete the following questionnaire.

Kindly note the following before answering the questions:

1. It is not necessary to place your name or signature on the questionnaire. Any information you give will be treated with utmost confidentiality and will be used for research purposes only. You are therefore **kindly requested** to express your views as openly and as much as you can to help make this research a success. The researcher apologises that, of necessity this questionnaire had to be a long one. This is deeply regretted but you're cordially requested to give of your precious time to complete the questionnaire.

2. Use a pencil to mark your answers on the questionnaire.

A. PERSONAL INFORMATION

1. Name of school.....

2. What is your gender?

male [] 1
female [] 2

3. Which of the following positions do you occupy?

deputy principal [] 1
head of department [] 2
teacher [] 3

4. For how many years have you been teaching?

1---5 years [] 1
6--10 years [] 2
11-15 years [] 3
16- 20 years [] 4
Over 20 years [] 5

5. To which age group do you belong?

less than 25 years [] 1
26--35 years [] 2
36--45 years [] 3
46--55 years [] 4
56--65 years [] 5

6. Which of the following is your highest academic qualification?

Matric [] 1
Bachelors degree [] 2

- Honours degree [] 3
- Masters degree [] 4
- Doctorate degree [] 5
- Other (specify) [] 6

7. Which of the following professional qualifications do you hold?

- Primary Teachers Diploma (PTD) [] 1
- Primary Teachers' Course (PTC) [] 2
- Junior Secondary Teachers' Course (JSTC) [] 3
- Senior Secondary Teachers' Course (SSTC) [] 4
- Secondary Teachers Diploma (STD) [] 5
- Senior Secondary Teachers Diploma (SSTD) [] 6
- University Education Diploma (UED) [] 7
- Higher Education Diploma (HED) [] 8
- Higher Diploma in Education (HDE) [] 9
- Post Graduate Diploma in Education (PGDE) [] 10
- Other (specify) [] 11

B. TRAINING

1. Tick those functions in which you attended Imbewu training

- a) Planning [] 1
- b) Financial resource management [] 2
- c) Human resource management [] 3
- d) Managing teaching and learning activities [] 4
- e) Community and external relations [] 5
- f) Relations with teachers and learners [] 6
- g) Vision crafting [] 7
- h) Managing teaching and learning materials [] 8
- I) Managing change [] 9
- j) Others (specify) [] 10

2. Which of the above was/were most beneficial to you?

3. Kindly motivate your answer

C. DEVELOPING SYSTEMS AND PROCESSES FOR HUMAN RESOURCE DEVELOPMENT

1. Does your principal encourage/instil the principle of collaboration emphasised by Imbewu among the staff?

- yes [] 1
- no [] 2

2. If yes, how does s/he encourage collaboration?

3. What impact has this had on improving teaching and learning?

4. What specific activities does s/he engage in that s/he did not engage in before undergoing Imbewu training to evaluate the performance of your teachers?

6. Since participating in Imbewu training, does your principal conduct classroom observations/visits?

yes [] **1**
no [] **2**

7. If your answer to 6 above is yes, how does s/he give feedback? (you may tick more than one answer)

discussions [] **1**
written reports [] **2**
others (specify) [] **3**

8. Does the principal ensure participation of teachers in decision-making?

yes [] **1**
no [] **2**

9. If the answer to 6 above is yes, how does he/she ensure such participation?

D. FINANCIAL MANAGEMENT AND CONTROL

1. What aspects of financial management and control have been introduced in your school since its participation in Imbewu?

2. What challenges did your school experience in implementing aspects of financial management

3. What were the reasons for the successes your school may have achieved in this respect?

4. Are your teachers involved in some of the aspects of the financial management and control in your school as a result of Imbewu? (please explain which).

5. Are the SGBs involved in the financial management and control of the school as a result of Imbewu ? (please explain which).

6. Are the parents involved in the financial management and control of the school? (please explain how).

E. DEVELOPING AND MANAGING RELATIONSHIPS WITH THE COMMUNITY

1. Has there been any changes in the way the principal and the school relate to the SGB since Imbewu training?

yes [] **1**
no [] **2**

2. If the answer to 1 above is yes, describe the changes clearly

3. Describe the effects that such changes have had on the running of the school

4. Describe any changes you may have experienced with parents as a result of Imbewu

5. Describe the effects that such changes have had on the running of the school.

F. MANAGING LEARNING AND TEACHING MATERIALS

1. Do you have buildings with storage space where teaching material can be kept?

yes [] **1**
no [] **2**

2. If the answer to 1 above is no, where is teaching material provided by Imbewu kept?

3. What impact does this have on the use of the material?

4. What impact has the provision of teaching/learning material had on teaching and learning

G. Developing and Managing Relationships with Teachers

1. List aspects included in the Imbewu training on the establishment and maintenance of good relationships within the school.

2. Has there been any visible change in your principal's relationship with teachers since Imbewu training and implementation?

yes [] **1**

no [] **2**

3. If your answer to 2 above is yes, describe and explain the changes clearly

4. What impact have such changes had on relationships had on the running of the school?

5. What impact have such changes on relationships had on teaching and learning in the school?

H. MANAGING AND TRANSFORMING TEACHING AND LEARNING

1. Has Imbewu helped your principal to see teaching as: (You may tick more than one answer)

transmission of knowledge by the teacher [] **1**

helping learners acquire learning skills [] **2**

others (specify) [] **3**

2. Give examples of classroom activities that s/he encourages to support your answer in 1 above

3. Describe any changes, if any, in the principal's relationship with staff since participating in Imbewu.

4. What has been the impact of such changes, if any, on the running of the school

I. GENERAL

1. What do you think were the strengths of Imbewu with regard to school principals' professional development?

2. What do you think were the weaknesses of Imbewu with regard to school principals' professional development?

3. What aspects of Imbewu do you think need to be improved?

4. What are the factors **in the school that you think make it easy**, if any, to implement what the principal was trained in by Imbewu?

5. What are the factors **outside that you think make it easy**, if any, for the principal and staff to implement what the principal was trained in by Imbewu?

6. What are the factors **in the school that you think make it difficult** for the principal implement what s/he was trained for by Imbewu?

7. What are the factors **outside that you think make it difficult** for the principal implement what s/he was trained for by Imbewu?

8. Rate your general impression of Imbewu as an in-service training strategy.

- very helpful** [] **1**
- helpful** [] **2**
- not helpful** [] **3**
- not at all helpful** [] **4**

9. Please add any information that you think is relevant and can help the researcher in clarifying issues relating to the impact of Imbewu on the performance of the school principal as a leader.

Thank you very much for spending time completing this questionnaire. It is highly appreciated.

APPENDIX 5

IFUTHE LEMBEWU EKUNCEDISANENI NEENQUNUNU ZEZIKOLO ZAMABANGA APHANTSI KULAWULO LWEZO ZIKOLO

ILUNGISELELWE AMALUNGU ESIGQEBA ESILAWULAYO SESIKOLO (SGBs)

IMIYALELO

Ucelwa ngembeko enkulu ukuba uphendule le mibuzo ikolu xwebhu.

Phambi kokuba uphendule qaphela oku kulandelayo:

1. Akunyanzelekanga ukuba ubhale igama lakho okanye intsayino-gama lakho kwiphepha lemibuzo. Naluphi na ulwazi oya kuthi ulunike luya kuthathwa njengoluyimfihlelo yaye luya kusetyenziselwa iinjongo zophando kuphela. Ngako oko **ucelwa ngokungazenzisiyo** ukuba unike izimvo zakho ngokuphandle nakangangoko unako ukunceda ukuba olu phando lube yimpumelelo. Umphandi lo uyicelela uxolo into yokuba olu xwebhu lube lude kangaka, kunyanzelekile. Kunjalo, sisacela ukuba ucaphule kwixesha lakho owenza ngalo izinto zakho ezibalulekileyo, uphonononge le mibuzo.

2. Sebenzisa ipensile ukuphawula iimpendulo zakho kwiphepha lemibuzo.

A. Iinkcukacha

- | | |
|-------------------------------------------------------------------------|-------|
| 1. Igama lesikolo _____ | |
| 2. Yintoni isini sakho? | |
| owasebuhlanti | [] 1 |
| owasetyhini | [] 2 |
| 3. Ukwesiphi isihlalo kwezi zilandelayo? | |
| usihlalo | [] 1 |
| isekela-sihlalo | [] 2 |
| unobhala | [] 3 |
| isekela-nobhala | [] 4 |
| ilungu-nje | [] 5 |
| 4. Yiminyaka emingaphi ulilungu lesiGqeqeba esiLawulayo seSikolo (SGB)? | |
| ngaphantsi konyaka | [] 1 |
| 1-5 iminyaka | [] 2 |
| 6-10 iminyaka | [] 3 |
| 11-15 iminyaka | [] 4 |
| 16-20 iminyaka | [] 5 |
| ngaphezu kweminyaka engama-20 | [] 6 |
| 5. Ukuluphi uluhlu lobudala kwezi zilandelayo? | |
| ngaphantsi kweminyaka engama-25 | [] 1 |
| 26-35 iminyaka | [] 2 |
| 36-45 iminyaka | [] 3 |
| 46-55 iminyaka | [] 4 |
| 56-65 iminyaka | [] 5 |
| 66-75 iminyaka | [] 6 |
| ngaphezu kweminyaka engama-75 | [] 7 |

6. Liliphi inqanaba eliphezulu lemfundo onalo kula alandelayo?		
I JC	[]	1
iMatriki	[]	2
I-BA)	[]	3
iqondo lee-Honours	[]	4
iqondo lee-Masters	[]	5
iqondo le-Doctorate	[]	6
elinye (cacisa)	[]	7
7. Kule mfundo igxilileyo ilandelayo yiyiphi onayo?		
i-Primary Teachers Diploma (PTD)	[]	1
i-Primary Teachers Course (PTC)	[]	2
i-Junior Secondary Teachers Course (JSTC)	[]	3
i-Senior Secondary Teachers Course (SSTC)	[]	4
i-Secondary Teachers Diploma (STD)	[]	5
i-Senior Secondary Teachers Diploma (SSTD)	[]	6
i-University Education Diploma (UED)	[]	7
i-Higher Education Diploma (HED)	[]	8
i-Higher Diploma in Education (HDE)	[]	9
i-Post Graduate Diploma in Education (PGDE)	[]	10
Andinasiqinisekiso sifana nezi zingentla	[]	11
8. Wawufumene uqeqesho kumsebenzi weSGB phambi kokuba udibane neMbewu?		
ewe	[]	1
hayi	[]	2

B. Uqeqesho

1. Phawula loo misebenzi ethe iMbewu yakuqeqesha kuyo. (Ungazibopheleli kwimpendulo enye.)

- | | | |
|--------------------------------------------------|-----|-----------|
| (a) ucwangciso | [] | 1 |
| (b) ulawulo lokuphathelele kwizimali | [] | 2 |
| (c) ulawulo lwabasebenzi besikolo | [] | 3 |
| (d) ulawulo lweenkqubo zokufundisa nezokufunda | [] | 4 |
| (e) ukukhulisa nokulawula unxuluman nabahlali | [] | 5 |
| (f) ukukhulisa nokulawula unxulumano nootitshala | [] | 6 |
| (g) ukulawula ukufundisa nokufunda | [] | 7 |
| (h) ukuxonxa/ukumisela umbono | [] | 8 |
| (i) ukufundisa ukumelana nokutshintsha kwezinto | [] | 9 |
| (ii) ezinye (zibalule) | [] | 10 |

2. Kwezi zingasentla yiyiphi eyona yaba lulutho kuwe?

3. Nika isizathu sempendulo yakho

APPENDIX 6

INTERVIEW SCHEDULE FOR PRINCIPALS

TRAINING

1. What was the duration of the training? What do you think about the duration of the training? Was it adequate? How did the duration of the training affect/influence the implementation of the project?
2. Who conducted the training (position)? Can you comment about the quality of the trainers? How was the quality of the training?

IMPLEMENTATION AND MONITORING/SUPPORT

1. How was the implementation of Imbewu initiated in the school? Please describe the process.
 2. How were those teachers who were not involved in the training brought on board? How did you ensure that they reached the same level of understanding as those who were trained? What was the attitudes of those who were not trained towards the process of implementation? How did this affect the implementation of Imbewu? Can you comment about the implementation strategy (cascading model)?
 3. Who monitored the implementation of Imbewu, at management level, at instructional (teaching) level, at governance level ?
 4. How many times were schools visited during the implementation, for what purpose? What activities/ were included in the monitoring process? What instruments were used for the monitoring process? Can you give your views about/assessment of the monitoring and evaluation process?.
- How were the results of the monitoring process fed back to the participants? How did you use the monitoring and evaluation to your advantage as trainers?
5. Is the monitoring still continuing? If not, when did it stop? Why? Do you feel that you no longer need it? If it is still continuing, do you feel that you still need it? Why?
 6. What is the effect of monitoring and evaluation on the sustainability and institutionalisation of Imbewu? (in other words, has the monitoring helped to ensure that the activities of Imbewu have become part and parcel of the daily life of the school? Are all activities of Imbewu still being done and by everybody, if yes)

Human resource productivity

Do you undertake any activities to improve the productivity of your teachers as a result of participating in Imbewu? If so, what **activities** do you as a principal undertake to improve teacher productivity? What **activities** do you encourage your teachers to improve their productivity? What **structures** do you put in place to help them improve teacher productivity? Are they working/effective? If yes, what evidence is there that they are working? If no, what do you think are the reasons? Do you feel that Imbewu has changed you for the better in this area? Please explain.

What systems have you put in place to help teachers? What practices do you encourage? How do you encourage change in the use of materials, skills and practices?

How do you ensure that teachers learn?

How do you create an environment that encourages teachers to learn, to learn from one another? (structures and systems)

How do you empower your staff?

How do you motivate teachers to support each other?

How do you help the develop confidence in what they do?

How do you keep the morale and enthusiasm of teachers high?

If I were to come to your school for a week, what would I be expected to do by the principal in terms of teaching, administration, extramural activities that would show that I am in an Imbewu school. What activities would I expect to see the principal doing (mention as many as possible)?

(participatory management teams)

Management of material and physical resources (Research Question 3)

Buildings

How are buildings kept clean?

How do you ensure the

How does the school ensure the safety of school buildings?

What role do teachers play in the management of building?

How do you ensure participation of teachers in the management of resources?

Teaching and learning material

What role does the teacher play in the management of teaching and learning materials?

How does the principal ensure the safety/security of teaching learning materials?

Financial resources

Does the school have a bank book?

Does the school have a finance school policy? How was this developed?

Does the school have a finance committee? Who constitutes the finance committee?

Does the school have a budget? Who is involved in drawing the budget? Who is involved in the implementation of the budget (who approves the budget, monitors and supervises and controls the budget)?

Does the school have school fund account? records

Does the school have records receipts, recording

Financial accounting and reporting.

Who authorises purchases and payments of accounts

Does the school have an official order book

Are invoices and receipts for purchase filed properly

How are payments made – on cheques or?

Are monthly or quarterly statements kept?- Annual reports

An annual report on income and expenditure

Can you show me records of these.

What are the sources that the school depends on for financial resources.
How do you ensure proper management of financial resources?

External and community relations

1. Do you think you have changed in your dealings with the SGBs as a result of participating in Imbewu? If yes, how?
2. How many SGB meetings are held a year? What are the reasons for your success in working with the SGBs? If no, what do you think are the reasons?
How is the attendance of meetings by SGBs? How many members of the SGB attend meetings regularly? What activities do members of SGB undertake in the school?.

How does the relationship of the SGB with the principal affect the running of the school? How does the relationship with SGBs affect the attitude of parents towards the school?

Relations with teachers

Do you think you have changed in your relationships with teachers as a result of participating in Imbewu? If yes, how? What are the reasons for your success? If you think you have not changed, what do you think are the reasons?

Managing teaching and learning

- How do you get teachers to focus on teaching/
Do you teach? Why? What do you think you teaching does to your teachers' morale?
How do you keep contact with your teachers?
How do you keep a good relationship with your teachers.
How do you ensure that the same approaches are used by all teachers in the classroom?
How do teachers communicate problems and issues about teaching?
How are decisions made about teaching and learning issues?
Do you think that, as a result of Imbewu you have changed in your management of teaching and learning? If yes, how (what activities do you undertake?) What activities do you encourage in your teachers? What are the factors that have led to you success or failure?
What opportunities do you create for your teachers to learn (reflect)
How do you motivate teachers to focus on teaching
How do you ensure that teachers learn?
How do you share the responsibilities between yourself, the deputy principal and the HODs
How do you ensure that your teachers continue doing what they were trained in by Imbewu
How do you motivate your teachers to support each other?

APPENDIX 7

INTERVIEW GUIDE : KEY TEACHERS

Training (implementation and monitoring/support)

1. Who initiated the implementation of Imbewu in the school? Please describe the process.
2. How were those teachers who were not involved in the training brought on board?
3. Who monitored the implementation of Imbewu, at management level, at instructional level, at governance level?
4. How many times were schools visited during the implementation, for what purpose? What activities were included in the monitoring process? Can you evaluate the monitoring process.
5. When did the monitoring stop, Why?
6. After: Has your school continued doing the things that you were trained in? If not, why? If yes- What aspects of Imbewu have been internalised by the school?
7. Do you think that support and monitoring must continue?

Human resource development

What activities does the principal do to improve teacher productivity as a result of Imbewu?

What structures/things does the principal create for teachers to improve their productivity?

If I were to come to your school for a week, what would I be expected to do by the principal in terms of teaching, administration, extramural activities that would show that I in an Imbewu school. What activities would I expect to see the principal doing (mention as many as possible)?

Are you given opportunities to contribute to shared ideas, materials, instructional strategies? Do you contribute to decision-making.? To what extent is this a result of your principals' initiation/doing?

Management of material and physical resources

How does the principal ensure the safety/security of teaching learning materials?

How does the school ensure the safety of school buildings?

External and community relations

Do you think your principal has changed in her/his dealings with the SGBs as a result of participating in Imbewu? If yes, how? What you see as the reasons for her/his success? If no, what do you think are the reasons?

Relations with teachers

Do you think the principal has changed in her/his relationships with teachers as a result of participating in Imbewu? If yes, how? What are the reasons for her/his success? If no, what do you think are the reasons?

School finances

Does the school have a bank book?

Does the school have a finance school policy?

Does the school have a finance committee?

Does the school have a budget?

Managing teaching and learning

Do you think that, as a result of Imbewu your principal has changed in her/his management of teaching and learning? If yes, how (what does s/he do?). What are the factors that have led to her/his success? If no, what do you think are the reasons?

APPENDIX 8

INTERVIEW GUIDE FOR NON- KEY TEACHERS

Training and Implementation

1. Who initiated the implementation of Imbewu in the school? Please describe the process.
2. How were those teachers who were not involved in the training brought on board?
3. Who monitored the implementation of Imbewu, at management level, at instructional level, at governance level?
4. How many times were schools visited during the implementation, for what purpose? What activities were included in the monitoring process? Can you evaluate the monitoring process.
- 5.. When did the monitoring stop, Why?
6. After: Has your school continued doing the things that you were trained in? If not, why? If yes- What aspects of Imbewu have been internalised by the school?
7. Do you think that support and monitoring must continue?

Human Resource productivity

What activities does the principal do to improve teacher productivity as a result of Imbewu?

What structures/things does the principal create for teachers to improve their productivity?

Do you think that you principal has changed in his/her activities of

If I were to come to your school for a week, what would I be expected to do by the principal in terms of teaching, administration, extramural activities that would show that I in an Imbewu school. What activities would I expect to see the principal doing (mention as many as possible)?

Management of material resources

- How does the principal ensure the safety/security of teaching/learning materials?
- How does the school ensure the safety of school buildings?

Relations with the community

Do you think that the principal has changed in the way he/she relates with the community i.e. SGBs and parents? If yes, how? If no, what do you think are the reasons for the change?

Relations with teachers

Do you think the principal has changed in her/his relationships with teachers as a result of participating in Imbewu? If yes, how? What do you see as the reasons for her/his success? If no, what do you think are the reasons?

Finances

Does the school have a bank book?

Does the school have a finance school policy?

Does the school have a finance committee?

Does the school have a budget?

Managing teaching and learning

Do you think that, as a result of Imbewu your principal has changed in her/his management of teaching and learning? If yes, how (what does s/he do?). What are the factors that have led to her/his success? If no, what do you think are the reasons?

APPENDIX 9

INTERVIEW SCHEDULE FOR SCHOOL GOVERNING BODIES

Ngaba iititshala bezinikiwe na zona ithuba lokuba zifake isandla kwiindlela ekulawulwa kuqoqoshwa ngazo iimali zesikolo? Yixele loo miba kunye nezinto ezithe zazenza iititshala ezo.

Ngaba lona ibhunga elilawula isikolo lona beliyinikiwe na inxaxheba yokuba nezwi apha kwiindlela ekulawulwa kuqoqoshwa ngazo iimali zesikolo? Yixele loo miba belingene kuyo nento elithe layenza.

Ngaba bona abazali babenalo na izwi kwiindlela ekulawulwa kuqoqoshwa iimali zesikolo ngazo? Yixele loo miba bathe banezwi kuyo uchaze nento abathe bayenza kumba ngamnye.

Ngaba kukho nguqulelo ibonakalayo na kunxulumano lwenqununu nabazali okokoko yathi yafumana uqeqesho kwi-Imbewu?

Cchaza ukuba ezo nguqulelo zibe nafuthe lini na kwiindlela ebezihamba ngayo izinto apha esikolweni

Khawuthso ngokuphngalaleyo indlela ngendlela obngathi ikuncded nayo i-mbewu ekusebnzisaneni nenqununu nabazali.

Xela zonke izinto ozifundiswe yimbewu ngokumisela nokugcina unxulumano olululo phakathi kwakho nezinye iititshala zalapha esikolweni

Ngaba lube khona utshintsho ngokwendlela inqununu yakho ezijonga ngayo iititshal zayo oko yathi (inqununu) yafumana uqeqesho lweMbewu?

Ngaba ezo nguqulelo zibe nafuthe na kwiindlela ekufundiswa nekufundwa ngayo na apho esikolweni? Cacisa ngokuphangaleleyo..

Ngaba inqununu iyawukhuthaza umthetho-siseko wentsebenziswano phakathi kwabasebenzi ogxinisiweyo yiMbewu? Ukuba kunjalo, cacisa ngokuphangaleleyo.

Inqununu iphumelele kangakanani ekukhuthazeni intsebenziswano phakathi kwabasebenzi? Ngaba inqununu iyaluqinisekisa na uthatho lwenxaxheba lweetitshala ekwenzeni iziqqibo xa kuxoxwa ngombandela wesikolo? Ukuba impendulo yakho kumbuzo wesi-7 apha ngasentla ngu-ewe, yenza njani ukuqinisekisa ukuba ooitshala bathatha inxaxheba ekwenzenin iziqqibo?

APPENDIX 10: ROLE PLAYERS INTERVIEWED

PRINCIPALS

Principal 1 : P1

Principal 2 : P2

Principal 3 : P3

Principal 4 : P4

Principal 5 : P5

SCHOOL GOVERNING BODIES

SGB 1

SGB 2

SGB 3

SGB 4

SGB 5

SGB 6

SGB 7

SGB 8

KEY TEACHERS

Key Teacher : K1

Key Teacher : K2

Key Teacher : K3

Key Teacher : K4

Key Teacher : K5

Key Teacher : K6

Key Teacher : K7

Key Teacher : K8

Key Teacher : K9

Key Teacher : K10

Key Teacher : K11

Key Teacher : K12

Key Teacher : K13

K14 Teacher : K14

K15 Teacher : K15

NON-KEY TEACHERS

Non-key Teacher :NK1

Non-key Teacher : NK2

Non-key Teacher : NK3

Non-key Teacher : NK4

Non-key Teacher : NK5

Non-key Teacher : NK6

Non-key Teacher : NK7

Non-key Teacher : NK8

Non-key Teacher : NK9

Non-key Teacher : NK10

Non-key Teacher : NK11

Non-key Teacher : NK12

Non-key Teacher : NK13

Non-key Teacher : NK14

Non-key Teacher : NK15