THE SCOPE AND APPLICABILITY OF TOTAL QUALITY MANAGEMENT (TQM) TO THE PUBLIC SCHOOLING SYSTEM

by

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Thesis submitted in partial fulfilment of the DOCTOR OF ADMINISTRATION (D. Admin) in the Faculty Commerce & Management Sciences, School of Public Administration and Development Management, University of Durban-Westville.

SUPervisor: Prof. D. Sing

DATE SUBMITTED: June 2003
DECLARATION

I declare that this thesis titled, THE SCOPE AND APPLICABILITY OF TOTAL QUALITY MANAGEMENT (TQM) TO THE PUBLIC SCHOOLING SYSTEM is my own work and that all the sources that have been used or quoted, have been indicated and acknowledged by means of complete references.

S. GOVENDER
REG. No. 7709874

JUNE 2003
ABSTRACT

Total Quality Management (TQM) is an industrial or manufacturing theory that has greatly assisted business to transform to become more competitive in the global market. The South African public education system is currently facing various challenges and obstacles that must be overcome in order to cater for the demands of the 21st century.

Much of the focus thus far has been on addressing the imbalances and inequities of the past. Now that the battle for equality is slowly being won, the focus is changing to quality in education provision. Total Quality Management offers an opportunity to attain quality in the education sector. Many writers abroad have adapted the principles of TQM to the education environment. Case studies in the United States of America and United Kingdom in particular, point to the success of TQM. Given the South African education scenario, this study explores the scope and applicability of Total Quality Management to the South African public schooling system.

In February 2000, President Thabo Mbeki expressed the need to pay special attention to the improvement of the quality of management of our schools. The practice of TQM offers an opportunity to improve the quality of management in our schools. In addition, there has been much discussion and debate around whether schools are preparing learners for the real world. It is the express desire of the Minister of Education, Professor Kader Asmal, to create an education system for the 21st century. One of the cardinal principles of TQM is giving the customer what the customer needs- the customer in this case being the learner, the parent, tertiary institutions, commerce and industry and society at large. Currently there is ample evidence to suggest that there is a huge gap between what society expects and what schools and tertiary institutions are providing. Today, it is becoming increasingly evident that customer choice and customer
perception of quality is of paramount importance. Therefore, schools that can offer quality in terms of product and customer service will survive and prosper. TQM is about meeting and exceeding customer expectations of service. There is ample evidence to suggest that TQM has carried the burden of being responsible in many cases for improving quality and productivity.

Schools are constantly faced with rising costs. Parents are being called upon to pay increasingly more for the education of their children. Schools are constantly searching for innovative ways of cutting costs without compromising quality. TQM helps to systematically identify sources of error, and eradicate costly waste.

This study explores whether TQM can do for the public schooling system what it has done for business. The scope and applicability of TQM to the public schooling system is investigated through carefully structured questionnaires administered to school-based personnel at different ranks, working in rural and urban schools, as well as 'advantaged' and 'disadvantaged' schools. In addition, chairpersons of school governing bodies/members and departmental officials are interviewed. The research carefully examines the many concerns around implementing TQM in public schools. There is concern that the principles of industry would not find favour in an education environment. A business-like approach to education may result in many meaningful aspects of schools and schooling being compromised or lost. The study ascertains whether some of the basic ingredients for quality management are present in our schools. Despite certain concerns, the majority were optimistic that TQM can be implemented.

The conclusions arrived at and the recommendations made indicate that the theory, principles and practices of TQM can be adapted and applied to the South African schooling system. The argument that the vast backlogs in education do not favour the application of quality management in education
is challenged. It is concluded that TQM offers the best possible opportunity to address inferior quality learning in certain quarters. Based on the success stories, a carefully structured implementation plan for TQM is suggested. Applying TQM will ensure a high quality public education.
DEDICATION

This work is dedicated to the memory of:

My late parents, Nadasen and Kanakamah Govender

and

My late parents-in-law, Peter and Subbu Govender.

They still continue to inspire.
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

An undertaking of this magnitude is not possible without divine intervention. Thanks must go to God for endowing me with those qualities that made this study possible.

The issue of quality in education has always dominated my thoughts since the commencement of my teaching career in 1981. I am extremely grateful for all the assistance received in enabling me to express my thoughts on the subject. The numerous educators and learners, with whom I came into contact over the years, all taught me something about quality in education.

Firstly, my thanks go to my promoter, Professor D. Sing, for his encouragement and professional guidance throughout the duration of my research efforts. Profound gratitude is also due to Professor Sathi Moodley, Dean of the Faculty, for his support and encouragement. The support received from Professor Malcolm Wallis and Dr Salosh Pillay, is sincerely acknowledged.

To all the educators across the Province of Kwazulu-Natal who took the time to complete my questionnaire - my profound thanks. Your input made this study possible. Special thanks goes to the staff of Wyebank Secondary School for allowing me the opportunity to conduct intense observations.

Permission to conduct research granted by the various Regional Senior Managers of the KwaZulu-Natal Department of Education is hereby acknowledged. The Department officials who agreed to be interviewed had to sacrifice much of their time – for this I am extremely grateful. The inputs received from Governing Body Chairpersons/members are sincerely acknowledged. The Chairperson and members of the Governing Body of
Wyebank Secondary School deserve special mention for their kind assistance.

A special thank you is due to Ms Anne Moodley – her superior computer skills greatly facilitated my work. Mrs Rosalind Govender’s assistance in proof reading is acknowledged – she had to cope with my unreasonable time frames.

To my trusted colleague Inba Naicker, I extend my deep gratitude for stirring my interest in issues of quality management. The vigorous debates and discussion were definitely worthwhile. The constructive criticisms helped to enhance the final product. To my friend Poobie Thaver, I must admit that the discussions and debates on issues of quality in the private sector were extremely stimulating. The encouragement and support over the years is sincerely appreciated.

I can never overstate the tremendous support that I received from my family and friends during the course of this study. They are too numerous to mention by name, but each and everyone will be remembered for their unique contribution. Our trusted domestic worker, Nellie Juba deserves special mention for her tireless support over the years of my study.

Mine is a small family. This study definitely impacted on my family life. To my wife, Serenjennie and my son Dylin, is due my eternal gratitude for their enduring sacrifices, loving care and their belief in my ability to complete this study.

Sathi Govender
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<tr>
<td>CASS</td>
<td>Continuous Assessment</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DAS</td>
<td>Developmental Appraisal for Educators</td>
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<td>DoE</td>
<td>Department of National Education</td>
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<tr>
<td>ELRC</td>
<td>Education Labour Relations Council</td>
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<td>ERS</td>
<td>Education Renewal Strategy</td>
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<td>FET</td>
<td>Further Education and Training</td>
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<tr>
<td>GETC</td>
<td>General Education and Training Certificate</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>HOD</td>
<td>Head of Department/ Learning Area</td>
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<tr>
<td>IPT</td>
<td>Independent Projects Trust</td>
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<tr>
<td>KZNDEC</td>
<td>KwaZulu-Natal Provincial Department of Education &amp; Culture</td>
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<td>LSEN</td>
<td>Learners with Special Education Needs</td>
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<td>MBWA</td>
<td>Management by Walking Around</td>
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<td>MEHS</td>
<td>Mount Edgecumbe High School</td>
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<td>NPM</td>
<td>New Public Management</td>
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<td>NTA</td>
<td>National Teaching Awards</td>
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<tr>
<td>OBE</td>
<td>Outcomes Based Education</td>
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<tr>
<td>PDSA</td>
<td>Plan, Do, Study, Act Cycle</td>
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<tr>
<td>PGP</td>
<td>Professional Growth Plan</td>
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<tr>
<td>PL 1</td>
<td>Post Level 1 Educator</td>
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<td>PSR</td>
<td>Periodic Service Review</td>
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<td>QA</td>
<td>Quality Assurance</td>
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<td>QIT</td>
<td>Quality Improvement Team</td>
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<td>Quality Management Systems</td>
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<tr>
<td>SACE</td>
<td>South African Council for Educators</td>
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<tr>
<td>SADTU</td>
<td>South African Democratic Teachers Union</td>
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<td>SAQA</td>
<td>South African Qualifications Authority</td>
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<td>SASA</td>
<td>South African Schools Act, (84 of 1996)</td>
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<td>SDP</td>
<td>School Development Plan</td>
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<td>SDT</td>
<td>Staff Development Team</td>
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<td>SGB</td>
<td>School Governing Body</td>
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<td>SMT</td>
<td>School Management Team</td>
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<tr>
<td>Acronym</td>
<td>Description</td>
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<tr>
<td>SPC</td>
<td>Statistical Process Control</td>
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<tr>
<td>SWOT</td>
<td>Strengths, Weaknesses, Opportunities and Threats</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TQM</td>
<td>Total Quality Management</td>
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<tr>
<td>VSP</td>
<td>Voluntary Severance Package</td>
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<td>WSE</td>
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CHAPTER ONE

GENERAL INTRODUCTION AND ORIENTATION OF STUDY

1.1 INTRODUCTION

It was the provision of inferior quality education that became one of the most important catalysts for political action against the apartheid government in the seventies and eighties. In the nineties, it was abundantly clear that the system of public education in South Africa faced grave problems. Therefore, when the first democratic government took control in May 1994, the transformation of the education system was high on its agenda. Notwithstanding the wave of reform that took place, the White Paper on Education and Training has not been able to deliver on many of its promises.

In his State of the Nation address to the National Assembly on 4 February 2000, President Thabo Mbeki stated:

'... this year, we will pay special attention to the improvement of the quality of management of our schools, with the intention of ensuring that we really re-inculcate the culture of learning, teaching and discipline throughout our school system.'

In launching TIRISANO, on 27 July 1999, the Minister of Education, Professor Kader Asmal reported that:

'large parts of our system are seriously dysfunctional.... My attention has been drawn to the serious crisis of leadership, governance, management and administration in many parts of the system.'
The Director-General of Education, Thami Msleku, in the Statement of Public Service Commitment argues:

'Our challenge as public servants is how to change words into action and to ensure that we deliver a range of services and outcomes that meet people's needs.'

Years of neglect of education, African education in particular, has led to the disintegration of learning environments and the death of the culture of teaching and learning in many schools. A 1996 Department of Education report (1996: 18) noted that the low qualifications and poor morale of the black teachers took its toll, creating despondency and apathy in many school communities.

Writing in the *Sunday Times*, 10 November 2002, Mtshali observes the 'massive flow of pupils between schools'. Many travel from the townships to attend former 'advantaged' schools. Mtshali (2002: 17) argues that, 'the reality of public schools in South Africa is this: according to law they are all the same, but in practice they remain unequal.' Vast differences in facilities, commitment and discipline between public schools in the townships and those in the suburbs fuel perceptions that city schools offer superior quality education. Schools like Hleziphi Primary in Katlehong are bleeding. The principal, Nkosana Gwegana, says that the school can accommodate 1000 pupils but has only 500. At least 10 of the neighbouring schools are in a similar predicament. Gwegana adds, 'I believe most schools have lost students because of negligence by management and teachers.' This view is, in a way, shared by the Minister of Education, Prof. K. Asmal, who conceded that the quality of teaching in many schools 'left much to be desired' but hastened to add that this was an attitude and not a capacity problem (The Mercury 28 August 2001).

Notwithstanding this, pockets of excellence do exist in the townships. These schools argue that the so-called 'quality schools' do not do anything out of the ordinary. They simply stick to the tried and tested basic ingredients of good management, parental involvement and dedicated teaching. Further, these ingredients exist in sufficient quantities to ensure a reasonably high quality of education.
Mtshali (2002: 17) points out that those who remain in the townships are aware that many public schools in these areas are dying. Despite their best efforts and some success stories, they have not managed to persuade those who left township education behind, to return to their local schools. Maria Makobo, a parent whose two children attend suburban schools, says she wants big changes in learning and teaching in the townships before she will move her children back there. She adamantly states, 'I want to see improved leadership in schools. And there has to be better co-operation between school management, parents and teachers…'

What is clearly being demanded is a better quality education, and the idea of good quality is not new. According to Sallis (1996: 6) there has always been a need to ensure that products conform to their specification and give customer satisfaction and value for money. Jenkins (1991:97) is convinced that in a period when consumer choice and customer perception of quality is cardinal, schools which can offer quality in terms of product and customer service will survive and prosper.

The ideas of consumer choice and meeting or exceeding customer expectations are central to the Total Quality Management (TQM) philosophy. Customer-driven quality requires providers of services to be constantly enquiring as to the needs of stakeholders and to do so in such a way that stakeholders can see their ideas, concerns and suggestions being implemented on a regular basis. However, according to Bouckaert (1995: 21) the idea of quality customer service hasn’t always been a focus of attention in the public service.

In the late 1980s many states embarked on an agenda of profound change in the public service. Bouckaert (1995: 21) observes the shift in the public sector from a 'quantity' focus to a 'quantity and quality' focus. The quality focus in the public sector did not mean spending more or less. What it aimed at was cutting out excesses and responding to consumers needs in appropriate ways. Management innovation was directed at improving quality. Governments started to operate more like business or at the least, an entrepreneurial spirit started to prevail. In certain quarters, there was a demand for the rediscovery of concepts such as customer care and quality. A new framework for the delivery of public services started to treat citizens more like customers and enabled citizens to hold public servants accountable.
Johnston (1995: 94) after a study of many cases concluded that Total Quality Management has carried the burden of responsibility in so many cases, for improving quality and productivity. It does an admirable job when applied appropriately. Clegg, Ibarra-Colado & Bueno-Rodriquez (1999: 13) contend that Total Quality Management has been the most universally adopted aspect of recent global ‘best practice’ management.

Downey, Frase & Peters (1994: xi) in discussing the quality education challenge, pose some interesting questions, ‘Will the children we are educating today be able to compete in a world economy? Are we preparing world-class citizens not only for tomorrow but for today?’ Many educators and leaders of industry are concerned that the answer is ‘no’. Companies are becoming very active in the educational quest for quality to ensure that their workers have the attitudes and capabilities to function effectively in the global economy. Downey, Frase & Peters (1994: xi) conclude by asserting that the quality movement provides an avenue to ensure that the youth will be able to compete in the international arena. They suggest that the educational system needs a major overhaul, and it is our responsibility to become systemic change facilitators in our organizations. To help our students to function effectively in the 21st century, we will need a major attitudinal change in the way we do our business and many structural changes in our organization.

According to an Internet article on improving the education system, a total quality approach to running schools is necessary for the following reasons:

- We live in an extremely dynamic world with depleting resources. Since schools have to equip learners to function to their fullest potential in such an environment, then the schools themselves must be dynamic and flexible.

- The expectations of students, industry, parents, and the public in general regarding educational priorities, costs, accessibility, programmes, and relevancy, make it imperative for schools to undergo continual assessment and improvement.
• Economic conditions have created greater concern about economic well-being and career flexibility. Schools have to respond to this real fear of career obsolescence and career inadequacy.

• Funding resources for education are diminishing at a rapid rate. Schools have to find innovative ways of cutting costs without cutting quality. There is the false notion that quality is expensive. Quite the contrary, quality programmes are very cost-efficient (Internet http://husky1.stmarys.ca/-hmillar/tqmedu.htm: 1-2).

In making out a case for transforming public schools, Steyn (1999: 357) posits that Total Quality Management, an approach that has assisted business organizations to compete globally, embodies principles that could be applied to improve public schools and the provision of education in South Africa. According to Sallis (1996: 27) TQM is a philosophy of continuous improvement, which can provide any educational organization with a set of practical tools for meeting and exceeding present and future customer needs, wants and expectations. Bonstingl (1996:38) sees TQM as a useful philosophy, providing schools with the means of developing highly personalised customer-supplier relationships that provide abundant rewards. Arcaro (1995: 93) sees TQM as a tool that can help education professionals cope with today’s changing environment. TQM helps to alleviate the fear of change and can increase interpersonal trust in schools.

Leddick (1993: 76) poses the poignant question, ‘Why does education need TQM now?’ She responds that the expectations of organizations who will employ our students and taxpayers who support our schools, and the citizens who depend on today’s youth to lead the nation tomorrow, have never been higher. And the gap between those expectations and perceived school performance may never have been lower.

However, the critical question arises, ‘Is Total Quality Management, an industrial and manufacturing theory, relevant to education?’ Chesterton (1994: 19) asks, whether industry is not imposing a mechanistic straitjacket on schools.
Schenkat (1993: 27) observes that educators are usually sceptical about accepting business panaceas for schools. According to Fields (1993: 3) educators suggest that teaching well is more an art than an operation. Siegel & Bryne (1994: 108) argue that unlike business, the work processes in education are relatively undefined and schools have complex customer-supplier relations. Resources in schools are limited and schools operate under severe time constraints. Pallas & Neumann (1995: 52) are of the view that efforts to translate TQM from business to education may result in meaningful aspects of schools and schooling being lost or disfigured in translation. In exploring the question of customer satisfaction, Wilkinson (1994:25) poses the question of whether learners, parents and other role players know what is in their best interest. Keeping the customer happy may not, in itself, be an intrinsic measure of the success of the education process.

In addition to the above concerns, the viewpoint exists that South African public schools cannot talk about 'quality' in education until the issue of 'equality' in the provision of education is first resolved. However, Riley (1997: 26) points out that that the issues of quality and equality are interconnected: not separate entities but inseparable features of any good education provision. Fostering quality and equality requires an awareness of the obstacles which individuals face in achieving their potential and of the barriers which obstruct harmonious relationships between groups and individuals. Resolving such equality issues is a route to quality. In addition, concerns also arise around the cost of implementing TQM. Can cash-strapped education departments and schools afford the cost of implementing TQM? Is TQM just another management fad that is destined to fade into obscurity?

There are also serious concerns around whether a quality culture exists in our public schools. Is the climate conducive to implementing the principles of Total Quality Management? TQM provides an institution with a set of practical tools in order to meet or exceed customer expectations. However, the mere availability of these tools does not guarantee quality. Is there adequate capacity, willingness and commitment on the part of all role players in education to employ the tools in order to attain the quality transformation?
1.2 RATIONALE FOR THE STUDY

Currently there is a large movement of learners from ‘historically disadvantaged’ schools to ‘advantaged’ schools. The movement is based on the perceptions of quality schools. Parents and learners perceive certain schools as offering a high quality education. The rational for this study stems from an urgent requirement for a management practice that would guarantee system-wide quality. Reports abound of serious problems in the management of schools. Large parts of the system are reportedly dysfunctional. There exists a crisis of leadership, governance, management and administration in many parts of the system. It is hoped that Total Quality Management can offer some solutions to help revive the public education system. As consumers become more discerning, they are increasingly demanding a range of services that meet their needs. The crux of the TQM philosophy is meeting and exceeding customer expectations of service delivery.

1.3 RESEARCH AIMS AND OBJECTIVES

Total Quality Management is essentially a business or industrial theory that has assisted businesses to compete globally by improving management practices. The objectives of this research are:

- To determine whether TQM has any relevance to the public education system.
- To investigate whether our public schools have the basic ingredients for the implementation of a quality programme.
- To explore the scope and applicability of TQM to the South African public schooling system.
- To determine whether the principles of TQM that helped the private sector transform and focus on customer satisfaction, can be applied to transform schools and improve service delivery in the education sector.
1.4 THE PURPOSE AND SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY

Daugherty (1996: 83) is of the view that empirical evidence about total quality in education is limited.

The purpose of this study is to examine and evaluate the business concept of Total Quality Management (TQM) and ascertain its scope and applicability to the public schooling system in South Africa. It has been established that the public schooling system faces huge challenges. Given the fact that public resources are limited, we need to identify new and improved ways of doing things. We need to start emphasising concepts such as productivity and quality in education. We need to strive to continuously get more out of a given set of resources. This study intends to explore the prospects that Total Quality Management offers for the introduction of quality and improved service delivery to meet customer expectations and needs.

1.5 STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

It is argued that given the historical imbalances and inequities, the focus of South African education should be on equality in the provision of education. The problems and disparities that exist are so severe that we cannot even start to talk about quality. The battle for equality must first be won before we can proceed to talk about quality. The basic ingredients of a quality management programme, such as vision, mission, planning, leadership, communication and teamwork, are absent in the majority of schools; therefore there is no scope for TQM to be applied to the South African public schooling system.

1.6 RESEARCH APPROACH

In this study, an attempt is made to search for answers from both the theoretical (literature survey) as well as the empirical perspective (questionnaires and interviews).
1.6.1 LITERATURE STUDY

Primary and secondary sources were examined. A comprehensive study of books and journals in the field of public administration and education was made. Selected examples of public sector transformation to attain quality service delivery were examined. Legislation relating to education transformation was examined. Other documents and discussion papers were studied. The literature was also explored to find cases of the successful implementation of TQM.

1.6.2 EMPIRICAL SEARCH

The empirical search was conducted by means of the following methods:

1.6.2.1 QUESTIONNAIRES

Questionnaires were administered to a sample of educators across the Province of KwaZulu-Natal. However, the findings will have implications for all the other 8 provinces in South Africa. The purpose of the questionnaire was to establish whether the conditions that prevail in schools favour, or do not favour, the application of the principles of Total Quality Management.

1.6.2.2 INTERVIEWS

Firstly, a set of questions was put to chairpersons/ members of school governing bodies. The main focus was to ascertain whether governing bodies were aware that it was their responsibility to provide quality education for all learners. In interviewing departmental officials, it was hoped to elicit information on some of the problems currently being experienced in implementing quality initiatives.
1.6.2.3 OBSERVATIONS

Observations were made, but these were standardised or clarified against research data. The researcher has served as principal of a large secondary school for the past five years.

1.7 CLARIFICATION OF CONCEPTS

In order to facilitate understanding, broad explanations of the key terms associated with the topic are provided.

1.7.1 SCOPE

Scope refers to outlook, purview, sweep, reach or sphere of observation or action. It specifically refers to the extent to which it is permissible or possible (Sykes 1976: 1015).

With reference to Total Quality Management, there would be an exploration of the extent to which TQM is permissible or possible in the public schooling system.

1.7.2 APPLICABILITY

Applicability is derived from the word applicable which means capable of being applied, having reference to, being appropriate to (Sykes 1976: 45).

TQM is essentially a business or manufacturing concept. It has its roots in industry. The study will examine whether TQM can be applied to, or is appropriate to, the education sector.
1.7.3 TOTAL QUALITY MANAGEMENT

This concept can be broken down into:

1.7.3.1 TOTAL

Total means complete, or comprising the whole. Everyone in the organization is involved in creating and maintaining the quality of the services and products offered by the organization (St Clair 1997: 54).
You cannot apply TQM to a single part of the organization.

1.7.3.2 QUALITY

Gryna (2001: 4) asserts that a short definition of quality is ‘customer satisfaction and loyalty’. Armand V. Feigenbaum one of the founders of the Total Quality Management movement, defines quality as ‘a customer determination, not an engineer’s determination, not a marketing determination, or a general management determination. It is based upon the customer’s actual experience with the product or service, measured against his or her requirements – stated or unstated, conscious or merely sensed, technically operational or entirely subjective – and always representing a moving target in a competitive market’ (Bounds, Dobbins & Fowler 1995: 21).

St Clair (1997: 54) puts it simply as, ‘the organization through individual and collective actions focuses on meeting customer needs, recognising that it is the customer’s perception that identifies quality’.

In order to further understand the concept quality, Sallis (1996: 19) distinguishes between quality control, quality assurance and total quality.

Quality control is the oldest quality concept. It involves the detection and elimination of components or final products which are not up to standard. It is an after-the-event process concerned with detecting and rejecting defective items. As a method of ensuring quality, it may involve a considerable amount of waste, scrap and re-
CHAPTER TWO

PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION, PUBLIC SECTOR TRANSFORMATION AND SOME CURRENT QUALITY INITIATIVES IN THE EDUCATION SECTOR

2.1 INTRODUCTION

The purpose of this chapter is to provide an overview of public administration and the attempts to transform the public sector to attain productivity, quality and improved service delivery. The education sector in South Africa will be examined in particular. A brief account will be provided of education prior to 1994, and thereafter the attempts to transform education under a new democratic dispensation will be examined. With specific reference to quality, attempts to transform the civil service will be discussed – both the international scenario and the South African experience will be presented. Finally, a critical study of the current quality assurance initiatives of the Department of Education will be made.

2.2 PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION

Education administration is part of the broad public sector administration. The National government is entrusted with the task of policy formulation and monitoring, whilst it is the responsibility of the Provincial government to implement policy and undertake the day-to-day administration of education. The activity or process of implementing government policies with the intention of improving the quality of life of the citizenry is what public administration is all about.

The Public Administration Dictionary defines public administration as the executive branch of government, civil service or the bureaucracy charged with formulation (facilitation), implementation, evaluation and modification of government policy (Fox
& Meyer 1995: 105). According to Fox, Schwella & Wissink (1991: 2) public administration is defined as:

- that system of structures and processes,
- operating within a particular society as environment,
- with the objective of facilitating the formulation of appropriate governmental policy, and
- the efficient execution of the formulated policy.

It is clear that public administration involves multi-faceted activities, processes and functions undertaken by public officials to promote the welfare and well being of the community. With specific reference to this study, of particular significance is the reference to ‘the efficient execution of the formulated policy’. Further, it is necessary to examine carefully Fox & Meyer’s (1995: 105) definition that public administration is aimed at ‘clarifying a conception of government and its relationship with society, promoting government policy which is more responsive to social needs and establishing management practices in public bureaucracies designed to reach efficiency and effectiveness and satisfying to a greater extent the deeper needs of the public’.

The question that arises is, ‘Are current management practices in the education sector aimed at promoting efficiency and effectiveness?’ The management practices employed must enable schools as public institutions to be able to deliver in terms of their public mandate.

2.3 PUBLIC MANAGEMENT

Fox & Meyer (1995: 106) define public management as a small but very important part of public administration. The management of public functions and private enterprises have some common elements, but the environment, objectives and processes are different. Public-sector management refers to the macro-management of the delivery of national goods and services. It also involves concrete policies and
programmes by which the state provides public goods and services and promotes and regulates certain forms of economic and social behaviour, while maintaining the institutions and instrumentalities of government. The micro-level of management refers to the operations of individual managers at the middle and supervisory levels. Schwella, Burger, Fox & Muller (1996: 5-6) clarify that the introduction of public management into the theory and practice of public administration does not suspend, subsume or replace this discipline. Public management is a discipline within public administration and an intrinsic part of public administration systems. In systems terms, public management is:

- that system of structures and processes;
- operating within the public administration system as environment;
- with the objective of effectively, efficiently and productively utilising scarce public resources;
- in pursuing legal and legitimate policy goals and objectives.

Put differently, public management is the use of scarce resources in pursuing policy goals. The utilisation should be optimally effective, efficient and productive, and legitimately and legally democratic (Schwella, Burger, Fox & Muller 1996: 6). Botes (1994: 5) advocates that the public manager has to change his attitude to adapt to the changing environment and should remain reactive to all public demands.

With reference to the debate between public administration and public management, Cloete (1998: 117) points out that it must be borne in mind, that public administration will be based on political values and not business motives and principles. Nevertheless, political functionaries and public officials will also be bound by the reality that resources are inadequate to satisfy all needs. Therefore, public functionaries will, in the same way as private sector entrepreneurs, need to deliver goods and services at the least cost.
2.4 EDUCATION MANAGEMENT

Singh (1995: xiii) asserts that we need to recognise the significance of management in the enterprise of education. The skills of management such as planning, organising, communicating and evaluating are all essential to sound educational management. The escalating cost of education, ignorance about waste control or quality control and improper handling of plans and policies prove that all is not well with the affairs of education. The concept of educational management is different from that of general management only in the use of terminology. Management is a method of operation, in that it deals with what is to be done, how is it to be done and how do we know when we have done it. Good management in education requires a governmental, industrial and academic coalition which leads to the highest form of profit – a better society through the mobilisation of human intelligence and ability.

2.5 TOTAL QUALITY MANAGEMENT

According to Murgatroyd & Morgan (1993: x) the focus on quality for the customer has led to the development of a body of theory, tools and applications that has become known in management as TQM – Total Quality Management. This is a new branch of management.

TQM aims at changing the traditional management style, by emphasizing the handing down of responsibility, allowing for autonomy and promoting local decision making. Greater motivation and creativity are expected and continuous improvement is emphasized (Flood 1993: xii). Langford & Cleary (1995: 180) view Total Quality Management as a way of managing systems that include an emphasis on understanding systems, variation, customer needs and a focus on making improvement after collecting data and analysing responses to what is suggested by that data. TQM utilises statistical and problem-solving tools to bring about planned change and continuous improvement in a system.
Total Quality Management is a business-wide customer driven strategy of change which moves us progressively to an environment where a steady and continuous improvement of everything we do is a way of life (Pike & Barnes 1994: 25).

2.6 QUALITY AND PUBLIC SECTOR TRANSFORMATION

The transformation of the public service is a universal phenomenon. However, according to Bouckaert (1995: 21) quality hasn’t always been a focus of attention in the public sector. But the shift in the public sector from a ‘quantity’ focus to a ‘quantity and quality’ focus is now widely taken for granted. This trend is inspired by two distinct tendencies: increasing the level of democracy, and maintaining a level of welfare and well-being. This may result in a higher level of quality and an increase in the legitimacy of the public sector.

Turner & Hulme (1997: 2) make mention of ample evidence of dysfunctional bureaucracies avidly devouring scarce resources but failing to produce anticipated outcomes. Vitantzakis (1995: 55) is firm in the belief that should we try to incorporate quality in the framework of public administration, we will discover that both the citizens/consumers, and the employees participate and contribute to the attainment of set targets, thus creating a relationship of mutual appreciation, motivation and the ‘sense of success’ between the bodies offering their services.

2.6.1 THE INTERNATIONAL EXPERIENCE

In the late 1980s many states embarked on an agenda of profound change in the civil service. Governments began to increasingly embark on administrations characterised by productivity and quality. Defining quality in the public sector has proved difficult, partly because of the difficulty in standardising personal services, unlike manufactured goods. Tonge and Horton (1996: 89) posit that quality in public services has to deal with responding to different needs in an appropriate way. Management innovation throughout the public service is aimed at improving quality.
Osborne & Gaebler (1992: 20-23) in concluding that government cannot be run like a business, hasten to add that there is no reason why government cannot become more entrepreneurial – any institution, public or private, can be entrepreneurial, just as any institution, public or private, can be bureaucratic. There is a vast continuum between bureaucratic behaviour and entrepreneurial behaviour, and government can surely shift its position on that spectrum. This in no way means less spending. What it does mean is cutting out waste, fraud and abuse.

In referring to the United States of America, Osborne & Gaebler (1992: 23-24) point out that waste in government is staggering, which cannot be attended to by wading through the budget and cutting line items. There is a need to turn bureaucratic institutions into entrepreneurial institutions, ready to kill off obsolete initiatives, willing to do more with less, eager to absorb new ideas. The crux of their argument is: ‘...our fundamental problem today is not too much government or too little government. Our fundamental problem is that we have the wrong kind of government. We do not need more government or less government, we need better government. To be more precise, we need better governance. Governance is the process by which we collectively solve our problems and meet our society’s needs. Government is the instrument we use. The instrument is outdated, and the process of reinvention has begun...’

In referring to American public schools, Osborne & Gaebler (1992: 93) observe that students don’t choose; and schools don’t compete for their customers. The public school is a monopoly. In contrast, Peter Drucker points out that schools in Japan are graded by the performance of their students on the university entrance exams. The teachers of high-ranking schools are recognised, promoted, and paid accordingly. It is clear that the American public school has a near-monopoly – no performance and little competition either within the system or from the outside. Traditional public education in America is a classic example of the bureaucratic model. It is centralised, top-down, and rule-driven; each school is a monopoly; customers have little choice; and no one’s job depends on their performance. It is a system that guarantees stability, not change.
However, when it comes to the effects of competition, education is no different from any other service industry. As Governor Tommy Thompson of Wisconsin explains:

'Competition breeds accountability. Under the concept of parental choice, schools will be held accountable for their student's performance. Schools providing a high quality education would flourish, the same way as a business that improves its quality for its consumers. Schools failing to meet the needs of their students would not be able to compete, and in effect, would go out of business.'

(Osborne & Gaebler 1992: 94).

Osborne and Gaebler (1992: 94-96) refer to the study of Chubb & Moe who examined data on 500 high schools to discover what factors most influenced student performance. The greatest influence was, of course, the aptitude the student brought to school – something determined largely by family background. But the second most important influence was the school itself. Yet the traditional factors often emphasized—teacher salaries, per pupil expenditure, class size, graduation requirements—had no impact on school performance. Instead the keys were parental control, the clarity of the school's mission, strong leadership, and the degree of freedom and respect offered to the teachers.

The study concluded that a system of competition and choice automatically provides the incentives for schools to do what is right. Competition for customers creates real consequences and real pressures for change when schools fail. Only competition constantly forces principals and teachers to make the difficult changes necessary to meet the demands of their students. Osborne and Gaebler (1992: 159) point out that one approach used by an increasing number of governments is Total Quality Management. The federal government has even set up the Federal Quality Institute to propagate the faith. TQM has become an extremely powerful tool. By forcing organizations to listen, TQM has become extremely effective at changing their cultures.

To cope with the massive changes, entrepreneurial governments have begun to transform themselves. They have begun to listen carefully to their customers, through customer surveys, focus groups, and a wide variety of other methods. They have
begun to offer their customers choices — of schools, of recreation facilities, even of police services. And they have begun to put their customers in the driver’s seat, by putting resources directly in their hands and letting them choose their service providers. Parental choice of school is an excellent mechanism for ensuring accountability. Some principles of entrepreneurial governance that can be adopted are:

- Greater choice for parents and students
- A system of accountability that focuses on results, rather than on compliance with rules and regulations
- Giving schools greater decision making authority
- A personnel system that provides real rewards for success with students and real consequences for failure
- Active, sustained parental and business involvement (Osborne & Gaebler 1992: 315-316).

Johnston (1995: 89) provides a crisp summary of the research of Osborne and Gaebler (1992). As public managers began to recover from the fiscal and service demand assaults, their innovative adjustments began to take root, demonstrating improvements in both quality and productivity. The emerging paradigm, however, is very different from a number of the lethargic and unresponsive bureaucracies of the past. The new paradigm could be described as, ‘decentralised, flexible, adaptive, competitive, learning, customer oriented, creative, lean, and streamlined.’

In the **United Kingdom**, the concern for quality management in the public sector came from several different sources. There was a demand for the rediscovery of concepts of customer care and quality. As interest in these elements grew throughout the public sector, government attempted to adopt a co-ordinated approach through the mechanism of the Citizens Charter. The marketing and TQM approaches, highlighted the need to conceptualise and manage a portfolio of the 'publics', amongst whom the end users were to be given much more weight than was previously usual in public services (Bovaird 1995: 117).

In discussing the necessity for reform in the public sector, Kickert (1997: 17) saw the new emphasis on an increase in productivity, greater efficiency and better value for money. The new focus called for:

- Business-like management
- Service and client orientation
- Market-type mechanisms such as competition.

Hood (1991:3) adds that the New Public Management (NPM) aimed to offer an all-purpose key to better provision of public services. The NPM, although not a uniquely British development, is best described as a shorthand name for the set of broadly similar administrative doctrines which dominated the bureaucratic reform agenda. Some saw the NPM as the only way to correct the irretrievable failures and even moral bankruptcy in the old public management. Whilst different commentators and advocates of the New Public Management have stressed different aspects of the doctrine, there are seven overlapping precepts summarised in the table that follows:
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No.</th>
<th>DOCTRINE</th>
<th>MEANING</th>
<th>TYPICAL JUSTIFICATION</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1.</td>
<td>'Hands-on professional management' in the public sector</td>
<td>Active, visible, discretionary control of organizations from named persons at the top, ‘free to manage’</td>
<td>Accountability requires clear assignment of responsibility for action, not diffusion of power.</td>
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<td>2.</td>
<td>Explicit standards and measures of performance</td>
<td>Definition of goals, targets, indicators of success, preferably expressed in quantitative terms, especially for professional services.</td>
<td>Accountability requires clear statement of goals; efficiency requires ‘hard look’ at objectives.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.</td>
<td>Greater emphasis on output controls</td>
<td>Resource allocation and rewards linked to measured performance; break up of centralised bureaucracy-wide personnel management</td>
<td>Need to stress results rather than procedures</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.</td>
<td>Shift to disaggregation of units in the public sector</td>
<td>Break up of formerly ‘monolithic’ units, unbundling of U-form management systems into corporatised units around products, operating on decentralised ‘one-line’ budgets and dealing with one another on an ‘arms-length’ basis.</td>
<td>Need to create ‘manageable’ units, separate provision and production interests, gain efficiency advantages of use of contract or franchise arrangements inside as well as outside the public sector.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.</td>
<td>Shift to greater competition in the public sector</td>
<td>Move to term contracts and public tendering procedures</td>
<td>Rivalry as the key to lower costs and better standards</td>
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<td>6.</td>
<td>Stress on private sector styles of management practice</td>
<td>Move away from military-style ‘public service ethic’, greater flexibility in hiring and rewards; greater use of PR techniques</td>
<td>Need to use ‘proven’ private sector management tools in the public sector</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7.</td>
<td>Stress on greater discipline and parsimony in resource use</td>
<td>Cutting direct costs, raising labour discipline, resisting union demands, limiting ‘compliance costs’ to business</td>
<td>Need to check resource demands of public sector and ‘do more with less’.</td>
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TABLE 2.1 Doctrinal Components of New Public Management (Hood 1991: 4-5).

Of particular relevance to this study is doctrine number 6 that stresses private sector styles of management. This is justified by the need to use proven private sector management tools in the public sector. Total Quality Management is one such tool.
With regard to Finland, Summa (1995: 162) asserts that the management philosophy known as total quality management is making its way into the Finnish public service filtered through the experience of a number of private companies, which have successfully applied TQM in their development work, and through American literature on applications of TQM in the U.S. Federal Government. The Finnish government has given quality philosophy a start, by requiring that all ministries should launch comprehensive quality and productivity programmes in their respective administrative sectors. Whilst not being prescriptive, the literature distributed by the Ministry of Finance captures very much the spirit of total quality management. The general guidelines emphasize the importance of customer feedback systems, the analysis, design and redesign of production and service processes, the avoidance of waste and the ‘right the first time’ idea, the principle of continuous improvement, as well as the empowerment and involvement of all members of the organization in continuous quality improvement.

The new TQM-inspired management philosophy was received with enthusiasm: process re-engineering has been started in several organizations; targets for radical shortenings of achievement schedules have been set, streamlining of administrative processes has already brought about savings and a number of organizations are aiming to get the National Quality Award which was recently opened for applications from the public sector (Summa 1995: 162).

Summa (1995: 162-163) asserts that the reason for the popularity of the TQM-based management philosophy is that its central ideas correspond to needs of public sector organizations. The following explanations may be given as to why the quality-based management techniques have a strong appeal to public sector managers and reformers:

- TQM typically leads to explicitly customer-based definitions of the criteria for good performance. This appeals strongly to professional staff which has, because of expenditure cuts and economic strain, become increasingly worried about maintaining the quality of service. The explicit customer focus leads to more concrete and meaningful target indicators which are much more likely to generate commitment to quality and performance improvement.
The idea of motivation, implicit in the TQM-philosophy, relies more on moral commitment to good performance than on a logical system of sanctions and rewards. Bowman (1994) describes TQM as an ethic, governing everything that is done in an organization. The ideas of empowerment of personnel and team-based joint responsibility for continuous improvement appeals strongly to today’s well trained staff.

The existence of quality prizes such as the Malcolm Balridge and the European Quality Awards, provide clear criteria.

A fourth, and maybe the most important explanation for the appeal of the TQM approach, is the promise that it will be possible to simultaneously reduce costs and enhance quality. Further, releasing all from the prevailing myth that quality deteriorates if productivity increases is an essential part of the charm of TQM.

In France, a group of experts met in 1992 under the auspices of the Scientific Assessment Committee at the request of the Minister for the Civil Service to debate the issues of quality indicators in public services. Some of the questions that the group formulated and grappled with were:

- Is it possible to define quality concepts for satisfaction and efficiency and specify the most suitable terminology for the public service situation?
- How is it possible to know and understand public service users? Are they simply customers, beneficiaries, users or partners? What are the best methods of identifying their expectations?
- Once quality has been defined, can it be measured using indicators?
- Is quality measurable at a global level?
- Is quality an expression of internal administrative standards or a response to user requests?
- Is quality expensive?
When we speak of quality, are we referring to the quality of the relationship (between the public official and the user) or the quality of the services and products? (Trosa 1995: 139-140).

The aim of the study was to specify the conditions under which the expectations of users would be better accommodated into the definition of a public service. For the question of quality to be relevant, public service has to be considered not only as exercising authority or producing standards but also providing services which can be adapted to some extent to user requirements. The idea of a civil service, above all else, implies that the activity could or should be adapted to meet user expectations. Formulating satisfaction or quality indicators is based on two elements: the ability to recognise the expectations of users and the analysis and subsequent rationalisation of working processes. However, whilst the analysis of satisfaction is a useful concept in bringing the administration closer to its users, there are certain reservations:

- Firstly, some public activities cannot only involve satisfaction, for example all parents expect the best school reports for their children.
- Satisfaction is not proportional to improvements in service; the latter may only raise expectations.
- Users do not form a homogenous category: satisfaction indicators must therefore refer to an analysis of the various types of users, their characteristics and interests. (Trosa 1995: 142-145).

The Committee grappled with the question of the balance between quality aspects and costs. The two are often thought of as necessarily in conflict: more quality costs more money, whilst very often better organization of work results in better quality without incurring additional costs. The study finally defined the search for quality as: 'measuring the implementation of defined standards as a function of the organization’s priority objectives and user needs, given the level of resources and the specific constraints in each service'. (Trosa 1995: 151-151).

In examining the case of Malaysia, it is observed that the Malaysian Civil Service stepped into the decade of the 1990s with a new agenda of profound change for
national development. The vision was to create an excellent civil service. Major administrative reforms were carried out to realise this vision. The most notable reforms implemented were in the areas of quality and productivity. Total Quality Management became a significant management philosophy. The successful implementation of TQM hinged on seven management principles as identified by Amad Sarji (1995: i)

- Commitment from top management
- Customer focus
- Strategic quality planning
- Training and recognition
- Teamwork
- Performance appraisal
- Quality assurance

With TQM, the Malaysian Civil Service became more customer focused and quality conscious. TQM provided a framework for continuous improvement based on a culture of creativity and innovation. This represented a shift in paradigm from traditional management where public services were delivered through a rigid top-down, inward-looking bureaucracy to one that was customer driven.

The implementation of reforms in the Malaysian Civil Service was not without difficulties. However, a clear vision and direction coupled with careful planning, enabled the Government to implement the reforms successfully. Several key success factors have been identified, among which are effective leadership, active involvement and participation of employees, and an appropriate value system (Sarji 1995: ii).

Malaysia’s Quality Improvement Process Model involved the following steps:

- Strategic planning whereby the top management sets clear direction for the department.
• Determination of quality standards for output whereby the output and its quality standards are set.
• Determining process quality whereby the various stages in the production of the output are identified.
• Determination of the quality of human resources whereby training and development of members of the organization is given priority.
• The problem-solving process whereby problems are identified, analysed and speedily solved. (Sarji 1995: 13).

Sarji (1995: 20) argues that the role of top management in ensuring the success of TQM cannot be belittled. As Professor Ishikawa has emphasized, 'If there is no leadership at the top, stop promoting TQM'. Development Administration Circular No 1 of 1992 clearly outlined the functions of top management in implementing TQM in their organizations. The six functions are:

• Formulating a quality policy and quality values at departmental level.
• Setting up a quality management structure at departmental level.
• Encouraging the total involvement of workers.
• Disseminating information on quality throughout the organization.
• Managing the change process.
• Organising a Quality Day.

In Japan, the productivity and quality movement started with an analysis of how Europe had adopted and adapted American productivity techniques and approaches. Japan was faced with a turbulent system of industrial relations and a poor quality image. The initiators of the Japanese productivity movement came to the conclusion that at least a cease-fire and at best a treaty had to be negotiated between organised labour, management and government. The resulting 1955 productivity principles laid down that:

• Productivity should be brought about through close labour-management cooperation and consultation, with government as a supportive partner. All energies should be focused towards the production of 'market-desired' goods.
• The prime purpose of productivity increase should be more employment and greater employment security.
• The fruits of increased productivity should be fairly distributed among all stakeholders.

The concept of 'improvement' was paramount in productivity- it has always been closely associated with 'quality' (Halachmi & Bouckert 1995: x).

Johnston (1995: 94) concludes that Total Quality Management has recently carried the burden of being responsible in so many cases for improving quality and productivity. It does an admirable job when applied appropriately.

Summa (1995: 161) adds that what is new to public sector reformers is the idea of transforming the pursuit of quality into a holistic managerial approach which includes client responsiveness, good organization, good financial and personnel management and worker morale. So far the focus on the public sector concern for quality has been more on service delivery than on the total quality of management and work processes.

2.6.2 TRANSFORMING THE SOUTH AFRICAN PUBLIC SERVICE

From the outset it was abundantly clear that the public service in post-apartheid South Africa was wholly unsuited for the task of reconstruction and development. What was needed is people who passionately shared the government’s vision and values and who would be able to drive the reconstruction and development programme.

Klug (1993: 25) argues that there was a need to rebuild South Africa’s public service. The first post-apartheid government could not be expected to continue with the old service. The South African public service is modelled on its British counterpart, theoretically serving the government of the day. But many of the incumbents in 1994 were the implementers of apartheid. Over forty years of National Party rule had produced a public service that was indistinguishable from its political masters. Since over 80% of the top six categories of public servants - effectively the policy-formulating and managerial levels- were white and had no experience in serving anyone but their party leadership, the new government was compelled to take
measures to transform the civil service. There was a need for a more representative public service committed to efficient and effective service delivery to the masses of the population who have hitherto been denied these services.

The Government Green Paper on Transforming Public Service Delivery (1996) aimed at providing the policy and principles which would enable national departments and provincial administrations to develop departmental service delivery strategies. Departments were required to develop the strategies to promote continuous improvement in the quality, quantity and equity of service provision. Among other things, the strategies were required to identify:

- A mission statement for service delivery, together with service guarantees.
- The service to be provided and to whom.
- Service standards, defined outputs and targets, and performance indicators; benchmarked against comparable international standards.
- Monitoring and evaluation mechanisms and structures, designed to measure progress and introduce corrective action, where appropriate.
- Plans for staffing, human resource development and organizational capacity building, tailored to service delivery needs.
- The redirection of human and other resources from administrative tasks to service provision, particularly for disadvantaged groups and areas.
- Financial plans that link budgets directly to service needs and personnel plans.
- Potential partnerships with the private sector, NGOs or community organizations that will provide more effective forms of service delivery.
- The development, particularly through training, of a culture of customer care and of approaches to service delivery that are sensitive to issues of race, gender and disability.

The White Paper on the Transformation of the Public Service (1997) adds a further very important aspect – plans for the introduction of continuous quality improvement techniques, in line with a total quality management approach. (researcher’s emphasis).
The Green Paper (1996: 2) further states that a transformed South African public service will be judged by one criterion above all: its effectiveness in delivering services which meet the basic needs of all South African citizens. Public services are not a privilege in a civilised and democratic society; they are a legitimate expectation. What is required is a shift away from inward-looking, bureaucratic systems, processes and attitudes, and a move towards new ways of working which put the needs of the people first, is better, faster and more responsive to meet those needs.

Private companies cannot afford to ignore the needs and wishes of their customers if they want to stay in business, because dissatisfied customers can choose to take their business elsewhere. Knowing what the customer wants and providing it quicker, better and cheaper than one’s competitors, is essential to business success. In the private sector, ‘the customer comes first’ is not an empty slogan but a fundamental business principle. By contrast, public sector ‘customers’ cannot choose to take their business elsewhere. They cannot exert the same pressure on public service organizations to improve.

However, the Guide to Implementing Batho Pele (putting people first) (1997) emphasizes that the most important people to any organization are its customers. Without customers, businesses close down and public servants wouldn’t have jobs. The only people that bring money into a business, rather than taking it out, are the customers. The only reason why public servants have jobs is to serve the people – the customers. Of particular significance to this study is Du Toit & Van der Waldt’s (1999: 85) reference to the value for money principle. This principle implies that services must be provided economically and efficiently. Therefore, the customers and the services provided to them must be clearly identified. In addition, citizens should be consulted about the level and quality of the public services they receive and whenever possible, should be given a choice about the services they receive. ‘What the customer perceives and needs is real, not policy, rules and regulations’.

The White Paper on Transforming Public Service Delivery seeks to introduce a fresh approach to service delivery; an approach which puts pressure on systems, procedures, attitudes and behaviour within the Public Service and re-orients them in the customer’s favour, an approach which puts the people first. Batho Pele creates a
framework for the delivery of public services which treats citizens more like customers and enables citizens to hold public servants to account for the service they receive. It is a framework which frees up the energy and commitment of public servants to introduce customer-focused ways of working.

Back in 1998, Luyt (1998: 44) made reference to the need for South Africa to have a Nation-wide Quality System to ‘activate the booster rockets of the economy’. He argued that nationwide quality is what will turn South Africa into an economic powerhouse in the 21st century. He makes reference to the findings of the 1988 steering committee of the President’s Council, appointed to investigate and report on the state of productivity and the facts that affect its growth in South Africa. The overall recommendation of the report was that steps be taken to improve quality on a national scale. The findings are still pertinent today.

With regard to quality management within the South African context, Jooste (2001: 9) points out that currently, the South African Qualifications Authority (SAQA) does not prescribe any specific quality management system. Any workable, holistic system, unique to an organization, which meets basic SAQA requirements will be allowed for accreditation purposes. However, a body seeking accreditation must, with regards to a Quality Management System (QMS) have the following in place:

- A number of quality management policies defining what the particular provider wants to achieve.
- Various quality management procedures, enabling the provider to practise the defined quality management policies.
- Review mechanism, ensuring that the quality management policies and procedures are adhered to and executed effectively as defined.

The policies, procedures and mechanisms, therefore, dictate a degree of excellence that should be indicated and reflected in the mission statement and objectives of the particular provider. Providers are required to have a purpose that is informed by national, sectoral, local and learner requirements. Quality systems for delivery and assessment should be accessible, affordable and cost effective. The provider’s
commitment to quality should be reflected by the following elements, integrated into the mission statement:

- A clear and unambiguous statement of the goals and principles by which the provider operates.
- A clear statement of the area of learning in which the provider operates and the services provided in respect of these areas.
- The degree of excellence expected in terms of sectoral, local and learner requirements.
- A clear and unambiguous commitment to learners.
- An explanation of how the purpose drives, and is reflected in the quality management and other provider policies and procedures (Joost 2001: 9).

Babb (2000: 46-47) makes a case for skills development facilitators to start with their quality management systems. She points out that one of the roles of the Skills Development Facilitator is to advise their employer company on the implementation of Quality Management System (QMS). QMS is a documented set of policies and procedures that provide assurance to the customer of the product and service levels expected.

### 2.7 ECONOMY, EFFECTIVENESS, EFFICIENCY AND PRODUCTIVITY IN THE PUBLIC SERVICE

Cloete (1998: 109-110) makes reference to a popular misconception about public institutions, that their financial resources are unlimited and thus also their capacity to undertake new projects. It is believed that public institutions can employ an unlimited number of officials and that there is an unending supply of materials to be wasted at will. These misconceptions are rife among officials as well as members of the public. Whilst public institutions cannot be governed by the business principle of profit and loss, they must exist for and on behalf of the community. The services and activities of the public institutions should always be judged on the basis of their necessity. Further, the effectiveness of a public institution should be seen from three points of
view. Firstly, from the point of view of effectiveness, which boils down to the extent to which a need has to be satisfied as indicated in the original programme of actions, i.e. when priorities were set. Secondly, attention should be given to the frugality or economy with which resources had been used. Thirdly, economy requires that the inputs should be obtained at the lowest prices and used without waste.

Efficiency in the public sector means satisfying the most essential needs of the community to the greatest possible extent, in qualitative and quantitative terms using the limited resources that are available for this purpose, and it also involves upholding public accountability, democratic requirements, fairness and reasonableness and the supremacy of the legislature (Cloete 1998: 111).

Botes (1994: 8) adds that the exchequer is not a bottomless pit whose resources can be squandered at will. Public officials must strive to achieve their objectives as effectively as possible with the cheapest means and at the lowest cost. Du Toit & Van der Waldt (1999: 107) succinctly sum up, ‘Efficiency in government institutions means that their objective must be achieved economically and as effectively as possible’.

Productivity is an economic measure of efficiency which summarises the value of outputs relative to the value of the inputs used to create them. Productivity is also an overall indicator of how well an institution uses all its resources, such as labour, capital, materials and energy to create all of its services and products. Public managers must ensure high levels of productivity because productivity determines a public institution’s ability to survive and the standard of living of the citizens (Du Toit, van der Waldt, Bayat & Cheminais 1998: 116).

For the purposes of this study, schools as public institutions will be examined for their ability to practice economy and promote effectiveness, efficiency and productivity. Total Quality Management will be explored to gauge its ability in promoting economy, effectiveness and efficiency.
2.8 ENTREPRENEURSHIP AND PUBLIC MANAGEMENT

Given the scenario that prevailed in the South African public service, the government needed innovative public servants who not only supported its efforts, but who gave direction and found new ways of doing what is needed to deliver public goods and services effectively and efficiently. Maas & Fox (1997: 2) argue that the paradigm shift required that the South African public service transform itself from a closed system dedicated to fulfilling the whims of government, to an open system responsive to the environment in and to which it delivers goods and services.

Schwella, Burger, Fox & Muller (1996: 333) point out that one of the most serious obstacles to public entrepreneurship is a conservative clinging to the status quo or a resistance to change. The successful public manager is responsible for anticipating and stimulating change. Survival is an overpowering concern for any institution as nothing could be accomplished if it were not to survive. Yet survival is only possible when the institution and those employed within it can adapt to changes in their environment.

Maas & Fox (1997: 3) concede that essentially, the public sector differs from the private sector in that it operates in an environment with a unique value system. Values of particular note include public accountability, efficiency, responsiveness, social equity and the application and upholding of individual rights. Public entrepreneurs have to function in a transparent environment and are publicly accountable for what they do or fail to do. This means that they have to be responsive in many ways. Firstly, they have to be responsive as individuals in the service of a government representing the citizens to whom they are delivering goods and services. Secondly, citizens pay rates and taxes and therefore, have a direct interest in all of the public service's operations and functions.

In discussing specific entrepreneurial skills, Du Toit, Van der Waldt, Bayat & Cheminais (1998: 211) make reference to 'creativity and innovation'. They point out that entrepreneurs are willing to challenge the status quo and to be the first to respond to needs for new or better services or products. They are also willing to emphasize
novel ways of delivering those services and products in a more effective, efficient and responsive way.

However, public entrepreneurs need to work in an entrepreneurial organization. Therefore, in order to make entrepreneurship possible, public institutions have to be changed. The public service has to be transformed into an environment in which entrepreneurship can flourish. Government has to be transformed into an entrepreneurial public provider (Maas & Fox 1997: 4-5).

Should government act as an entrepreneur, society will benefit from the efficient and productive use of public resources, resulting in less tax and other resources being expended to deliver public goods and services. A paradigm shift is needed if government wishes to deliver goods and services optimally. This shift has to be towards public entrepreneurship (Maas & Fox 1997: 97-109).

2.9 THE STATE OF EDUCATION IN SOUTH AFRICA PRIOR TO 1994

In terms of South Africa’s apartheid policies, education prior to 1994 was provided along racial lines. Clear disparities existed in the provision of education for the four race groups. The stark inequalities are best captured in the table below depicting the per capita expenditure.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>YEAR</th>
<th>AFRICAN</th>
<th>COLOURED</th>
<th>INDIAN</th>
<th>WHITE</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1953 – 54</td>
<td>R 17</td>
<td>R 40</td>
<td>R 40</td>
<td>R 128</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1967 – 70</td>
<td>R 17</td>
<td>R 73</td>
<td>R 81</td>
<td>R 282</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1975 – 76</td>
<td>R 42</td>
<td>R 140</td>
<td>R 190</td>
<td>R 591</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1977 – 78</td>
<td>R 54</td>
<td>R 185</td>
<td>R 276</td>
<td>R 657</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1980 – 81</td>
<td>R 139</td>
<td>R 235</td>
<td>R 513</td>
<td>R 913</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1982 – 83</td>
<td>R 146</td>
<td>R 498</td>
<td>R 711</td>
<td>R 1211</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Compulsory schooling for Whites to secondary level education had been introduced in the 1920s, whereas the same step for Africans was taken only in the 1990s, after the first democratic elections. Intervening in this period was Bantu Education, introduced by the apartheid government in the 1950s, with the intention of subjecting all black African children of school going age to an education that trained them only to be unskilled and servile labour (James 2000: 3).

On the basis of the Eiselen Commission report, the *Bantu Education Act* (No. 47 of 1953) was passed. The responsibility for Bantu education was initially delegated to the department of Native Affairs. Thereafter, Bantu education was transferred from the provincial administration to the Union government (Mphahlele & Mminele 1997: 91).

Naicker (1996: 3) makes reference to Davie's summing up of the main intention of *Bantu Education Act* (47 of 1953):

‘...it is the intention of the framers of the Act that the education of the African child shall be different from that of the European and, further, that this difference shall establish and perpetuate an inferior status in the African in relation to the European.’

Devenish (1999: 396) adds that apartheid education, which had its genesis in the infamous Bantu Education Act devised by Dr HF Verwoerd, wrought political and educational havoc in South Africa. It has fostered a 'lost' generation of unskilled and angry black people in the townships of South Africa.

The *Education and Training Act* (No. 90 of 1979) replaced the *Bantu Education Act*, (No. 47 of 1953), and all other amendments to it. It meant to remove the offensive word 'Bantu' from the hearts and minds of Blacks. This act was a direct response to the 1976 Soweto uprisings and other disturbances at schools. Many people, particularly Blacks, saw it as a cosmetic reform to Bantu education because, in essence, the fundamental tenets of apartheid in education remained intact. In 1980 the government appointed a Human Sciences Research Council (HSRC) commission of inquiry to conduct an in-depth investigation into all facets of education in South Africa. The commission’s primary objective was to establish principles for an educational policy that would allow for the realisation of the potential of all the
peoples of South Africa. The South African economy was sliding into recession. There was a desperate need for skilled and semi-skilled human power. The government, as well as commerce and industry, had come to the realisation that the most sensible thing to do was to utilise all resources. (Mphahlele & Mminele 1997: 137).

The cumulative consequences of unequal provision of education can be captured in the following table:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>African</th>
<th>Coloured</th>
<th>Indian</th>
<th>White</th>
<th>TOTAL</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>No Education</td>
<td>2 640 000</td>
<td>182 000</td>
<td>34 000</td>
<td>8 000</td>
<td>2 864 000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Some Primary</td>
<td>4 495 000</td>
<td>690 000</td>
<td>84 000</td>
<td>35 000</td>
<td>5 304 000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Some Second.</td>
<td>7 413 000</td>
<td>1 001 000</td>
<td>448 000</td>
<td>2 632 000</td>
<td>11 494 000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Some Tertiary</td>
<td>822 000</td>
<td>102 000</td>
<td>74 000</td>
<td>952 000</td>
<td>1 950 000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TOTAL</td>
<td>15 370 000</td>
<td>1 975 000</td>
<td>640 000</td>
<td>3 627 000</td>
<td>21 612 000</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


The figures are unsurprising but quite alarming. Blacks make up 92%, Coloureds 6%, Indians 1% and Whites 0,2% of adults who have no formal education at all.

The neglect of the quality of African education, combined with a rapid increase in numbers of students, led to the disintegration of learning environments and the death of a culture of learning in many Black schools. The demise of a learning culture was exacerbated by curricula which had little relevance to the lives and aspirations of the students. Moreover, rote learning and examination driven teaching methodology were emphasized at the expense of student participation, problem solving and critical thinking. The low qualifications and poor morale of the Black teachers took its toll, creating despondency and apathy in many school communities (DoE 1996: 18).

Prior to the election in April 1994, the governing National party issued its Education Renewal Strategy (ERS), which was premised on ‘deracialising’ the education system
without compromising the quality of education. Schools were opened to all the racial groups, but the standard and quality of white education was to be maintained. This was to provide the foundation for the erstwhile 'Model C' schools. In contrast, the African National Congress developed a far more radical approach to education with its draft *Policy Framework for Education and Training*. This document endeavoured to reconstruct the very foundations of education in South Africa.

Dissatisfaction with the unequal provision of education led to severe unrest in the 1970s and 1980s. Given the scenario that prevailed, much of the struggle was focused on equality in the provision of education. There was little talk of quality in the provision of education. The White Paper on Education and Training (1995: 15) states:

> ‘The Ministry of Education is mindful that the struggle for a democratic education system has played a central role in defining the parameters for change. The gains from this struggle have been obtained at an exorbitant human and social cost. We acknowledge those who fought for the human right to a free and equal basic education. We owe it to them, to ourselves and future generations to make a sharp break from the educational inequality and deprivation of the past.’

There is no question that matters have improved and are improving daily. Access to schooling for Black African children has jumped beyond expectations. Since 1994, 2 500 schools have been renovated and 1 000 new ones built in South Africa. Curriculum 2005 has laid the groundwork for improved content, new materials and revised teacher training. The entry of Black African matriculants at colleges and universities are significant. However, a report of the *President’s Education Initiative Research Project* shows that good ideas and initiatives are trapped in a system that often fails to work properly, compromising quality on a large scale. The growth in sheer numbers should not conceal the fact that the schooling system nevertheless struggles to enrol all eligible learners, fails to retain the majority of them to secondary school level and offers them a quality of schooling which varies from the good to the abysmal (James 2000: 4). (Researcher’s emphasis).
The report of the Task Team on Education Management Development (DoE 1996: 13) points out that a hallmark of the government’s approach to education and training has been a commitment to address two key priorities:

- Achieving equitable access to education
- Improving the quality of education.

Within less than two years, the basic policy and administrative infrastructure has been put into place to open up access to the nation’s schooling. *Improving the quality of learning, however, requires strategies which focus on change at the school and classroom levels.*

However, now that the struggle for equality in the provision of education is slowly being won, the attention must be turned to quality. Given the scarcity of resources, new ways need to be explored to ensure greater accountability and the provision of value for money in the education sector.

### 2.10 The White Paper on Education and Training

In terms of Government Notice 196 of 1995, the White Paper on Education and Training was published. In his message, the then Minister of Education, Professor S.M.E. Bengu, stated that education and training are central activities of our society and that they are of vital interest to every family and to the health and prosperity of the national economy. The policy document describes the process of transformation in education and training, aiming to bring into being a system that will serve all the people of the new democracy. The message of the Minister was clear:

*‘Education and training must change. It cannot be business as usual in our schools... the national project of reconstruction and development compels everyone in education and training to accept the challenge of creating a system which cultivates and liberates the talents of all people without...’*
exception. My Ministry is acutely aware of the heavy responsibility it bears for managing the transformation and redirection of the system of education and training within the terms of the Constitution and under severe budgetary constraints.

The Minister summed up as to what the country needs:

'A principled national accord on education and training which will provide a secure platform for change and development, for widening access and raising quality. It is essential for us to build a system of education and training with which all our people can identify because it serves their needs and interests. Such a system must be founded on equity and non-discrimination, it must respect diversity, it must honour learning and strive for excellence, it must be owned and cared for by the communities and stakeholders it serves, and it must use all the resources available to it in the most effective manner possible.'

Clearly the document aimed to attain excellence in education for all citizens.

With regard to transforming education, W. Edwards Deming contends that statements that lack methods are worthless- 'What counts is the method.' He quotes Lloyd Nelson: 'If you can accomplish a goal without a method, then why were you not doing it last year?'

Goals that lie outside the upper limits of the existing process cannot be achieved by that process, says Deming. The only way such numerical goals might even be ascertained is by redefining the terms used, distorting or faking results, or running up excessive costs. From a knowledge of probability theory, Deming then asserts that systems cannot fix themselves; they require outside intervention. The reason systems cannot change themselves is they do not understand the sources of variation embedded in their processes. Leaders and workers are too tied into the status quo. External intervention is the only antidote. Deming insists that transforming organizations cannot occur without knowledge and without theory (English & Hill 1994: 7).
2.11 THE BILL OF RIGHTS, THE CONSTITUTION AND THE PROVISION OF EDUCATION

In his commentary on the South African Bill of Rights, Devenish (1999: 395) in addressing the 'right to education' argues that education is of seminal importance as far as human rights are concerned, since it liberates people from the bondage of ignorance, superstition and fear. Education is of cardinal importance for meaningful existence. It allows individuals to develop whole and mature personalities, and it empowers them to fulfil a role in the community that is enriching for themselves and is beneficial for the community. It gives to them dignity and self-confidence and is the basic human right on which the realisation of many other rights depends. It is for this reason that the right to education is extensively recognised in both international law and national constitutions.

In South Africa, the Constitution of the Republic of South Africa (Act 108 of 1996), Clause 29 (1) states:

Everyone has the right-

(a) to a basic education, including adult basic education; and

(b) to further education, which the state, through reasonable measures, must make progressively available and accessible.

Devenish (1999: 398) raises the question of what exactly is meant by a 'basic education' and would a court of law hold the state liable to provide this to individuals. The term 'basic right', it is submitted, has to be interpreted in the light of what the state can afford. However, Devenish refers to the opinion of Liebenberg that a 'basic education' should evolve with increasing educational standards and capacities in South Africa, in order to meet the changing requirements of a dynamic society in the process of political and social transformation. Furthermore, any basic education should at least provide learners with the foundation for being successful in society, including the minimum essential learning tools of literacy and numeracy.

Total Quality Management has as its cornerstone, extensive consultation with the users of the service, to ascertain exactly what the users require to be successful in society.
Clause 29 (2) states:
Everyone has the right to receive education in the official language or languages of their choice in public educational institutions where that education is reasonably practicable. In order to ensure the effective access to, and implementation of, this right, the state must consider all reasonable alternatives, including single medium institutions, taking into account-

(a) equity
(b) practicability; and
(c) the need to redress the results of past racially discriminatory laws and practices.

In addition, Chapter 10 of the Constitution outlines the basic values and principles governing public administration. Section 195 (1) states: Public administration must be governed by the democratic values and principles enshrined in the Constitution, including the following principles:

(a) A high standard of professional ethics must be promoted and maintained.
(b) Efficient, economic and effective use of resources must be promoted.
(c) Public administration must be development-oriented.
(d) Services must be provided impartially, fairly, equitably and without bias.
(e) People’s needs must be responded to, and the public must be encouraged to participate in policy-making.
(f) Public administration must be accountable.
(g) Transparency must be fostered by providing the public with timely, accessible and accurate information.
(h) Good human-resource management and career-development practices, to maximise human potential, must be cultivated.
(i) Public administration must be broadly representative of the South African people, with employment and personnel management practices based on ability, objectivity, fairness, and the need to redress the imbalances of the past to achieve broad representation.
Schools, as public institutions, must ensure that their policies and actions are guided by the above principles governing public administration. With particular reference to clause (b) Total Quality Management advocates the efficient, economic and effective use of resources. Also, in keeping with Clause (c), TQM advocates that people’s needs must be responded to.

2.12 THE SOUTH AFRICAN SCHOOLS ACT

The Preamble to the *South African Schools Act* (84 of 1996) states:

‘Whereas this country requires a new national system for schools which will redress past injustices in educational provision, provide an education of progressively high quality for all learners and in so doing lay a strong foundation for the development of all our people’s talents and capabilities…’

Section 20 (1) that deals with the functions of the Governing Body, stipulates that the governing body of a public school must: ‘Promote the best interests of the school and strive to ensure its development through the provision of quality education for all learners at the school’.

Section 36 dealing with Norms and Standards for Funding of Public Schools stipulates that, ‘a governing body of a public school must take all reasonable measures within its means to supplement the resources supplied by the State in order to improve the quality of education provided by the school to all learners at the school’.

(Researcher’s emphasis).

Potgieter, Visser, Van der Bank, Mothata and Squelch (1997: 6) in providing an understanding of the *South African Schools Act* (84 of 1996) state that a further basic aim of the Act is that the quality of education of all learners must be improved. For example, there must be better facilities, better trained teachers, better methods of teaching and better school conditions.
When one compares the provisions of the South African Constitution to the provisions of the South African Schools Act, one can clearly see the difference in obligation. The State only guarantees the right to 'a basic education'. The provision of 'quality in education' is the responsibility of the school governing body.

2.13 TIRISANO – CALL TO ACTION

In launching *Tirisano – Call to Action*, in 1999, Minister Kader Asmal made clear the government's intention:

'As we reach the turn of the century we have the enormous responsibility of providing an education system which will not only lead to the development of our country and our people, but also one which will allow us to take our place amongst the world's nations as a country which has managed to recover from the depths of despair and depravity.'

In the foreword to the *Tirisano* document, the Director General of Education, Mr T. Mseleku, states:

'Our specific mandate must be seen within the context of our primary obligation, to ensure that all South Africans have opportunities to pursue educational goals. We have a special commitment to ensure that the vast majority of our people who have been disadvantaged through apartheid are able to succeed in learning of high quality. We will ensure that the public resources that we hold in trust are effectively and efficiently utilised in the pursuit of these goals.'

Minister Asmal, in the spirit of *Tirisano*, calls on all South Africans to join hands with the Ministry and provincial education authorities to attack the most urgent problems in education, in particular:

- The dysfunctional state of many institutions
- The continuing inequities in terms of basic facilities and learning resources
- The unacceptably high levels of illiteracy amongst the youth and adults
• Sexual harassment and violence, including crime and drugs
• The scourge of HIV/AIDS.

2.13.1 FACTORS THAT FAVOUR THE INTRODUCTION OF QUALITY INITIATIVES

The Tirisano document identifies certain factors that favour the introduction of quality initiatives in education. These are:

2.13.1.1 STRONG AND COMMITTED LEADERSHIP

Asmal (1999: 3) observes that the leadership of our education and training system in the field embodies remarkable qualities of patriotism, talent, experience, and commitment. The leaders that he met, and the organizations and institutions they represent, have been making heroic, unsung contributions to the transformation of our education and training system. He salutes them, as they are an essential resource for the next phase of the education revolution.

2.13.1.2 EXCELLENT POLICIES AND LAWS

South Africa has excellent education policies and laws for the 21st century. The Department of Education has created a set of policies and laws that are equal to the best. Minister Asmal goes on to add, ‘in 1994, as we turned our back for good on the divisive and cruel legacy of apartheid, education was considered the most explosive and contentious area of national life. I am proud that our young democratic government, after inclusive and genuine consultation, has built a national consensus around the main education policy positions of the mass democratic movement, while simultaneously re-organising the entire structure of education administration and provision.’ (Asmal 1999: 3-4).
2.13.2 FACTORS THAT POSE DIFFICULTIES TO THE IMPLEMENTATION OF QUALITY INITIATIVES

The Tirisano document identifies many factors where we are failing in our education system. The existence of the following factors hinder the application of the principles of quality management:

2.13.2.1 RAMPANT INEQUALITY

There is rampant inequality of access to educational opportunities of a satisfactory standard. In particular, poor people in all communities, of whom the overwhelming majority are rural Africans, continue to attend decrepit schools, too often without water or sanitation, electricity or telephone, library, workshop or laboratory. Their teachers may never see their supervisors from one year to the next. Their parents remain illiterate, poor and powerless. They are unable to give practical and intellectual support to the educational aspirations of their children. For such children of democratic South Africa, the promises of the Bill of Rights remain a distant dream. Without a solid foundation of learning, their chances of educational and economic success in later years are dim. So poverty reproduces itself (Asmal 1999: 3-4).

2.13.2.2 LOW TEACHER MORALE

The Minister observes that morale of teachers in all communities is low. Many teachers have been demoralised by the uncertainty and distress of rationalisation and re-deployment. The cause of equitable and sustainable provision of teachers is just and necessary, but the cost has been high. For teachers to be true to the principle of improved service delivery, contained in Batho Pele, there needs to be reasonable stability and job security.

On the other hand, poor teacher discipline is a cause for concern. Failure to respect authority structures and observe the codes of conduct is not conducive to promoting a
culture of teaching and learning. The Ministry observes, ‘Indiscipline on the part of principals, teachers and learners was also cited repeatedly as a source of demoralisation among those who want to work and succeed. I was particularly appalled by the repeated observations that too many schools fail to start on time and close early, that too many learners absent themselves at will, that too many teachers believe that their obligations cease at 1 o’ clock or 2 o’ clock on a school day.’ (Asmal 1999: 4-5).

2.13.2.3 CRIME IN SCHOOLS

Crime, violence and vandalism in schools, makes it extremely difficult to implement high quality service delivery. Both teachers and pupils are vulnerable in many schools to the crimes of carrying dangerous weapons, drug dealing, rape, sexual abuse and other forms of physical assault or even murder. Whether committed inside or outside the gate, such outrages create insecurity and fear, and destroy the basis of a learning community (Asmal 1999: 4).

Research conducted by the Independent Projects Trust (IPT) concludes that if schools are going to be centres of learning, then a community alliance for safe schools needs to be formed. It is only when the issues of crime and violence are addressed in a constructive manner will schools be able to deliver in terms of the purposes for which they were constructed (IPT April 2000 No. 15: 1).

The best efforts of educators to control the crime and violence have met with little success thus far. Educators complain bitterly that violent criminals have more rights than students who want a sound education. There are repeated accusations that the police are doing little or nothing to stem the tide of violence in schools. Educators further allege that school management are reluctant to report incidents of crime in order to preserve the image of the school. The officials are told that there is little or no crime in order to convey the delicious illusion of successful management. In fact, the same school has a long history of crime related problems. Some principals and teachers offer no information at all, saying that they are not allowed to talk to the media or researchers about violence in schools. Sadly, there are some incidents in
which pupils have been knifed or raped, or teachers have been robbed or hijacked, and no charges have been laid, and the matter has not even been reported or investigated. The ‘culture of silence’ is the major stumbling block to addressing the issue of crime and violence in schools (IPT 1999: 18).

While there is little statistical data to describe current levels of violence within schools, there are useful sources of descriptive data to paint a sketch of the nature and profile of school violence. Some of the forms of violence that frustrated teachers have to cope with are:

- Physical assault between learners – physical assault in the school context appears to be prevalent against all children, but often manifest in older boys. More serious assault is rooted in primary schools where children ‘hit back’ as the first solution to a problem. In secondary schools, beatings and fights become more severe with greater access to knives and firearms – often with fatal consequences. Often when teachers intervene, they become the victims.
- Sexual assault perpetrated by boy learners on girls – there appears to be a very high incidence of sexual assault of girls within the school context.
- Assault by young people outside of school – practitioners perceive that a large proportion of serious crime has its roots outside of school, and then spill over onto the school grounds. This includes individual children or more organised gang structures. Gang turf wars spill onto school grounds because the school itself is a prized territory for selling drugs, collecting revenue from theft, and recruiting gang members (KZN Department of Education 2000: 32-33).

2.13.2.4 FAILURE OF GOVERNANCE AND MANAGEMENT

Another obstacle to quality service delivery in education is the Minister’s observation that there is a serious crisis of leadership, governance, management and administration in many parts of the system. According to Asmal (1999: 4) this has many facets. The most serious, in terms of scale, is the incapacity of several provincial departments of education to set the agenda for their systems, perform their
tasks in a business-like way, and give adequate professional support to their institutions of learning. With institutions, from universities and technikons to small rural schools, such failures have a drastic effect. They open wide the gate to corruption, fraud and indiscipline. They sap the morale of the conscientious staff. In the end, they undermine good teaching and learning, which depends on peace, order, stability and professional challenge. The situation is worsened if governing authorities are ineffective, if they collude with management at the expense of other parties, or if they allow themselves to be subverted by factionalism. In such circumstances, they are unable to fulfil their essential role of good governance and true stewardship of the interests of the institutions they have been appointed to serve. The consequences may be very costly.

2.13.2.5 POOR QUALITY OF LEARNING

The Senior Certificate examination at the end of Grade 12 is the first external check on performance in our school system. The results in the last few years have averaged 60% - a cause for concern. By comparison with other middle-income countries, our learners perform very badly in internationally standardised tests of mathematics and science. School leavers become job seekers or enter higher education with serious gaps in fundamental knowledge, reasoning skills, and methods of study. Overwhelmingly, poor learning is associated with poverty, bad or absent facilities, under-prepared teachers, lack of learning resources, and a serious lack of purpose and discipline in many schools, or what is called a culture of learning, teaching and service. The number of young people who study mathematics with any degree of understanding and proficiency has declined when it should have been increasing rapidly. As a result, mathematical illiteracy is rife in our society, and the pool of recruits for further and higher education in the information and science-based professions is shrinking, a fact that has grave implications for our national future in the 21st century (Asmal 1999: 5).
2.13.2.6 CORRUPTION HINDERING DELIVERY

Of the range of factors hampering the delivery of quality education, corruption is a serious concern. In defining corruption, Smith (1999: 183) refers to the definition of Kato & Pope (1997). Corruption in a general sense can be defined as any practice, act or omission by a public official, private individual or company that deviates from, or violates the laid-down or generally accepted norms, rules, procedures and principles governing the expected performance of official duties with the intention of expectation of personal or group gain or advantage.

A public service is ineffective if it does not satisfy the real needs of the people who receive the service, or those who are supposed to benefit from it do not. The devastating effect that corruption has on effective service delivery in education must not be underestimated.

Implicit in the Batho Pele White Paper is the notion that public administration exists for the good of the public as a whole, more specifically, to provide services for the public. The public themselves, and not the public administration or bureaucracy, must decide what services they need and want, and how good these services must be. Smith (1999: 186) accuses the bureaucracy of being self-serving, pedantic and discourteous institutions that does not appreciate the reason for its existence, that is, to provide service. With regard to the principles of openness and transparency, Smith (1999:187) argues that any drive to improve transparency must be supported by a strategy to promote comprehension of the functioning of organs of state.

The single advantage of participatory practices is that the knowledge, experience, aspirations and opinions of people in a situation inform decisions. In this respect, the principle of consultation in the Batho Pele White Paper falls short. It requires consultation by organs of state with citizens about the level and quality of service they will receive but not the service itself. Government and/or the bureaucracy still determine what services are provided. Du Toit, et al (1998: 69) also observe that the creation of government structures is the prerogative of the government, which determines what services and products should be provided.
Smith (1999: 188) argues that this situation creates fertile ground for corruption to flourish, especially from those who have access to decision makers and can corruptly ensure the implementation of new or continuation of existing programmes from which they benefit. Also, it often results in the continuation of programmes long after their usefulness have expired. Terminating public programmes is notoriously difficult for a range of reasons; one being resistance from officialdom, especially officials who are likely to lose something should programmes be abandoned. Continuing public programmes or services ‘because we have always done it’ amounts almost to government-assisted corruption: the officials who benefit in terms of position or remuneration, are in real terms the only beneficiaries.

2.13.2.7 FAILURE TO SET STANDARDS

One of the reasons why the Department of Education cannot deliver in terms of public expectations is the failure to set clear standards for its educators and officials. The Department is not able to enforce and monitor the performance appraisal for educators and office-based personnel. Clear and measurable work standards are urgently needed. Job descriptions need to become more specific, and mechanisms need to be put in place to ensure that they are adhered to.

Services should be designed and delivered in a transparent way so that baselines of service delivery are openly established, targets are feasible (but not unreasonably low) and progress against the baseline is fairly measured, thus ensuring sustainable and effective high quality service delivery. Enhancing sustainable and effective service-delivery requires more and continuous attention to regular and meaningful monitoring, evaluation and adjustment.

If clear standards are set, then accountability is possible. Public accountability is the core element of the democratic system of government. Accountability means to answer for a responsibility conferred. To account requires that adequate control and monitoring measures must be implemented. Such measures must not only ensure regularity but must also enable managers and elected office-bearers to determine the effectiveness and efficiency of programmes and services (Smith 1999: 191- 193).
If the Department of Education was going to fulfill its obligation to provide quality in education, there was a need for some sort of educator appraisal system. Prior to 1994, the majority of educators had gone on with no form of appraisal. Appraisers in the past were viewed as agents of the apartheid state, appointed to perpetuate the propaganda. Educators viewed any form of appraisal with fear, suspicion and hostility. This led Thabane (2000: 2) to conclude that the absence of any form of appraisal contributed to the dismal performance in black schools. This has been reflected in the poor matriculation results in black schools, compared to those in white schools. Thabane (2000: 2) adds that it is regrettable that educators in South Africa in ‘black schools’ have been performing their duties without any kind of evaluation. This is an unacceptable state of affairs, particularly in light of the fact that around 90% of the education budget is consumed by educator salaries.

The circumstances in the education sector created among teachers a *laissez-faire* attitude. Concerned about this, the largest teacher union, the South African Democratic Teachers Union, better known by its acronym SADTU, became involved in the development of a new appraisal system for educators. Negotiations with the government culminated in an agreement reached in a conference on, “School Management, Teacher Development and Support” hosted by WITS Education Policy Unit in October 1994. At this conference, it was agreed upon to pilot the system and report on how workable the new system was. The findings of the pilot study showed wide approval for the new system. It was also discovered that it could be applied in all South African schools irrespective of contextual factors. Resolution 4 of 1998 taken in the Education Labour Relations Council (ELRC) gave birth to the new Developmental Appraisal System (DAS) (Thabane 2000: 3).
The following are the key aspects of the Developmental Appraisal document:

2.14.1 PREAMBLE

The model for developmental appraisal has the following features:

- Simplicity: easy to understand and applies to all educators.
- Feasibility: can be administered within different types of institutions.
- Legitimacy: unions were involved in formulation, hence educators take ownership.
- Flexibility: is used for development and confirmation of probationers.

In order to achieve the aims of developmental appraisal, the following requirements, inter alia, must be met:

- Democratic organizational climate
- Learning culture at institutions
- Commitment of educators to development
- Openness and trust.

Developmental Appraisal is part of in-service education and training (INSET) as illustrated in the career time-line.

\[ ENTRY \quad \text{PRESET} \quad \text{INDUCTION} \quad \text{INSET} \quad \text{RETIRED} \]

2.14.2 THE AIM OF DEVELOPMENTAL APPRAISAL

The aim of developmental appraisal is to facilitate the personal and professional development of educators in order to improve the quality of teaching practice and education management.

2.14.3 BASIC PRINCIPLE

It is based on the fundamental principle of life-long learning and development. This implies that one has to prioritise areas for development and growth throughout one’s career in education.

2.14.4 PROCESS

Developmental appraisal consists of the following ongoing processes:

- Reflective practice – this on-going activity requires educators to interpret and analyse the extent to which their performance meets objectives in serving the needs of clients with the intention to rethink current practice.

- Self-appraisal – educator undertakes self-analysis and introspection in terms of his/her own performance, client questionnaire results as well as institution development plans. This is followed by self-evaluation in order to determine priorities for personal and professional growth.

- Peer appraisal – is the involvement of a colleague in assisting the appraisee to review his/her performance with a view to prioritise professional development needs.

- Collaboration – educators working together to assist in problem solving e.g. teachers taking the same grade or educators from different institutions
involved in teaching a particular learning field or educators consulting with the Support Services of the Education Department.

- Interaction within panels – relationships have to be developed between members to work collectively to assist the appraisee to identify needs, formulate objectives, select professional development activities, implement such activities within time frames and to provide timeous feedback.

2.14.5 STAFF DEVELOPMENT TEAM (SDT)

Each institution shall elect a Staff Development Team consisting of the Head of the Institution, and elected staff members. The SDT will initiate, co-ordinate and monitor appraisal in terms of the management plan.

2.14.6 PANELS

The appraisal panel will consist of the appraisee and at least three others drawn from the following groups:

- Peer
- Union representative
- Senior (HOD, Deputy Principal, Principal)
- Outside support (for example, subject advisors, educators from other institutions recognised for expertise, district/circuit manager, NGO, University/College lecturer.)

2.14.7 CRITERIA

To ensure that the process of appraisal is in line with key job functions, a list of criteria (core, optional and additional) have been drawn up for the following levels:

- PL1 educators (classroom based educators)
• Head of Department
• Deputy Principal/Principal
• Office based educators

The three types of criteria used will be:

• Core criteria – will be seen as primary elements of the responsibility of the person's job on which the person has no choice but to be appraised on. They cover the essential elements of the job description of the educator.

• Optional criteria – these are criteria that are listed as core criteria, some of which may be made optional by the appraisal panel because of the contextual factors at the institution. A motivation for reclassification is required.

• Additional criteria – these criteria that may be added depending on the needs of an institution and/or individual educator. These should be discussed with the Panel, supported by staff and agreed to in the Staff Development Team. A motivation for the inclusion of additional criteria has to be given.

2.14.8 SELF/PEER RATING AND PRIORITISATION

A simple scale shall be used to determine areas of priority. In this scale, each criterion is defined and the associated performance expectation is given.

A = Priority need for development in present cycle.

B = Performance is in keeping with the expectation, with room for further development in future cycles.

The prioritisation form contains the key development areas.
2.14.9 PROFESSIONAL GROWTH PLAN (PGP) FORM

The appraisee’s developmental plan is recorded in this form. The form details objectives, activities, resources and key performance indicators.

2.14.10 APPRAISAL RECORDS

A file containing the following will be kept for each educator at the institution:

- Personal details
- Need Identification and Prioritisation Form
- Professional Growth Plan (PGP)
- Discussion Paper
- Appraisal Report

The records will show the nature of professional growth as well as the commitment to life-long learning and development of an educator.

(Education Law and Policy Handbook (1999: 3C-39-43)).

2.15 CURRENT QUALITY INITIATIVE - THE NATIONAL POLICY ON WHOLE SCHOOL EVALUATION

The National Policy on Whole School Evaluation was introduced in June 2000. In the Foreword, the Minister, Professor K. Asmal states:

'Assuring quality of the education system is the overriding goal of the Ministry of Education. This National Policy on Whole-School Evaluation introduces an effective monitoring and evaluation process that is vital to the improvement of quality and standards of performance in schools.

The Policy places particular emphasis on the need to use objective criteria and performance indicators consistently in the evaluation of schools.

Recognising the importance of schools as the place in which the quality of education is ultimately determined, focus is primarily on the school as a
whole rather than simply on individuals and their performance. The multi-
sources of evidence that are used, will enable valid and reliable
judgements to be made and sound feedback to be provided both to schools
and to the decision-makers. The findings must be used to re-orientate
efforts towards improving the quality and standards of individual and
collective performance'.

2.15.1 BACKGROUND AND CONTEXT OF THE POLICY

For many years, there has been no national system of evaluating the performance of
schools, and there is no comprehensive data on the quality of teaching and learning, or
on the educational standards achieved in the system. As a result, the National Policy
on Whole-School Evaluation is being introduced. This complements other quality
assurance initiatives conducted under the aegis of systemic evaluation, namely;
accreditation of providers, programme and service reviews and monitoring learning
achievements.

The National Policy on Whole-School Evaluation has been designed to ensure that
school evaluation is carried out according to an agreed national model. It sets out the
legal basis for school evaluation, its purposes, what is to be evaluated and who can
carry out evaluations. It also provides guidance on how evaluation should be
conducted. It further sets out how the evaluation process should be administered and
funded. The Policy indicates ways in which very good schools should be recognised
and under-performing schools supported. It makes clear the links between those at
national and provincial level who are responsible for the quality of education, and
supervisors, schools and local support services.

This Policy is aimed at improving the overall quality of education in South
African schools. It seeks to ensure that all the children are given an equal opportunity
to make the best use of their capabilities. As a process, whole-school evaluation is
meant to be supportive and developmental rather than punitive and judgemental. It
will not be used as a coercive measure, though part of its responsibility will be to
ensure that national and local policies are complied with. Its main purpose is to
facilitate improvement of school performance through approaches of partnerships, collaboration, mentoring and guidance. The Policy also contains a built-in mechanism for reporting findings and providing feedback to the school and to various stakeholders – the National and Provincial Education Departments, parents and society generally- on the level of performance achieved by schools.

The Policy is supported by national guidelines, criteria for evaluation, and instruments that have to be used by trained and accredited supervisors in order to ensure consistency in the evaluation of schools. These also provide the means by which schools can carry out self-evaluation and so enter into a fruitful dialogue with supervisors and support services.

Whole-school evaluation is not an end in itself, but the first step in the process of school improvement and quality enhancement. The National Policy on Whole-School Evaluation is designed to achieve the goal of school improvement through a partnership between supervisors, schools and support services at one level, and national and provincial governments at another (DoE 2000).

2.15.2 EDUCATION POLICY AND LEGISLATIVE CONTEXT

The transformation in education in South Africa emphasises the right of all to quality education. The first intent is to redress the discriminatory, unbalanced and inequitable distribution of the education services of the apartheid regime, and secondly, to develop a world-class education system suitable to meet the challenges of the 21st century.

According to the National Education Policy Act (No. 27 of 1996), the Minister is mandated to direct that standards of education provision, delivery and performance be monitored. Evaluations need to be carried out under the aegis of the National Department annually or at specified intervals, with the object of assessing progress in complying with the provisions of the Constitution and with national education policy. Similarly, the Assessment Policy, gazetted in December 1998, provides for the conducting of systemic evaluation at the key transitional stages, namely, Grade 3, 6,
and 9. The main objective is to assess the effectiveness of the entire system and the extent to which the vision and goals of the education system are being achieved. Also, the *Further Education and Training (FET) Act* (No. 98 of 1998) makes it obligatory for the Director-General, subject to the norms set by the Minister, in terms of the *National Education Policy Act*, to assess and report on the quality of education provided in the FET Band. In addition, the *South African Qualifications Authority (SAQA) Act* of 1995, requires that Education and Training Quality Assurance bodies be established for the purpose of monitoring and auditing achievements in terms of national standards and qualifications.

In line with the above legal provisions, the *Policy on Whole-School Evaluation* elaborates on the responsibilities of the Minister with regard to the conduct of whole-school monitoring and evaluation. It confirms that external whole-school evaluation is an integral part of the new quality assurance approach.

### 2.15.3 KEY ELEMENTS OF THE POLICY

#### 2.15.3.1 AIMS

The principal aims of the Policy are:

- Moderate externally, on a sampling basis, the results of self-evaluation carried out by the schools;
- Evaluate the effectiveness of a school in terms of the national goals, using national criteria;
- Increase the level of accountability within the education system;
- Strengthen the support given to schools by district professional support services;
- Provide feedback to all stakeholders as a means of achieving continuous school improvement;
- Identify aspects of excellence within the system which will serve as models of good improvement;
• Identify aspects of excellence within the system which will serve as models of good practice and;
• Identify the aspects of effective schools and improve the general understanding of what factors create effective schools.

2.15.3.2 WHOLE-SCHOOL EVALUATION AND QUALITY ASSURANCE

Whole-school evaluation is the cornerstone of the quality assurance system in schools. It enables a school and external supervisors to provide an account of the school’s current performance and to show to what extent it meets national goals and needs of the public and communities. This approach provides the opportunity for acknowledging the achievements of a school, on occasions through commendations, and for identifying areas that need attention. Whole-school evaluation implies the need for all schools to look continually for ways of improving, and the commitment of Government to provide development programmes designed to support their efforts.

Effective quality assurance within the National Policy on Whole-School Evaluation is to be achieved through schools having well-developed internal self-evaluation processes, credible external evaluations and well-structured support services.

2.15.3.3 PRINCIPLES

The Policy is based on the following principles:

• The core mission of the school is to improve the educational achievements of all learners. Whole-school evaluation, therefore, is designed to enable those in schools, supervisors and support services to identify to what extent the school is adding value to learners’ prior knowledge, understanding and skills;
• All members of a school community bear responsibility for the quality of their own performance. Whole-school evaluation intends to enable the contribution
made by staff, learners and other stakeholders to improve their own and the school’s performance, to be properly recognised;

- All evaluation activities must be characterised by openness and collaboration. The criteria to be used in evaluating schools, therefore, must be made public;

- Good quality whole-school evaluation must be standardised and consistent. The guidelines, criteria and instruments must ensure consistency over periods of time and across settings;

- The evaluation of qualitative data is essential when deciding how well a school is performing. For this reason, whole-school evaluation is concerned with the range of inputs, processes and outcomes. These include the provision of resources, human and physical, the quality of leadership and management, learning and teaching, and the standards achieved by learners;

- Staff development and training is critical to school improvement. A measure used by whole-school evaluation in judging a school’s performance is the amount and quality of in-service training undertaken by staff and its impact on learning and standards of achievement;

- Schools are inevitably at different stages of development. Many factors contribute to this. A basic principle of this policy is to seek to understand why schools are where they are and to use the particular circumstances of the school as the main starting point of evaluation. The policy recognises that schools in disadvantaged areas, for example, must not be disadvantaged in terms of whole-school evaluation.

2.15.3.4 AREAS FOR EVALUATION

The following are the key areas for evaluation:

- Basic functionality of the school
- Leadership, management and communication
- Governance and relationships
- Quality of teaching and educator development
- Curriculum provision and resources
- Learner achievements
2.15.3.5 PERFORMANCE RATINGS

The overall school performance will be rated using the following scale:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Rating</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Outstanding</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Good</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Acceptable</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Needs improvement</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Needs urgent support</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Where it is not possible to give a rating, 0 will be used.


2.16 CURRENT QUALITY INITIATIVE - NATIONAL TEACHING AWARDS

The National Teaching Awards is another effort at promoting quality within the education sector.

2.16.1 AIMS AND OBJECTIVES

The express aim of the National Teaching Awards is to 'recognise excellence in education'. In the launching of Tirisano – Call to Action in July 1999, the Minister of Education, Professor Asmal stated:
‘It is time to reassert the dignity of the teaching profession, because teachers at their best are vital agents of change and growth in our schools and communities.’

The objectives of the Ministry of Education through the National Teaching Awards are to:

- Focus public attention on the positive aspects of Education, thereby raising the public image of the teaching profession.
- Recognise and promote excellence in the teaching performance.
- Honour dedicated, creative and effective teachers and schools.
- Encourage best practice in schools.
- Afford South Africans the opportunity to publicly say thank you to outstanding teams or teachers in schools.

2.16.2 CATEGORIES OF AWARDS

The categories of awards are:

- Excellence in Primary School Teaching
- Excellence in Secondary School Teaching
- Excellence in Primary School Leadership
- Excellence in Secondary School Leadership
- Excellence in Early Childhood Development
- Excellence in Special Needs Teaching
- Lifetime Achievement Award

2.16.3 AWARDS AND PRIZES

The prizes for the 2002 year were:

- District finalists: Certificates of Excellence and profiling of schools in local newspapers.
- Regional/Cluster finalists: Certificates of Excellence and the school received
• Provincial finalists: Certificates of Excellence and the School received a cash award of R2500.
• National finalists: Certificates of Excellence and the school received a cash award of R10 000 for the first prize, R5000 for the second and R2500 for third.

Cash award received by schools must be used for staff development to improve classroom practice.

2.16.4 GENERAL CRITERIA

The commitment of educators to the following serves as general assessment criteria:

• Encouraging and engaging learners in the process of learning
• Contributing to the ethos and morale of the school through inspiring and encouraging colleagues
• Contributing to both the curriculum and extra-curricular activities of the school
• Communicating effectively with and responding to the needs of the school community
• Confronting challenges such as poor facilities and inadequate resourcing
• Coping effectively with diversity in the school and in the community
• Confronting and dealing with the effects of HIV/AIDS in the school and the community
• Confronting and dealing with the impact of substance abuse, crime and gangsterism in the school and the community
2.16.5 SPECIFIC CRITERIA

Excellence in primary and secondary school teaching entails the following criteria:

- Engaging learners through imaginative implementation of innovative teaching methods to enhance their learning achievement.
- Contributing to the personal development of learners by communicating effectively with them about their performance and progress.
- Adopting learning and teaching strategies to meet the needs of individual learners.

Excellence in leadership at primary school level entails:

- Demonstrating positive and clear leadership in directing and guiding the school community.
- Creating a stimulating and supportive learning and teaching environment within the school.
- Inspiring, encouraging and empowering staff to be creative and take initiative.
- Fostering links between school and real life, to enable learners to apply the taught knowledge in real life situations.

Excellence in leadership at secondary school level entails:

- Demonstrating positive and clear leadership in directing and guiding the school community.
- Creating a stimulating and supportive learning and teaching environment within the school.
- Inspiring, encouraging and empowering staff to be creative and take initiative.
- Creating and fostering a learning environment for learners to achieve quality education and proceed successfully from one level to another.
Excellence in Early Childhood Development (ECD) entails:

- Encouraging young learners to become independent and confident.
- Fostering links between the school and community.
- Establishing working partnerships with other sectors (e.g. Health, Welfare) to the benefit of the learner.

Excellence in Special Needs Teaching entails:

- Applying learning and teaching strategies to effectively meet the needs of individual learners.
- Communicating learners’ progress effectively to both the learners and their families, and listening and responding constructively to their views.
- Preparing learners to cope in the broader society.

Lifetime Achievement Award entails:

- Sustaining a high level of achievement and commitment throughout a long teaching career.
- Encouraging learners to expect the best of themselves.
- Earning the respect of learners and colleagues.
- Minimum of 20 years of teaching experience.
- Demonstrating positive and clear leadership in directing and guiding the school community.

2.16.6 ELIGIBILITY

The team or nominee must:

- Be a serving educator in a public school in South Africa.
- Be employed by the Department of Education or a School Governing Body.
- Have been working for at least two years in a public school in South Africa without a break of service (except for the Lifetime Achievement Award, a
minimum of 20 years without a break of service in a public school in South Africa is an eligibility).

- Be registered with SACE.
- Those who have received National Teaching Awards at the national level in previous years are not eligible for nomination.
  (National Teacher Awards 2002: 1-4).

Clearly the National Teacher Awards is aimed at encouraging quality and promoting excellence in education. Excellence is defined by the National Teaching Award as: ‘maintaining high standards of performance and professionalism and aiming to be the best in everything including being fair, ethical and trustworthy’.

2.17 CRITICAL COMMENTARY ON SOME OF THE CURRENT QUALITY INITIATIVES OF THE DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION

With reference to Developmental Appraisal for Educators (DAS), it is important to note that this was the first attempt by the new democratic Department of Education to undertake some form of appraisal of educators’ work. It must also be noted that the strength of this document lies in, or should lie in the fact that DAS was spearheaded by the largest teacher union, SADTU. There must of necessity, exist a sense of ownership on the part of the majority of educators. The policy document is an excellent one aimed at evaluating the core competencies of an educator. Provision is also made to assess additional competencies. The primary aim of facilitating the personal and professional development of educators in order to improve the quality of teaching and management, is what is needed in our education system. It is also important to note that the process of developmental appraisal is ‘ongoing’. In other words, in the language of TQM, the focus is on ‘continuous improvement’.

Unfortunately, the survey findings have revealed that DAS is not being implemented in any serious fashion in the majority of schools. DAS is viewed as a mere formality to be dispensed of as quickly as possible. The majority of educators saw it as a ‘paper chase’ that was very time consuming. (Details of the findings are presented in Chapter 6)
The National Policy on Whole School Evaluation (WSE) was introduced in June 2000. The main goal of the policy is to assure quality in the education system. The policy recognises the importance of schools as the place in which the quality of education is ultimately determined. Therefore, it aims to improve the overall quality of education in South African schools. At the end of the process, feedback on the quality of education at the school will be provided to all stakeholders – National and Provincial Departments, parents and society in general. However, as revealed by the questionnaire, WSE although introduced in June 2000, is yet to be implemented in most schools. (Chapter 6 p. 253)

Initial attempts to implement Whole School Evaluation led to strong resistance from unionised educators. In certain schools, educators and learners drove out departmental officials entrusted with the task of carrying out the evaluation. This prompted Mathatha Tsedu, Chairman of the South African National Editors Forum to launch a scathing attack on Black educators. Tsedu finds it strange that educators should refuse to be evaluated. He points out that the workers in industry such as Coca-Cola or Toyota cannot refuse inspection by arguing that it 'smacks of a lack of trust'. If they did refuse, then 'consumers would vote with their wallets and buy drinks and cars that have passed through not only the good hands of the workers, but inspectors too'. He argues that teachers in the East Rand who threw out the inspectors, did what they did, because they knew that the community was 'a captive one with no ability to take their children out of those schools. The teachers know too that their own children are at schools where teachers agree to inspections. And that is the tragedy of Black teachers today. A group that used to enjoy the respect and admiration of its community has sunk to such depths of unprofessionalism and lack of interest in their work that they are now chasing inspectors out of schools. The reason being a fear that evaluation of their work could lead to them losing jobs'. He adds, 'today's teachers are a sorry sight. Robbed of commitment to the children they teach, and self-confidence in their own work, they send their children to schools with White teachers. They remain in the township schools, using them as centres from which they collect salaries at the end of the month, with the minimum of effort to earn that salary'.
He argues that, 'if teachers who are meant to lead by example refuse to be evaluated, why should their charges agree to it? The student movements should defend students' rights not to be evaluated and insist that they too be trusted.'

He concludes with heavy sarcasm, '...those township children have nowhere to run to, and the teachers, unlike the workers at Coca-Cola and Toyota, have no possibility of losing their market, their jobs. How sad.' (Natal Mercury 28 May 2002).

Tsedu's comments whilst very emotive, raises some very serious concerns about the quality of education in public schools. His demands go to the very heart of TQM, that is, providing the consumer with high quality goods and services that they actually require.

The impasse on implementing Whole School Evaluation led to the release of a joint media statement by the South African Democratic Teachers Union (SADTU) and the National Department of Education on 20 May 2002:

'A delegation of the South African Democratic Teachers Union led by its President Willie Madisha and its General-Secretary, Mr Thulas Nxesi met with the Minister of Education, Professor Kader Asmal and Director-General Thami Mseleku and senior officials of the Department of Education in Pretoria today to discuss problems arising from the implementation of the policy on Whole School Evaluation. This policy was approved by the Council of Education Ministers, and gazetted in August 2001.

It was agreed at the meeting that there was in principle support for evaluation systems in education, including a system of Developmental Appraisal as well as Whole School Evaluation, and that both of these necessitated classroom observations to ensure quality in education'.

However SADTU raised concerns regarding the implementation of the classroom observation component of Whole School Evaluation, and it was agreed that these would be considered by a Task Team, which will table its recommendations on or before 5 June 2002.'

As at the end of February 2003, the future of Whole School Evaluation is still not clear.
With regard to the National Teacher Awards, the main objective is recognising and rewarding excellence in education. Whilst the concept of identifying outstanding individuals is a good one, it does little to promote system-wide quality. The focus is the individual and the assumption is made that the individual would motivate others. Unfortunately, whilst it does much to promote a positive image of the individual, it does little to spread best practice in schools.

2.18 SUMMARY

Many countries have undertaken profound reforms of their civil service. These reforms are aimed at introducing quality, greater productivity and improved service delivery. The overview of the state of education in South Africa prior to 1994 does paint a gloomy picture. Years of neglect of African education has led to the disintegration of the learning environment. Since 1994 various policies were implemented to address the critical issues. A discussion of the current quality initiatives of the Department of Education has indicated that they are not producing the desired results. This has implications for any proposal to implement TQM. The next chapter presents a brief history of the quality movement as well as the core principle of Total Quality Management. The applicability of the principles of TQM to the public schooling system is debated.
CHAPTER THREE

THE TOTAL QUALITY MOVEMENT

3.1 INTRODUCTION

The purpose of this chapter is to review the literature on Total Quality Management (TQM). The ideas of quality in business organizations in general will be explored, with a view to establishing whether TQM, an industrial theory, has any relevance to the education sector. Thereafter, attempts to apply the theory and principles of TQM to the field of education will be considered.

Flood (1993: xi) points out that Total Quality Management is sweeping the industrialised world, with good reason. It is helping to remove unnecessary and costly waste, to locate and eradicate sources of error, and to provide the consumer with reliable products and services that they actually want. It also makes people’s jobs more meaningful and worthwhile. TQM makes common sense. However, what needs to be explored is the prospects that Total Quality Management holds for assisting in addressing some of the pressing issues in the public education system.

3.2 A BRIEF HISTORY OF THE QUALITY MOVEMENT

The quality idea is not new. It has been around for hundreds of years. According to Sallis (1996: 6) there has always been a need to ensure that products conform to their specification and give customer satisfaction and value for money. Achieving consistent quality allows consumers to have confidence in a product and its producers. However, quality became a real issue with the advent of industrialization. Prior to this, craftsmen set and maintained their own standards, on which their reputations and livelihoods depended. The advent of mass production took away from the worker the possibility of self-checking quality. Therefore, quality control and other inspection processes, had to be instituted, in order to ensure that only products meeting their
specification leave the factory. However, quality control is an after-the-event process, and is divorced from the people who produce the product. Inspection and quality control detect defective products. They are not means of assuring that the workforce care about quality. They are necessary processes under mass production, but they are often wasteful and expensive, involving considerable amounts of scrap and reworking.

Greenwood & Gaunt (1994: 2) contend that economic growth since the Second World War has produced increasing sophistication in the tastes of the public, and a revulsion against cheap and shoddy goods. This was particularly marked in the 1970s and 1980s. The manufacturing industries of the Western economies found themselves increasingly undermined by competition from Japan. The focus of Japanese industry increasingly became quality and meeting the expectations of customers. This new approach was in the main the result of the work of W. Edwards Deming and Joseph M. Juran. Some of their disciples such as Philip B. Crosby, Shiego Shingo, Kaoru Ishikwa and Armand V. Feigenbaum developed their ideas further, or popularised them. The paradigm that they developed has widely become known as Total Quality Management.

Notions of quality assurance and total quality came late to the West, although the ideas were originally developed in the 1930s and 1940s by, among others, W. Edwards Deming. Deming began formulating his ideas in the 1930s while working on the methods of removing variability and waste from industrial processes (Sallis 1996: 7). According to Deming, good quality does not necessarily mean high quality. He says it is, rather, 'a predictable degree of uniformity and dependability, at low cost, and suited to the market.' Quality is whatever the customer needs and wants. Dr Deming’s basic philosophy on quality is that productivity improves as variability decreases. Since all things vary, the statistical method of quality control is needed. Deming is a great advocate of worker participation in decision-making. He claims that management is responsible for 94% of all quality problems, and points out that it is management’s task to help people work smarter, not harder (Lewis Jr 1993: 3-4).
According to Flood (1993: 17) Deming’s contribution has clearly been path-finding. The systematic functional logic provides an insightful way of reasoning about organizations; for example, the identification of stages and their interrelationship, and the mutual dependence linking an organization and its suppliers. The essence of Deming’s beliefs is captured in his 14 points for management.

**DEMING’S 14 POINTS FOR MANAGEMENT**

1. Create constancy of purpose towards improvement of product and service, with the aim to become competitive and to stay in business, and to provide jobs.
2. Adopt the new philosophy. We are in a new economic age. Western management must awaken to the challenge, must learn their responsibilities, and take on leadership for change.
3. Cease dependence on inspection to achieve quality. Eliminate the need for inspection on a mass basis by building quality into the product in the first place.
4. End the practice of awarding business on the basis of price tag. Instead, minimize total cost. Move toward a single supplier for any one item, on a long-term relationship of loyalty and trust.
5. Improve constantly and forever the system of production and service, to improve quality and productivity, and thus constantly decrease costs.
6. Institute training on the job.
7. Institute leadership. The aim of supervision should be to help people and machines and gadgets to do a better job. Supervision of management is in need of overhaul, as well as supervision of production workers.
8. Drive out fear, so that everyone may work effectively for the company.
9. Break down barriers between departments. People in research, design, sales, and production must work as a team, to foresee problems of production and in use that may be encountered with the product or service.
10. Eliminate slogans, exhortations, and targets for the workforce asking for zero defects and new levels of productivity. Such exhortations only create adversarial relationships, as the bulk of the causes of low productivity belong to the system and thus lie beyond the power of the work force.

11a. Eliminate work standards (quotas) on the factory floor. Substitute leadership.


12a. Remove barriers that rob the hourly worker of his right to pride of workmanship. The responsibility for supervisors must be changed from sheer numbers to quality.

12b. Remove barriers that rob people in management and in engineering of their right to pride of workmanship. This means, *inter alia*, abolishment of the annual or merit rating and of management by objectives.

13. Institute a vigorous program of education and self improvement.

14. Put everybody in the company to work to accomplish the transformation. The transformation is everybody’s job.

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**TABLE 3.1 Deming’s 14 Points (Deming 1986: 23-24)**

Dr Joseph M. Juran, like Dr Deming, is credited with part of the quality success story of Japan. According to Dr Juran, there are two kinds of quality: fitness for use and conformance to specifications. A product may conform to all specifications, but may not be fit for use. Dr Juran was the first to deal with the broad management aspects of quality. He argued that firms did not know how to manage for quality. He identified some of the problems as organization, communication, and coordination of functions. Dr Juran talks about three basic steps to progress: structured annual improvements combined with devotion and a sense of urgency, massive training programmes, and upper management leadership (Lewis Jr, 1993: 4-5).

Sashkin & Kiser (1993: 67-68) refers to Juran’s ‘quality trilogy’ of quality planning, quality control, and quality management, which shows how to plan, coordinate, and integrate a concern for quality into all organizational operations.
According to Juran, quality improvement means improving on the past by, reducing wastage, improving delivery, enhancing employees’ satisfaction, becoming more profitable and ensuring greater customer satisfaction (Flood 1993: 19).

Crosby (1979: 3) poses the question, ‘What does making quality certain mean?’ His answer - ‘getting people to do better all the worthwhile things they ought to be doing anyway.’

Philip B. Crosby is best known for coming up with the concept of zero defects. This simply means to do the job right the first time, every time. Crosby sums up the concept of quality management with the word, ‘prevention’. Whereas the conventional view says quality is achieved through inspection, testing, and checking, he says that prevention is the only system that can be utilised. And when Dr Crosby says prevention, he means perfection. The main ingredients necessary to attain perfection are determination, education and implementation (Lewis Jr, 1993: 6-7).

According to Crosby, there is no such thing as a quality problem; problems are created by poor management. The management style that Crosby advocates is for managers to take a lead with the belief that workers will follow the quality example being set (Flood 1993: 22).

Shiego Shingo’s contribution to quality management arose from a personal realisation that statistical methods detect errors too late in the manufacturing process. What is needed is to identify errors as they happen and to correct or deal with them right away. This can mean halting the manufacturing process until the error is located and eradicated. The error is prevented from becoming a defect in the final product. Over time, the process is cleaned out of all the likely errors. Only exceptional cases have to be dealt with. Production, therefore, runs smoothly and more or less continuously (Flood 1993: 28-29).

Ishikwa’s philosophy for organization is Company Wide Quality. This involves both vertical and horizontal co-operation. Vertical co-operation occurs between managers, supervisors and the workers. Horizontal co-operation means looking beyond the internal organization, caring about end customers through customer service, and the quality that suppliers offer. Overall, there is a functional co-operation. All functions
of an organization are brought together. All staff must be able to contribute to Company Wide Quality (Flood 1993: 33).

Tom Peters discovered the vital importance of quality and the need for a continuous 12-point programme. He emphasised the need for a quality improvement revolution to provide top-quality goods and services to meet the perceptions of customers. He believed that quality is more important than price in the market place. Peters describes four findings from his observations and studies:

- Customers will pay a lot for best quality.
- Firms that provide this quality thrive.
- Workers want the opportunity to provide top quality.
- No product has a safe lead in quality. (Rosander 1989: 299-301).

The thrust of Feigenbaum’s contribution is a whole approach; an approach to Total Quality Control. There is a need to manage company-wide; co-ordinating and controlling all management and operational functions, bringing together social and technical aspects of the organization. This is achieved at the same time as paying due respects to external satisfaction of consumers, as well as focusing on supplies and suppliers. Quality control can only be realised if the organization has an all-pervading quality consciousness. This means that adequate communication channels must be in place so that participation can be achieved. The exchange of information enables employees of an organization to share in the company’s strategy and progress (Flood 1993: 35-36).

After the Second World War, the Japanese were concerned to reconstruct their war-torn industry. Japanese industry had been largely destroyed by the war and what was left mainly produced poor-quality imitations of other nations’ products.

According to Gryna (2001: 2) two forces emerged after World War II that have had a profound impact on quality. The first was the Japanese revolution in quality. Prior to World War II, many Japanese products were perceived, throughout the world, to be poor in quality. To sell their products in international markets, the Japanese took some revolutionary steps to improve quality:
• Upper-level managers personally took charge of leading the revolution.
• All levels and functions received training in the quality disciplines.
• Quality improvement projects were undertaken on a continuing basis at a revolutionary pace.

The second major force to affect quality was the prominence of product quality in the public mind. Several trends converged to highlight this prominence – product liability cases, concerns about the environment, disasters, pressure by consumer organizations, and the awareness of the role of quality in trade.

The Japanese wanted to learn the quality control lessons from other industrialised nations. Deming gave his Japanese audiences a simple answer to their predicament. He told them to start by finding out what their customers wanted. Once they knew that, he suggested they design both their methods of production and their products to the highest standards. In Japan, the quality revolution started in manufacturing, followed by the service industry and by banking and finance. Thereafter, much of Japan’s market dominance was the result of their concern for quality (Sallis 1996: 7-8).

In Japan, quality control is everyone’s responsibility and not just assigned to the quality control experts. The culture is one of worker empowerment and long-term investment in the training and competence of front-line workers. It is acknowledged that stakeholders in quality are not just the external customers and clients or the major investors in the company, but also fellow workers who depend on the quality of others’ work. Measurement has to be very accurate, so that even the minutest errors can be detected and rectified to avoid ultimate quality defects (Liston 1999: 9).

In the 1950s and 1960s the emphasis of the United States of America and most Western manufacturing industry was on maximising output and profit. Quality had a low priority in a world hungry for manufactured goods. It is only since the late 1970s, when they had lost both markets and market share to the Japanese, that major United
States companies started to take seriously the quality message. They started asking why was it that consumers preferred Japanese products. (Sallis, 1996: 9).
Liston (1999: 10) supports this view by pointing out that in the USA, manufacturers began to regret their lack of focus on building quality into production processes. It was becoming uncomfortably evident that the Japanese were winning more of a share of the market. In response, organizations in the USA developed a more formal approach to specifying, documenting and measuring quality requirements.

Michaelson (1994: 2) sees the turning point in the United States quality revolution as the screening of the NBC programme, ‘If Japan Can … Why Can’t We?’ The well-known Xerox Company was in financial trouble and started to search for ways to be competitive. The company ordered a copy of the NBC programme. It immediately became part of the communications programme for all Xerox employees. Other companies such as GTE Corporation and J.I. Case followed suit and in a short while over 6 000 copies of the videotape were requested. The Ford Motor Company decided to invite Deming to Ford. Hereafter, the quality message of Deming, Juran and others began to be taken seriously.

The message of total quality requires managers to put aside short-term preoccupations and take a longer-term view. Staying ahead of the competition requires organizations to seek out their customers’ requirements and then to be single-minded in the way they organise to meet and exceed them. The thrust of the quality message was to design quality into the product and into the employee attitudes and relationships. Quality is the key to competitive advantage (Sallis, 1996: 9-10).

Deming (1986: ix) in the preface to his book, *Out of Crisis*, asserts that failure of management to plan for the future and to foresee problems has brought about waste of manpower, of materials, and of machine-time, all of which raise the manufacturer’s cost and price that the purchaser must pay. The consumer is not always willing to subsidize this waste. The inevitable result is loss of market. Loss of market begets unemployment.

Flood (1993: 5) points out that quality management today, has become proactive, making plans to bring about continuous quality improvement and to achieve a more
desirable future. The aim is to get rid of poor quality from the product rather than getting rid of poor quality products. Quality management has progressed, establishing proactive rather than reactive management. TQM is a whole system concept recognising the need to manage sets of interacting issues; issues of a technical, cultural and or political nature.

Jarrar & Aspinwall (1999: 182) conducted research on business process re-engineering, and concluded that, overall, the organizations that already had a TQM programme prior to re-engineering reported finding less resistance from their people; lower training costs and generally gained greater improvement in performance. This they argue is probably due to the greater experience with process management, a culture that accepts continuous change and improvement, teamwork experience and the customer focus. In the 1980s, increasing numbers of companies started to adopt quality management. The development of the International Quality Assurance Management System Standards has also acted as a catalyst in many countries, setting off joint management and quality thinking.

3.3 THE THEORY AND PRINCIPLES OF TOTAL QUALITY MANAGEMENT

Jablonski (1994: 50-51) points out that the perception of TQM takes one of two forms. First, it may be considered as a philosophy of management, or a guiding set of principles that allow someone to manage better. Or it is believed to be an assortment of sophisticated statistical and measurement tools which few people use in their daily work life, and fewer still understand. In reality, the philosophy of Total Quality Management allows us to breach the traditional barriers that restrain executives and managers from utilizing the tremendous potential stored in each and every one of their people. The essence of TQM allows us to set our expectations higher than we have in the past, to recognise and remove barriers to change, and to enable high-level managers to solicit the opinions and ideas of their associates and do something with those good ideas. To support the philosophy of TQM, we have a set of tools. These qualitative and quantitative tools allow us to better understand the way business is
conducted. TQM includes moulding individual behaviour and imparting a feeling to the employee that something positive is taking place and progress is being made.

The main principles of TQM can be summarised as:

- **Customer focus** – TQM demands a heightened awareness of customers outside and within the organization.
- **A focus on the process as well as the results.**
- **Prevention versus inspection** – attention is directed towards the prevention of defective products and services, rather than the discovery of defects and deficiencies after resources have been spent.
- **Mobilising expertise of the workforce** – people like to be appreciated and TQM creates new, innovative ways to recognise individuals for their efforts. A movement toward TQM mobilises the expertise of the workforce in a very positive way for the mutual benefit of everyone involved.
- **Fact-based decision-making** – involves understanding the cause of problems and gathering data on which decisions for improving the process can be based.
- **Feedback** – honest, reliable feedback is vital to improvement (Jablonski 1994: 44-50).

Chung (1999: 196) in addressing the issue of a philosophical foundation for quality management, points out that the essence of the philosophy must be reflected in three premises:

- The process is usually more enjoyable than the product (result).
- If one takes care of the process, the product will take care of itself, and
- Any result is part of an endless process leading to future results and future processes.

Flood (1993: 48) presents the following ten points as the core principles of Total Quality Management:

- There must be agreed requirements, for both internal and external customers.
• Customers' requirements must be met first time, every time.
• Quality improvements will reduce waste and total costs.
• There must be focus on the prevention of problems, rather than an acceptance to cope in a fire-fighting manner.
• Quality improvement can only result from planned management action.
• Every job must add value.
• Everybody must be involved, from all levels and across all functions.
• There must be an emphasis on measurement to help to assess and to meet requirements and objectives.
• A culture of continuous improvement must be established. Continuous includes the desirability of dramatic leaps forward as well as steady improvement.
• An emphasis should be placed on promoting creativity.

Sadgrove (1995: 15) contends that quality must include the four essentials:

- Reduce defects – this means reducing the number of errors made, whether in making products that don't work, or in making paperwork mistakes.
- Improve productivity – produce a greater output for the same level of cost.
- Improve customer service – the focus must be on meeting customer needs.
- Innovate – competitors are constantly offering customers newer and better products. Hence the need to constantly innovate.

Sadgrove (1995: 16) goes on to add that the four essentials can only be achieved if the energies of the whole workforce are committed to excellence and to the customer. The four essentials are too big a task for any one individual to achieve.

3.4 THE RELEVANCE OF TOTAL QUALITY MANAGEMENT TO THE EDUCATION SECTOR

Exponents of the public management approach maintain that large government institutions function like business enterprises and they must only be managed to be successful. However, Botes & Roux (1992: 297) dispute this, arguing that this type of
approach is based on unverified suppositions and many of the theories are of a speculative nature. It does not make sense to apply business management with all its philosophical principles. A single basic principle, namely that profit determines the continued existence of business enterprises, simply cannot be applied in public and other government institutions where sacrifice and service are the norm.

It is important to note that the theory of W. Edwards Deming was originally developed to improve the management of manufacturing enterprises. Over time it has been extended to service industries, government and even not-for-profit enterprises. Rosander (1989: 37) points out that government is not usually considered in the same category as service industries. Nevertheless, this is where they belong because their major, if not, sole purpose is to render services to the public they represent. It is asserted that because of the profit motive, private industry can always perform a job better than government employees. However, this view ignores the many cases of business failure and bankruptcy. It is also argued that since government operations are not carried out for the purpose of making a profit, and since by definition are very wasteful if not useless, there is no point in applying quality control to try to improve them.

Rosander (1989: 37) replies that this is false. Quality is everybody's business. Quality applies to performance wherever people are working or engaged in any activity. Public or private ownership has nothing to do with this; quality performance is necessary whether profit is involved or not. It is needed in non-profit organizations and agencies just as much as in service companies operated for a profit. Quality improvement is precisely what the bottom line of government can and should be. It cannot be profit in the strict sense of the word, but it can be improvement of performance and operations. Quality improvement in government will result in: reduction of errors and failures, fewer troubles, better service to the public and increased productivity. They will result in precisely the same gains as if the government were a private company.

Zeithaml, Parasuraman & Berry (1990: 15) assert that many argue that the quality principles and practices for ensuring the quality of goods are inadequate for understanding service quality. They believe that this inadequacy stems from the three
fundamental ways services differ from goods in terms of how they are produced, consumed, and evaluated. First, services are basically intangible. Precise manufacturing specifications concerning uniform quality can rarely be set. Second, services—especially those with a high labour content—are heterogeneous: their performance often varies from producer to producer, from customer to customer, and from day to day. Third, production and consumption of many services are inseparable.

As a result of these concerns, Zeithaml, Parasuraman & Berry (1990: 16-17) undertook a study of 12 customer focus-group interviews. Through the focus-group interviews, they learned a great deal about how customers view service quality. The focus groups unambiguously supported the notion that the key to ensuring good service quality is meeting or exceeding what customers expect from the service.

Building on the conceptual definition of service quality, they embarked on developing an instrument, SERVQUAL, for measuring customers’ perception of service quality. They conclude that the key to delivering high quality service is to balance customers’ expectations and perceptions and close the gap between the two. In terms of quality, there is little or no difference between what customers expect from a product and what they expect from a service.

Tribus (1994: 87-88) cautions that in adapting quality management, originally developed for business enterprises, it is important to keep in mind certain differences between education and business:

- The school is not a factory.
- The student is not a ‘product’.
- The education of the student is the product.
- Successful completion of the product requires the student to participate as a co-worker, co-managing the learning process.
- Teaching and learning are two different processes.
- Educators are not habituated to the concept of ‘customer’.

Rosen (1993: 239) refers to James Swiss’ words of caution – ‘TQM can indeed have a useful role to play in government, but only if it is substantially modified to fit the public sector’s unique characteristics’.
Stampen (1987: 423) poses the question, 'Why look to industry for ideas on creating effective schools?' He answers by pointing out that in the past, educational reforms have often developed from ideas born in industry. In fact, the field of educational administration originated as an offshoot of the 'scientific management movement' in the early 1900s.

Siegel & Byrne (1994: 108) talk about the perils and additional challenges of implementing TQM in education. They describe the education system as disconnected, and without clear boundaries. Further, unlike business, the education system has a more complicated leadership structure and set of stakeholders. Unlike business, the work processes in education are relatively undefined and schools have complex customer-supplier relationships. Resources in schools are limited and schools operate under severe time constraints.

According to Chesterton (1994: 19) the biggest disadvantage that TQM has in an educational context is that it has originated from an industrial base. Within education this is viewed as industry imposing a mechanistic straitjacket on schools. Fields (1993: 2-3) adds that a conversation with most public school educators will assure us that school learning and teaching is not like business. Teachers will argue that unlike business, there is little control over the quality of the student sent to school. Children do not come in neat little homogenised bundles ready to be taught. Further, the purpose of public schools is to educate all students to their potential, regardless of the obstacles from within or without the schools. Educators may also suggest that teaching well, is more an art than an operation. The competence required of effective teachers is complex, while the skills needed in business seem stable and easily measurable and obtainable. Educators may believe that business can afford some scrap and rework, and can simply adjust its bottom line. Schools can’t afford failures or dropouts.

Pallas & Neumann (1995: 52) are of the view that efforts to translate TQM from business to education may result in meaningful aspects of schools and schooling being lost or disfigured in translation. In its potential to cloud important differences between educational organizations and other social institutions, TQM may diffuse certain aspects of schools and schooling that are worth keeping. In contrast, Glasser (1990) is
of the firm view that Deming’s ideas can be brought undistorted into our schools to eliminate the elitist system in which just a few students are producing high quality work, and replace it with a system in which almost all students produce high quality work.

In addition, Gangel (1994: 224) raises an interesting question: ‘Even if business and education are concerned about different things, is there anything that education can gain from quality?’ The answer, he argues, is an absolute, unqualified ‘yes’. The language of quality may be foreign to educators, but the promises of quality have education written all over them. To reap the benefits of quality we need only accept the language of quality.

Reed (1994: 225) adds that a major part of this culture change is a very active engagement of the workers as thinking partners in shaping decisions that bear directly on production or learning. Industry talks about zero defects and schools talk about ‘all children can and will learn well’.

Cuttance (1997: 102) points out that the difference in the extent and type of competition in the public and private sectors masks a significant feature of the management of quality in the two sectors. Another major difference between the public and private sectors is the fact that unsuccessful organizations go bankrupt and disappear in the private sector, whereas they are subject to reform or rejuvenation in the public sector.

In exploring the issue of total quality in the public sector, West-Burnham (1997: 29) points out that comparisons with business are usually helpful but problematic. Most commercial organizations would be delighted if their customers were required by law to use their services.

Wilkinson (1994: 25) raises serious concerns about conformance to customer requirements, which is at the heart of the TQM philosophy. He poses the question of whether professional educators should accept that the customer is always right and merely respond to what may be an imperfect perception of needs. Do pupils, parents and other role players always know what is in their best interests?
Lewis (1993: 26-27) offers a solution where both the customers (parents and students) and providers (school administrators and teachers) reach mutual agreement on needs, requirements, and expectations. He adds that there is a sound reason for this. School administrators and teachers are the professionals who have been trained and certified to have some knowledge of what students need today. They must also look into the future to determine what students need to become productive members of society. However, parents, as customers, also know what they want for their children. The partnership is therefore, vitally important.

Wilkinson (1994: 25) points out that the concept of 'zero defect' may be viewed as an unrealistic ideal, given the range of educational endeavour. However, he hastens to point out that one workable resolution for managers in schools would seem to be the setting of challenging, elevating yet achievable targets in areas as diverse as truancy, academic performance or pastoral care.

Riley (1997: 27) argues that there are difficulties in transferring private sector models about quality into the public sector. To begin with the common language increasingly used in both the public and private sector masks some fundamental differences. The term 'customers' for example, is used for shoppers as well as for users of services such as education. But the education 'customer' hardly resembles the supermarket shopper. The purchasing power of the education consumer is limited. Only a minority have the financial power to exit from the public education service. And exercising this power will not pressurise the management to improve the service; indeed, if those who can afford to exit the service do so, the pressure for public resources for education falls, having lost the involvement of the wealthiest, most powerful and articulate parents. All parents as 'customers' of the education service supposedly have the right to choose a school, but not necessarily the possibility of exercising that choice. Indeed, there is increasing evidence to suggest that it is schools that are choosing parents and children. Furthermore, the education customer has to buy; the supermarket customer can just walk out of the shop without purchasing. Comesky & Lazarus (1995: 9) add that generally the concept of customers within educational institutions differs from the private sector's definition because in education, 'repeat customers' are usually undesirable.
The cost of implementing TQM, is a question that often arises. Can cash-strapped education departments afford the cost of implementing TQM? Fox (1991: 215) contends that this is a reasonable question, particularly in light of the fact that large business organizations have the kind of money to implement new programmes. A further problem is that unfortunately, cost is usually weighed up against the need for short term-term returns. Businesses, unlike schools, are able to produce short-term returns. Fox (1991: 216) asserts that in practical terms, the direct cost of implementing TQM is virtually irrelevant. To ignore it on the grounds of cost, particularly when those costs are extremely small in relation to the benefits and in comparison with other initiatives, is tantamount to committing suicide.

Diwan (1996: 5) adds that historically there was the mistaken notion that achievement of better quality requires higher costs. It was this myth that prevented many companies from investing strongly into quality activities and programmes. However, the fact of the matter is that poor quality implies waste of material, waste of the effort of labour and waste of equipment utilisation and thereby results in higher costs. On the other hand, good quality ensures optimum utilisation of man, machine and material and thereby lowering costs.

According to Davies (1994: 12) problems will always occur in education about what parents or pupils want and what professional educators may analyse that they need. Keeping the customer happy may not, in itself, be an intrinsic measure of the success of the education process. Davies (1994: 12-13) also expresses the fear that adopting TQM takes more people away from working with clients as a quality bureaucracy is established. He further sees TQM as only bringing marginal benefits. He contends that the economic system and framework in which we operate is changing in such a fundamental way that incremental improvements will no longer be adequate. What we need are radically new ways of thinking about how we lead and manage in the 21st century. Davies (1994: 13) has serious doubts that TQM can provide us with this type of thinking.

In response to Davies, Ouston (1995: 33) argues that the ideas of W. Edwards Deming are highly relevant to education. She argues, 'Davies very sweeping dismissal of all ideas that might be described as quality management, may lead us to throw out some very valuable babies with some rather tepid bath water.' She sees great value in
Deming’s advice that people should ‘take joy in their work’. Engaging in processes that allow everyone to ‘win’ is valuable. These allow everyone within the organization to emerge feeling positive about the outcome. Deming argues strongly for cooperation. He sees people as being motivated in the long term by personal and collective achievements rather than by winning at the cost of others.

La Vigna, Willis, Shaull, Abedi & Sweitzer (1994: 87) acknowledge that there may be difficulties in translating the principles of TQM into concrete managerial action and operational procedures, particularly as they extend to human service and educational settings. Therefore, they offer the Periodic Service Review (PSR) system which represents the operational application of many of Deming’s 14 points. The PSR system contributes to the momentum towards excellence.

Carlson (1994: 16) cautions that TQM is not easy to implement. The failure rate for implementation is high. It takes time to secure the basics and even more time to experience some gains, but, in the end, the rewards are well worth the effort as long as continuous improvement and customer satisfaction become a way of life for the organization forever.

Schenkat (1993: 27) observes that educators are usually sceptical about accepting business panaceas for schools. Educators often have an integrated set of beliefs and attitudes that cause them to mistrust business. Many regard suggestions from business people as meddling. Educators question whether they are being compromised by business – ‘Isn’t there more to an education than what business wants? Haven’t the manufacturing accoutrements of measurement, standardisation and mass production already caused problems in education? Look at business; the economy is in bad shape. Are these same business leaders, with dubious success records, trying to tell us, again, how to run our schools? Why should we jump on the TQM bandwagon?’

By way of a reply, Schenkat (1993: 28) points out that teachers who are successful in school environments will prepare citizens for the new world economy. The key to education is understanding – and understanding is also at the core of Deming’s philosophy. Understanding is a keystone of success; therefore, the teaching profession needs to be based on facilitating learning for understanding. TQM can dignify
education by allowing us to diffuse the charge that education is at the root of our economic woes. Education need not be the scapegoat for economic downturns. However, if education systems fail to embrace TQM, education will be more culpable when companies make the switch and still see an emerging work force being trained in the old paradigm.

Rhodes (1994: 76) recalls one elementary school teacher writing to him, ‘Schools have a head start over industry in implementing quality concepts because we have a better foundation in psychology and human development than industry’. Chesterton (1994: 26) adds that education has several advantages over industry in implementation in that the teaching staff involved is academically well qualified and the existence of the collegiate style of operation within educational institutions is a firm base to start from.

Steyn (2000: 174-177) posits that literature reveals that there is growing interest in the application of the TQM philosophy to the education sector. In support, reference is made to the Baldridge Award, instituted in 1987 in the United States of America, which has set a national standard for quality and hundreds of organizations such as schools, use the criteria to pursue ever-higher quality in systems and processes. Being quality and service minded in education means relating to and caring about the goals, needs, desires and interests of customers and making sure that they are met.

Weaver (1992: 4) points out that the novelty of TQM, and the fact that there are so few comprehensive quality management systems in education have caused many people to label quality as a fad. These people argue that TQM like so many management theories before it that educators tried to borrow from the business world, is destined to fade into obscurity. However, Weaver concludes that it is doubtful that interest in TQM will simply fade away, especially since TQM in American education has received support from both business and government.

Gore Jr (1993: 355) argues that the central concept of TQM, continuous improvement, is fundamental to education. Where else could the idea of a culture oriented to continuous improvement be more appropriate than in institutions whose purpose is to support improvement and individual growth? TQM can enhance the quality of the educational experience by addressing the entire organization.
Schenkat (1993: 29) concludes that we can try to resist TQM, but we aren’t likely to succeed. The quality movement is everywhere. TQM provides a planning and development structure to nurture and support innovations in education.

3.5 TOTAL QUALITY MANAGEMENT AND THE PUBLIC SCHOOLING SYSTEM

Improving quality has become a particularly important item on the agenda of any public school. The need to provide a high quality public education is daily gaining momentum. The school is an important public organization that must contribute to the attainment of the goals and ideals of that society. Bounds, Dobbins & Fowler (1995: 5) view an organization as a ‘collection of people working together to achieve a common purpose’. Organizations vary in size, structure, and the kind of activities they engage in. However, they all have certain things in common. All organizations bring people and resources together to fulfil some purpose. They have a reason to exist. The school is one such organization.

According to Sallis (1996: 27) TQM is a philosophy of continuous improvement, which can provide any educational organization with a set of practical tools for meeting and exceeding present and future customer needs, wants and expectations. Total Quality Management is a philosophy and a methodology that assists institutions to manage change, and to set their own agendas for dealing with the plethora of new pressures. Sallis (1996: 4-5) refers to Barlosky and Lawton’s (1995) four quality imperatives or motivating forces that challenge any institution that seeks to take a proactive stance on quality issues:

3.5.1 The moral imperative – the link with customers

The moral imperative lies behind the proposition that customers and clients of education service (students, parents, the community, etc) are deserving of the very best possible quality of education.
John West-Burnham (1997: 7) supports this view pointing out that if schools are about anything, then they have to be fundamentally and obsessively concerned with providing children with the very best educational possibilities. He adds that it is difficult to conceptualise a situation where anything less than total quality is perceived as being appropriate or acceptable for the education of children. The moral imperative is concerned with optimising the opportunities for children to achieve their full potential so that their years of compulsory education culminate in the maximum appropriate outcomes.

3.5.2 The professional imperative – the link with the professional role of educators

Closely linked to the moral imperative is the professional imperative. This represents the duty of all of those involved in the service to strive to provide high standards of tuition to learners. Professionalism implies a commitment to the needs of students and an obligation to meet their needs by employing the most appropriate pedagogic practices. Educators have a professional duty to improve the quality of education and this places an enormous burden on teachers and administrators to ensure that both classroom practice and the management of institutions are operating to the highest possible standards (Sallis 1996: 4).

3.5.3 The competitive imperative – the link with competitors.

Competition is a reality in the world of education. The steady stream of pupils from disadvantaged schools to more advantaged schools and private schools can mean staff redundancies and ultimately the viability of the public school is under threat. In the new educational marketplace, educationalists must meet the challenges of competition by working to improve the quality of their products, services and delivery mechanisms. The importance of TQM to survival is that it is a customer-driven process, focussing on the needs of clients and providing mechanisms to respond to their needs and wants (Sallis 1996: 4-5).
Today the quality of learner outcomes, particularly in the form of publishing nationally the performance of matriculants, is the one factor that differentiates one education institution from another.

This leads Sallis (1996: 5) to conclude that focusing on the needs of the customer, which is at the heart of quality, is one of the most effective means of facing the competition and surviving.

3.5.4 The accountability imperative – the link with constituent groups

Schools are part of their communities and as such they must meet the political demands for education to be more accountable and publicly demonstrate the high standards of their products and services. TQM supports the accountability imperative by promoting objective and measurable outcomes of the educational process and providing mechanisms for the improvement of those outcomes (Sallis 1996: 5). The current practice to create self-reliant schools must be matched by greater accountability on the part of the schools. Institutions must be able to publicly demonstrate that they are able to offer a quality education to their learners.

John West-Burnham (1997: 8) adds that the net result of these imperatives is that schools will have to see themselves as part of their communities, not in the sense of identifying and providing services they consider appropriate but rather in meeting the needs and requirements as specified by that community. Total quality management provides an integrated response, which has the potential to meet the demands of these imperatives in a manner, which is consistent with the special nature of schools as organizations.

Doherty (1994: 19) makes reference to Samuel’s observation on TQM as an inevitable future development:

‘If we can deliver to parents and pupils with consistency on education to meet their requirements, if genuine empowerment leads staff to a greater sense of ownership, if – above all else – there is evidence of
3.6 EDWARD DEMING’S QUALITY PRINCIPLES APPLIED TO EDUCATION

Dr W. Edwards Deming developed Fourteen Points that describe what is necessary for a business to develop a quality culture. Dr Deming linked his Fourteen Points to the survival of a business. Both Lewis Jr (1993: 32) and Arcaro (1995: 63) point out that initially it was difficult to translate and transfer Deming’s principles directly to the education sector. Arcaro (1995: 63) elaborates that many educators who attempted to apply Dr Deming’s points to education failed to take into consideration the unique cultural, political, and legal constraints of education. Lewis Jr (1993: 32) adds that some school officials have found them difficult to translate for educational purposes, because they could not relate statistics, variations, systems, etc to the instructional process.

To alleviate problems, Arcaro (1995: 63-66) has provided a translation of Deming’s Fourteen Points so that their application to the education sector becomes abundantly clear:

3.6.1 Create a Constancy of Purpose

Constancy of purpose means developing a network of aims to govern the behaviour of school people to stay in business through innovation, research, and education; developing continuous improvement of products and services; maintaining equipment, furniture and fixtures; and aiding production in the organization. The aim of creating constancy of purpose is to improve student and service quality with a view to becoming competitive with world-class schools.
3.6.2 Adopt a Total Quality Philosophy

Education is in a highly competitive environment and is often viewed as one of the major reasons why a country loses its competitive advantage. School systems must welcome the challenge to compete in a global economy. Every member of the education system must learn new skills that support the quality revolution. People must be willing to accept the quality challenge. People must take responsibility for improving the quality of the products or services they provide to their internal and external customers. Everyone must learn to operate more efficiently and productively. Everyone must subscribe to the principles of quality.

3.6.3 Reduce the Need for Testing

Reduce the need for testing and inspection on a mass basis by building quality into education services. Provide a learning environment that results in quality student performance.

3.6.4 Award School Business in New Ways

Award school business in ways which minimize the total cost to education. Think of schools as suppliers of students from one grade level to the next. Work with parents and agencies to improve the quality of students coming into the system. It is high time that schools took a stand that price alone has no meaning.

3.6.5 Improve Quality and Productivity and Reduce Costs

Improve quality and productivity, and thus reduce costs, by instituting a “Chart-It/Check-It/Change-It” process. Describe the process to be improved, identify the customer/supplier chain, identify areas for improvement; implement the changes, assess and measure the results, and document and standardise the process. Start the cycle over again to achieve an even higher standard.
3.6.6 Lifelong Learning

Quality begins and ends with training. If we expect people to change the way they do things, we must provide them with the tools necessary to change their work processes. Training provides people with the tools necessary to improve their work processes.

3.6.7 Leadership in Education

It is management's responsibility to provide direction. Managers in education must develop a vision and a mission statement for the school. The vision and mission must be shared and supported by the teachers, staff, students, parents, and the community. Quality must be incorporated in the vision and mission statements. Finally, management must "walk-the-talk." Management must preach and practise the quality principles.

3.6.8 Eliminate Fear

Drive fear out of the school so that everyone works effectively for school improvement. Create an environment that encourages people to speak freely. Adversarial relationships are out-moded and counterproductive.

3.6.9 Eliminate the Barriers to Success

Management is responsible for breaking down barriers that prevent people from succeeding in their work. Break down barriers between departments. All sections must work as a team. Develop movement strategies: move from competition with other groups to collaboration; move from a 'win-lose' resolution to a 'win-win' resolution; move from isolated problem solving to shared problem solving; move from guarding information to sharing information; move from resisting change to welcoming change.
3.6.10 Create a Quality Culture

Create a quality culture. Do not let movement become dependent upon any one individual or group of individuals. Creating a quality culture is everyone’s responsibility.

3.6.11 Process Improvement

No process is ever perfect; therefore, finding a better way, a better process, applies equally and non-judgmentally. Finding solutions takes precedence over finding fault. Recognise people and groups that make the improvements happen.

3.6.12 Help Students Succeed

Remove the barriers that rob learners, educators, and administrators of their right to pride of workmanship. People must want to be involved and do their jobs well. The responsibility of all education administrators must be changed from quantity to quality.

3.6.13 Commitment

Management must be committed to a quality culture. Management must be willing to support the introduction of new ways of doing things into the education system. Management must back up goals by providing the means to achieve those goals.

3.6.14 Responsibility

Put everyone in the school to work to accomplish the quality transformation. The transformation is everyone’s job.
Siu-Runyan & Heart (1992: 82) have also adapted Deming’s 14 principles to education, arguing that these principles that have revitalised Japanese industry, can form the basis for restructuring the education workplace as well.

3.7 THE CUSTOMERS OF EDUCATION

Since Total Quality Management is basically about meeting and exceeding customer expectations, it necessary to arrive at a clear understanding of the ‘product’ of education and who exactly are the customers of education. Langford & Cleary (1995: 39) argue that determining customer needs and expectations is critical to designing systems that will meet these needs and expectations. But none of this can happen without actually identifying who the customer is – a step often overlooked when organizations operate on assumptions about whom they serve rather than gathering data to create information. Sagor & Barnett (1994: 24) caution that mistakes on customer identification can have serious ramifications for quality.

The Deming philosophy teaches organizations to treat the people they serve as precious customers and to place customer satisfaction as the organization’s primary goal; to base decisions on carefully gathered statistical data about all facets of the operation; and to bring labour and management together and to keep them working closely together to find the best ways to get the job done (Rosen 1993: 238).

According to Robbins (2000: 9) customers are demanding quick service, high quality, and value for money. Quality is what the customer says it is. John West-Burnham (1997: 39) asserts that the quality organization exists for its customers and has no purpose other than providing products and services that satisfy customer needs. The commercial organization, which fails to meet its customers’ requirements, will rapidly go out of business. Kermally (1996: 39) is equally adamant that the cornerstone of TQM is customer satisfaction. Without a focus on customers, TQM becomes a futile and expensive exercise. Mohr & Mohr (1983: &) succinctly sum up the new definition of the customer by quoting Deming, ‘Your customer determines your quality, not you.’
In addition, Townsend & Gebhardt (1990: 1) make reference to Deming’s poignant question: ‘Who can put a price on a satisfied customer, and who can figure the cost of a dissatisfied customer?’ George & Weimerskirch (1994: 2) suggest that the new model of management should focus on, ‘not how much we are making, but on how well we are meeting our customers’ requirements’. Customer satisfaction determines real financial success. Whilst agreeing that we need to accurately identify our customers, George & Weimerskirch (1994: 32) argue that there are degrees of knowledge, and the greater the knowledge, the better the chances of satisfying customer requirements.

Shivarudrappa (1995: 12) in comparing industry to education, argues that where education has failed, is probably in the fact that unlike industry, it does not think in terms of the customer. Industry, with the profit motive in mind, cares about the consumer. We in education must ask ourselves, with our noble objective, just how much we care about our consumer – the student. Frazier (1997: 12) sees the customer as, ‘anyone who can potentially create a perception of the organization’.

Trott (1997: 176) talks about customer satisfaction as only an acceptable base line; the real aim and desire should be to ‘delight’ customers.

Trumbull (1994: 26) observes that a visible result of implementing TQM in educational institutions, is that it encourages teachers to view students as customers, and not as ‘helpless urchins who should be grateful for what they get’.

Leddick (1993: 77) argues that a clear view of the customer is essential to establish the purpose of the school. Without purpose we cannot explain why one course of action is appropriate and another inappropriate.

Sallis (1996: 20-21) argues that the product of education is an area of difficulty. There are a number of different candidates for it. The pupil or the learner is often spoken about as if they fulfil that role. In education we often talk as though learners are the output. However, for a product to be the subject of a quality assurance process, the producer needs firstly, to specify and control the source of supply. Secondly, the ‘raw material’ must pass through a standard process or set of processes, and the output must meet predetermined and defined specifications. Such a model does not easily fit
education. Such a model would clearly require an initial selection to be made, and this cannot be done in the public schooling system.

It is impossible to produce learners to any particular guaranteed standard. In support of this view, Sallis (1996: 21) quotes Lynton Gray (1992) “Human beings are notoriously non-standard, and they bring into educational situations a range of experiences, emotions and opinions which cannot be kept in the background of the operation. Judging quality is very different from inspecting the output of a factory, or judging the service provided by a retail outlet.” The idea of the learner as the product misses the complexities of the learning process and the uniqueness of each individual learner. In response to the question of what then is the product of education, Sallis (1996: 21) concludes that rather than answer this question directly; it is more helpful to view education as a service rather than a production line.

Service quality characteristics are more difficult to define than those for physical products. The reason is they include many important subjective elements. The cause of poor quality and quality failure are different for services and products. Products often fail because of faults in raw materials and components. Their design may be faulty or they may not be manufactured to specification. Poor quality services, on the other hand, are usually directly attributable to employee behaviours or attitudes. The different nature of service quality characteristic needs to borne in mind when discussing educational quality (Sallis 1996: 22).

Services differ from production in a number of important ways. There are major differences between delivering a service and manufacturing goods. The first difference between the two is that services usually involve direct contact between the provider and the end-users. Services are delivered directly by people to people. There is a close relationship between the customer and the person delivering the service. The service cannot be separated from the person delivering it. Every interaction is different, and the interaction, is in part, determined by the customer. The quality of the service is determined both by the person delivering and the person receiving the service. Time is the second important element of service quality. Services have to be delivered on time, and this is as important as their physical specification. Additionally, as a service is consumed at the moment of delivery, the control of its
quality by inspection is always too late. The close personal interactions found in services allow multiple opportunities for feedback and evaluation. The third difference is that unlike a product, a service cannot be serviced or mended. Therefore, the standard for services should be right first time every time. Fourthly, services face the problem of intangibility. It is often difficult to describe to potential customers exactly what is being offered. It is equally difficult, on occasions, for customers to describe what they want from the service. Services are largely about process rather than product. The fact that services are usually rendered directly to customers by junior employees is the fifth distinguishing feature of a service. Senior staff are generally remote from customers. Most customers never have access to senior managers. Lastly, it is very difficult to measure successful output and productivity in services. The only meaningful performance indicators are those of customer satisfaction. Intangibility makes it very difficult to turn around poor service, because it is sometimes impossible to convince dissatisfied customers that a service has changed for the better. Consumers judge quality by comparing their perceptions of what they receive with their expectations of it. Much of this is also true for education. Reputation is crucial to an institution’s success (Sallis 1996: 22-23).

It is therefore more appropriate to view education as a service industry than a manufacturing process. Public schools need to clearly indicate the service that they are providing and in terms of the prevailing realities, the standards to which they will be delivered. This needs to be carried out in conjunction with all stakeholders.

John West-Burnham (1997: 41) defines a customer as anyone to whom a product or service is provided. A customer is therefore defined in terms of relationships and processes rather than relative status, role or function He distinguishes between two types of supplier-customer relationships, and these are depicted in the figure that follows.
(A) Traditional supplier-customer relationship

(B) Quality supplier-customer relationships

Figure 3.1 (A), caricatures the traditional customer relationship in education—passive recipients being talked about rather than listened to. It is symptomatic of a failure to perceive customer needs and expectations. Figure 3.1 (B), depicts the quality supplier-customer relationships. Customers can be both internal and external. This is further clarified in Figure 3.2 where a practical example of the customer-supplier relationship involved in organising a class trip to the museum, is provided.
The implications of this model are:

- Everyone is a supplier and a customer.
- There are equal responsibilities on suppliers and customers.
- Work processes have to be defined in terms of customers and suppliers.
- It may be helpful to differentiate between internal and external customers and suppliers but not to discriminate in levels of service.
- Supplier-customer 'chains' may be of variable length but this cannot be used as an excuse to compromise the process (John West-Burnham (1997: 41)).

In order to ensure the integrity of the chain, a significant amount of analysis is required to establish who exactly is involved. Unless this first step is taken, quality will be problematic.
Figure 3.2 shows the supplier-customer relationship involved in organising a class trip to a museum. Unless all the participants are identified, it will be impossible to identify all requirements and so, impossible to provide quality service. If one component is missing, then the information flow will be incomplete and the trip will probably not take place. In this example, parents might be regarded as the 'final' customer and their needs therefore determine the whole process. In order to make the process a quality one, the needs of the final customer have to be clearly understood and expressed in such a way as to inform the design and delivery of the process (John West-Burnham (1997: 41-42).

Murgatroyd & Morgan (1993: 49) caution that customer-driven quality is more difficult to locate in the work of the school, although it does occur. In general, many school managements do not see the perspectives of the students as relevant and worth taking into account. They have not started thinking of their learners as customers whose views can be valid inputs to improving the quality of school performance. Murgatroyd & Morgan (1993: 50) provide a number of characteristics of what they believe to be customer-driven quality:

- Customers can define (if helped and encouraged to do so) their expectations clearly.
- Customer expectations and requirements sometimes differ from those assumed by the providers of services.
- When providers and customers work collaboratively to define requirements, and the services that will meet these requirements, performance can be improved.
- Not all customers think alike about their expectations and requirements, but initiatives that satisfy the needs of significant numbers of stakeholders can be taken.

Customer-driven quality requires providers of services to be constantly enquiring as to the needs of stakeholders and to do so in such a way that stakeholders can see their ideas, concerns and suggestions being implemented on a regular basis.

Downey, Frase & Peters (1994: 27) make out a strong case for customer involvement in:

- Partnerships
• Setting goals
• Giving real-time feedback
• Allocating resources.

Schargel (1994: 3) distinguishes between internal and external customers in education. Some of the internal customers are the employees, learners and their parents. External customers include colleges, technikons, universities, businesses, industry, and the community at large.

Lewis Jr (1993: 18) argues that effective school organizations should seek not only to meet customer expectations, but should strive to go the extra mile and delight the customers. He cautions against any strategy based solely on a school organization’s perception of its customers’ needs as it is not likely to measure accurately what customers really want or what they think of current services or products. He therefore, suggests that every school organization should have a wide range of methods for obtaining and assessing customer feedback.

In providing a range of methods for obtaining and assessing customer feedback, Greenwood & Gaunt (1994: 32) suggest the need for a positive approach to marketing the school. They argue that marketing is often incorrectly equated to increased and/or intensive promotion and selling, which is why many educationalists disagree with it in principle. But, in reality, the primary focus of any marketing-orientated organization entails identification, anticipation and satisfaction of customer needs and requirements. Satisfaction of these needs and requirements is achieved through the provision of quality. Some of the more effective and useful methods of market research are:

• Questionnaires – a useful way of collecting information. Sound information can be acquired about the strengths and weaknesses of the school as perceived by the parents. Data is used to embark on improvement programmes.
• Interviews – may be used in both formal and informal ways in order to gather information. Interviews allow for probing to establish real needs.
• SWOT Analysis – is based upon the perceptions of the staff and the customers of an organization. They are asked to list what, in their opinions, are the
strengths, weaknesses, opportunities and threats, and their responses are collated. The most frequently listed factors are then addressed. An example of the results which may be obtained for a school is shown in the table below.

**WYEB SECONDARY SCHOOL**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th><strong>STAFF PERCEPTIONS</strong></th>
<th><strong>CUSTOMER PERCEPTIONS</strong></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>STRENGTHS</strong></td>
<td>Caring motivated staff</td>
<td>Good exam results</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Supportive head</td>
<td>Pleasant atmosphere</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Smallish class sizes</td>
<td>Smallish class sizes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Extra-curricular activities</td>
<td>Sports facilities</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>WEAKNESSES</strong></td>
<td>Inconsistent discipline procedures</td>
<td>No strict rules on uniform</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>State of fabric of building</td>
<td>Making phone contact in morning</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Lack of career development</td>
<td>Pupils not extended enough</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Links with governors</td>
<td>Ageing staff</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>OPPORTUNITIES</strong></td>
<td>Adult learners</td>
<td>Widen community links</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Letting of premises</td>
<td>Industry links</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>New technology</td>
<td>Develop more languages</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Creche on site</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>THREATS</strong></td>
<td>Competitor schools</td>
<td>Shortage of specialist staff</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Difficulty recruiting staff</td>
<td>Effect of national policies</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>High cost of current staff</td>
<td>Resource shortages</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Lack of management vision</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**TABLE 3.2 SWOT Analysis (Greenwood & Gaunt 1994: 39)**

The school needs to capitalize on its strengths and opportunities and devise plans on how to overcome weaknesses and address threats in a creative fashion.

Bonstingl (1996: 35) contends that as with other fiscally based enterprises, schools are in business to satisfy their customers and to maximize opportunities to serve and
delight them. Every thriving business must satisfy the needs of not only external customers (those who buy and use the organization’s product or service), but also internal customers (people within the organization who help create the service or product and those who are affected by their work). Within an organization, all workers must collaborate with their suppliers – the people who provide the materials used in the production process – to make sure the suppliers’ work meets the internal customers’ specific needs. Everyone inside every organization is a supplier as well as a customer, and therefore chains and networks of partnership and mutual support (external as well as internally) must be built to optimise the effectiveness of the organizational system.

Bonstingl makes reference to ‘Schools of Quality’. In Schools of Quality, and also in their communities, everyone is both a customer and a supplier. A clear, personalised understanding of these roles is essential for optimal systemic improvement to take place. The schools’ customers are, primarily, the learners and their families. They are, or should be, the main beneficiaries of the schools’ work. As trustees of young learners, parents are initially primary customers of their children’s school, but as children grow and mature, parents necessarily make the transition to secondary customers of the school, enabling their children as primary customers of the school to take control of their own educational journeys. Parents and families, as suppliers to the school, entrust their tax monies and their children to the schools’ care. It is the responsibility of the Schools of Quality and their communities to work with parent-family suppliers to optimise children’s potentials to benefit from the learning processes provided at school. Learners working alongside their teachers, are not only the primary customers of the schools, but also the schools’ frontline workers. Learners, as workers, produce their own continuous improvement of abilities, interests, and character. Their main focus must be the constant, authentic, and long-term improvement of self and others, rather than the acquisition of grades and other symbols of short-lived learning.

Educator-learner teams are the customers of the school administrators, who are the suppliers of a learning environment and educational context in which human potential is maximised and barriers to learners’ and educators’ pride and joy in working together are eliminated from the processes of the system.
Bonstingl concludes that school leaders, who spend time and other resources developing highly personalised customer-supplier relationships inside and outside of the school building, reap abundant rewards in terms of the continuous improvement of the system and its processes (Bonstingl 1996: 35-38).

Lockwood (1994: 32) makes reference to Tribus' assertion that quality in education is what makes learning a pleasure and a joy. Some measures of student performance may be increased by threats, by competition for grades or prizes, but the attachment to learning will be unhealthy. It takes a quality experience to create an independent learner. The purpose that drives the quest for quality is crucial. We must aim to create autonomous learners who will be motivated to seek quality for themselves.

It is important for a school to engage in strategies to improve customer service. John West-Burnham (1997: 46-52) isolates the following strategies that are appropriate to schools:

### 3.7.1 CONFORMANCE TO REQUIREMENTS

This is at the heart of quality management. In essence it means that the service provided is fit for the purpose intended, i.e. it meets the needs of the customers. There are many potential applications of this principle in schools:

- Reporting on progress to parents: the information is expressed in such a way as to be comprehensible and comprehensive.
- Purchase of textbooks: they are relevant, up to date, written at an appropriate level with a suitable format.
- Classroom organization: facilities and resources are easily available.

West-Burnham (1997: 46) contends that conformance to requirements does raise significant questions about the delivery of the curriculum. If the needs of the individual learner are considered the starting point for identifying customer needs, then a number of issues emerge:

- The need to relate learning strategies to individual ability.
• The flexible use of time to allow appropriate pacing and completion of integrated units of study.
• Deployment of the full range of teaching strategies from the most didactic to the most flexible, to be determined by need not by ideology.
• Reviewing the role of the teacher as controller and emphasizing the role of the facilitator.
• Questioning teaching the ‘class’ when individual outcomes are the determinants of educational success.
• Recognition of the importance of intellectual and social skills development being reflected in the organization of learning.
• Ensuring that marking and assessment are formative rather than summative.
• Programming options to ensure that individual rather than system needs are met.

3.7.2 CONTINUOUS IMPROVEMENT

In terms of customer satisfaction, continuous improvement means that suppliers are constantly concerned with adding value. There is an obsession with enhancing and improving every process. This is where professional expertise and development are so important. It is the professional skills and knowledge of educators and managers in schools that are the principle source of this process (West-Burnham 1997: 48). Continuous improvement is what the Japanese call kaizen, a never-ending journey of improvement for oneself, one’s family and friends, workmates, community and ultimately the world (Bonstingl 1996: 39).

Bonstingl (1996: 39) further argues that rather than encourage students to explore hidden talents and to build on previous successes and understandings, current practices at schools focus on student failures, inadequacies and limitations. While many traditional schools view learning as a collection of linear, consecutive segments of one-way communication, Schools of Quality view the learning process as a spiral, with students’ and teachers’ energies directed towards unlimited, continuous improvement, as depicted in the diagram that follows:
3.7.3 RESPONSIVENESS

This is one of the most tangible expressions of customer satisfaction orientation. It means rapid response to complaints and requests: the telephone is answered promptly, letters are replied to within a specified time period, and more importantly, there is a tangible and personal response to the customers’ terms. In the classroom, it means creating the situation where children feel able, and are encouraged, to express concerns which are dealt with. It also means that ideas and suggestions are incorporated rapidly in order to improve classroom and school processes (West-Burnham 1997: 49).
3.7.4 INTEGRATION

Customers are fully integrated into the organization. This means that possible customer response is the baseline criterion in every decision making process and that customers are physically incorporated into activities. The key features underpinning parental involvement in a public school are:

- The high level of respect for and the valuing of parents.
- The high level of information exchange and genuine consultation.
- Shared decision-making; support and training of parents.
- Access for all parents and care givers regardless of personal circumstances, culture or language.

Genuine integration means that customers will be able to see tangible outcomes of their involvement rather than a token acknowledgement (West-Burnham 1997: 49).

3.7.5 FOCUS ON DELIVERY

The quality organization centres all its resources on those in direct contact with the customer. In the case of schools, this is obviously the classroom teacher. The focus for concern, support and development has to be those who actually deliver. Their development must be the central priority and the way in which the school is managed should reflect the importance of the classroom teacher. They are the management team’s most important internal customers (West-Burnham 1997: 50).

One of the best ways of achieving customer satisfaction is to ensure that those with whom customers come into contact have the skills to be able to respond to and confide in senior management. This requires support, praise, recognition, thanks and trust. In practical terms, it means direct and immediate support for teachers in the classroom, budgeting so as to maximise resources at the focal point of the school and the provision of quality in-service education to meet classroom needs.
Practical ways of keeping a sharp focus on delivery, that is, emphasising the centrality of pupil learning, include:

- Putting learning on the agenda of every meeting.
- Setting up coaching, peer support, teaching partnerships in order to explore learning and teaching strategies.
- Making learning significant by it being the central theme of the majority of in-service education and training sessions.
- Encouraging all staff and students to keep learning journals – to reflect on what has been learned and, more importantly, how it was learned.
- Building in review to every process – at the end of every lesson, day, project or meeting, a quick and simple review can be carried out.
- Publicly celebrating examples of success to help create a shared understanding and to reinforce the core purpose of the school

### 3.7.6 LISTENING TO THE CUSTOMER

Quality customer service can only be achieved through listening. Delivering quality customer service is a matter of acknowledging the uniqueness of each customer, treating them with respect and listening to them (West-Burnham 1997: 52).

### 3.8 SUMMARY

The brief history helped to contextualise the quality movement. The principal stance of the quality gurus is illuminating. The various viewpoints presented capture the essence of the debate as to whether TQM an industrial theory, is relevant to the public sector in general, and the education sector in particular. The application of Deming’s quality principles to the education sector is particularly revealing. Finally, a clear
understanding of the customer-supplier relationship has been arrived at. This is important as meeting or exceeding the customer’s expectations is central to Total Quality Management. The next chapter deals with what exactly constitutes a quality culture, as well as some of the main ingredients of Total Quality Management are discussed. The main tools required to ensure the quality transformation are presented.
CHAPTER FOUR

THE QUALITY CULTURE AND THE TOOLS OF TOTAL QUALITY MANAGEMENT

4.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter explores the conditions that should prevail in order to create a climate conducive to the implementation of Total Quality Management. If the climate or culture that prevails at schools is not appropriate, then the principles of TQM will have limited impact. There is a need to identify the factors that favour the implementation of total quality management in schools. In addition, the tools that are necessary to promote the quality drive are discussed. Finally, case studies of the successful implementation of TQM are presented for critical consideration. Apart from one local private school, all the other cases are examples of public schools implementing TQM under a variety of conditions.

4.2 WHAT CONSTITUTES A QUALITY CULTURE?

Culture is the product of the shared values, beliefs, priorities, expectations and norms that serve to inform the way in which an organization manifests itself to the world. For example, IBM’s basic beliefs are:

- Respect for the individual
- Best customer service
- Pursuit of excellence

In turn, these beliefs are operationalized in terms of strategy and customer values. In simple terms, culture provides a framework to explain ‘the way things are done around here’ (Omachonu & Ross 1994: 31).

A quality school is restless, constantly questioning, never satisfied, challenging norms and believing that things can always be better. Quality management requires a belief in an infinite capacity for improvement of organizations, processes and people. Schools manage the most complex process of continuous improvement – the growth
of children’s learning. The central theme of a quality culture is continuous improvement – the organization is totally committed to improving all aspects of every activity. There is never a time when there is nothing to be improved; everything is capable of further refinement, further reduction of error and greater customer satisfaction (West-Burnham 1997: 95-98).

Organizations pursuing Total Quality Management attempt to eliminate non-value-adding activities, simplify communication flows, speed up decision-making, and encourage participation and employee involvement. The structural implications for these changes are to streamline and eliminate unnecessary layers of middle management, which creates a flatter organization (Bounds, Dobbins & Fowler: 298).

According to West-Burnham (1997: 98-99) the quality approach can manifest itself in terms of five components:

- **Structure** – the structure of total quality is defined as a chain of customers. Quality is integrated into all aspects of the organization.
- **Focus** - there is an unequivocal recognition that the organization exists to serve the customer; it has no other justification. The primary purpose of each job is customer satisfaction.
- **Communication** – quality organizations give priority to high-quality communication, stressing the importance of a constant two-way dialogue. Communication is open, frank and purposeful.
- **Style** – everyone in the organization is obsessed with quality; it permeates language, working procedures and is the criterion used in every activity. High expectations are the norm and are made explicit.
- **Responsiveness** – meeting customer needs, as they are expressed, is what the organization exists to do. The emphasis is on prevention not inspection, on delighting the customer by providing superior service and on continuous improvement.

The values of a TQM culture emphasize the importance of trust, open communication, willingness to confront problems, openness to change, and adaptability. Further, in a TQM culture, these values are directed towards the strategic purpose of aligning people, processes, and resources to create value for customers. With Total Quality, strong culture becomes an asset. It inspires and demands continuous improvement for
strategic purposes. A strong Total Quality culture provides a customer-focused vision with which people more readily identify. It is more compatible with people’s general value systems (Bounds, Dobbins & Fowler: 372).

Hoy & Sabo (1998: 100-101) conducted research on school climate and overall school effectiveness. They posited that if schools were to be successful, they must develop a strong, shared identity; one that embraces the values of trust, authenticity, cooperation, and shared participation. The empirical results that linked each of these elements of culture with indicators of quality schools supported the proposition. In terms of their empirical findings, the index of strong school culture correlated significantly and substantially with teacher openness, principal openness and health. Moreover, the index was related to student achievement in reading, writing and mathematics, and strongly related to overall effectiveness. Their final conclusion was that strong school cultures have open and healthy school climates.

Sarji (1995: 27) contends that developing leadership, building high performance teams, mastering performance management, willingness to change and a commitment to total quality change are possible and feasible value systems that we can leave behind for posterity.

4.3 SOME OF THE INGREDIENTS OF A TOTAL QUALITY MANAGEMENT CULTURE

There are a number of ingredients that contribute to the creation of a total quality management culture in schools. Some of the main ingredients are:

4.3.1 VISION

A true vision must provide a clear image of a desirable future – one that represents an achievable, challenging, and worthwhile long-range target towards which people can direct their energies (Snyder, Dowd & Houghton 1994: 18).

To Roland Barth (1993) a vision is:

‘… a kind of moral imagination which gives school people, individually and collectively, the ability to see their school not only as
it is, but as they would like it to become. It is an overall conception of
what educators want their school to stand for, a map revealing how all
the parts fit together, and above all how the vision of each individual is
related to the collective vision of the organization.'
(Sagor & Barnett 1994: 11).

Before any success occurs in an organization, it is preceded by a great deal of hard
work, which is motivated by a powerful sense of vision. Murgatroyd & Morgan
(1993: 79) refer to Polak's (1973) assertion that 'significant vision precedes
significant success'. Vision refers to the over-arching concept or guiding force to
which the school is working and aiming and which finds expression in an economical
vision statement. The vision concept and statement should be seen to embody two
components: a guiding philosophy and a tangible image.

Successful TQM implementation involves key persons in an organization – usually
those with designated leadership roles – having a strong and compelling shared
vision, which they encourage others to regard as their own. Once the vision for the
future of the organization is widely shared and begins to penetrate all aspects of the
organization’s activities, then the vision begins to be a reality. A vision of a school
that is all-embracing and is dedicated to exceeding the expectations of consumer
stakeholders in such a way as to achieve quality and success, can serve as a powerful
motivator (Murgatroyd & Morgan 1993: 80).
Frazier (1997: 28) adds that once a shared vision emerges, people feel they have a
stake in its fulfilment and are committed to its realisation because their own personal
visions are reflected in it.

When a school seeks to become powerfully effective in achieving objectives, it does
so by creating a climate or culture in which the range of shared values is high and
commitment to these values translates into innovation and the effective use of scarce
resources. There are few hidden agendas and cliques in such organizations. Risk-
taking occurs because teachers and administrators within the organization know what
it is they are each trying to achieve and how these individual achievements will fit
into the vision for it as a whole. Those who use the school as consumers or provide it
with resources and services, each have the same understanding of what it is the school
is working towards and what this represents for them. The vision is the shared image
of fundamental purpose. What is important is that the vision statement embraces the

hopes and aspirations of all associated with the organization (Murgatroyd & Morgan 1993: 81-83).

Murgatroyd & Morgan (1993: 83) assert that the first function of a vision is to inspire. In support they quote Whitely (1991) who suggests:

' A truly integrated and permeating vision energises people and can resurrect disgruntled, routinised, burned-out employees. It provides true challenge and purpose. It makes each person feel that he or she can make a difference to the world. It becomes a rallying cry for a just cause – their cause.'

Senge (1990: 227) adds that visions spread because of a reinforcing process of increasing clarity, enthusiasm, communication and commitment. As people talk, the vision grows clearer. As it gets clearer, enthusiasm for its benefits builds.

It is vitally important for the school to have a clear vision to inspire all role players. To achieve this outcome, everyone involved with the school must be included in the development of a sense of vision and should be encouraged to articulate the meaning of the vision to them personally, once it has been developed.

Scheetz & Benson (1994: 77) remind us that parents and other community members are important stakeholders in the vision and desired results of a school. In many ways, the support and understanding of the parents is as important as the commitment and the follow-through of the staff. Involvement of representatives from the parent community groups in both personal visioning and development of a shared vision is wise and appropriate.

The vision should become a basis for encouraging, enabling, empowering and developing the staff of the school, and should be regarded as the cornerstone for all actions in the school. The vision statement should also act as a cornerstone for decision-making. Before action, one should ask how the act would contribute to the vision of the school. Another function of a vision statement is to enable all in the school to find common points for focusing energy to achieve sustainable quality improvements (Murgatroyd & Morgan 1993: 83-84).
In light of the foregoing, school management teams need to:

- Bring about the existence of a vision.
- Communicate the vision constantly in all aspects of the work of the school.
- Set goals which are clearly and strongly vision-related.
- Embody the vision in their day-to-day behaviour as a team.

(Murgatroyd & Morgan 1993: 84).

4.3.2 MISSION

There is a need to translate the vision and values, which inform the management of a school into a public and shared statement, which is a public commitment to the core purpose. Such a statement is usually referred to as the mission. The mission statement serves a number of practical purposes:

- It characterises the school to its community.
- It provides a sense of direction and purpose.
- It serves as a criterion for policy making.
- It sets the school culture.
- It generates consistency of action.
- It identifies clients.
- It serves to motivate and challenge (West-Burnham 1997: 79).

West-Burnham (1997: 79-80) further argues that the mission statement serves as a platform for action. The mission statement makes explicit, the values of a school and therefore does much to indicate the expectations as to what the culture of the school should be. This in turn facilitates the development of operating procedures that translate principles into practice. Mission statements inform the writing of objectives, which will inform budgetary planning, staff development and curriculum planning. The mission statement also needs to specify clients so that the responsibility to provide a quality service is a permanent feature of activity in the school. It must be rooted in a number of fundamental components, as expressed in the figure that follows.
The important feature of ‘futures thinking’ is to avoid a short-term approach or incremental planning. Futures thinking helps to create a vision about a desired state. West Burnham (1997: 80) observes that surprisingly few schools are clear and confident about what their core purpose is. Whatever a school identifies as its core purpose, the central element is likely to focus in some way on the learning process.

In the public sector, an institution’s mission determines the social and political reason for its existence. This means that there must be an identifiable social or political need which the institution is trying to meet. The mission should be in accordance with the aims set out in the policy formulated by the legislative authority. The input of all role-players in the strategic management process must be obtained to establish a basis for formulating the institution’s mission (Du Toit, Van der Waldt, Bayat & Cheminais 1998: 223).

Downey (1994: 234) poses interesting questions – ‘Does the commitment to the mission endure? Is there a sense of mission in everyday activities over time?’ She points out that many competing values in a school system can move an organization away from the mission. All too often, the commitment to the ultimate consumer – the student and each student’s learning – wavers. Therefore, the administrator’s real challenge is to create a living, breathing zeal for the mission.
Maintaining a constancy of purpose environment demands a lot of energy. It is not easy, but Downey offers the following strategies:

- In every situation, ask whether this action, activity, thought, or behaviour helps add value to students and their learning.
- For each decision point, ask staff and other stakeholders to question whether this answer helps fulfil the mission.
- Seek opportunities to coach and influence others to think about and take steps to achieve the mission.
- Revisit the mission statement regularly to revitalise employee commitment; ask individuals to check their work groups and their own activities for alignment with the mission.
- Ask groups and individuals to identify critical success factors that will help achieve the mission.

West-Burnham (1997: 82) contends that the process of producing a mission statement is as significant as the statement itself. The level of involvement, consultation and shared decision-making will do much to make the statement operative. Therefore, considerable care has to be exercised in managing the process of developing a mission statement.

By way of summary, Herman & Herman (1994: 124) advise that in general, a mission statement should be a tightly written, rather short, and easily understood statement of the primary focus of the school.

**4.3.3 PLANNING**

Planning is a basic management function which helps institutions to keep up with change and which management can use to determine in advance what the institution should achieve. The purpose of a plan is to facilitate the achievement of an institution’s purpose, mission and objectives. Planning is therefore aimed at determining future circumstances and identifying the measures needed to realise them (Van der Waldt & Du Toit 1999: 181-182).
According to Omachonu & Ross (1994: 60) most successful companies will attribute their progress to a quality-based strategy that was developed through a formal structured approach to planning. The total quality concept must be viewed as a pervasive operating strategy for managing a business.

Herman (1993: 30) distinguishes between strategic planning and tactical planning. Strategic planning is long-term planning to achieve the preferred future vision for the organization and its component parts, activities and programmes. Strategic planning focuses on the desired results, or the *whats* of achievement. In contrast, tactical planning focuses on the means or the *hows* of achieving the desired strategic goals or results. This planning deals with the details of operation.

According to George & Weimerskirch (1994: 45-47) the function of strategic planning in the new management model is to align all the efforts of the organization to customer satisfaction, quality and operational performance goals. The organization’s strategic planning process involves translating its vision into action plans. The plans will reflect what customers need and expect, and what suppliers are able to provide and support. Sagor & Barnett (1994: 2) add that rather than simply being a planning process, strategic planning is meant to create results-based, action-oriented plans that can be implemented, measured, and refined over a 3 to 5 year time frame. *This* is the approach advanced by TQM thinking. Because it is systematic and ongoing, strategic planning can assist school leaders and teachers in making informed decisions about how to commit resources towards established goals and priorities.

In the view of West-Burnham (1997: 90), no school will achieve quality management through rhetoric and exhortation; values are only given reality through action, and managing is about action rather than contemplation. A mission statement is only valid when it is part of a planning process which translates aspirations into activity and helps each individual see his or her actions contribute to the attainment of the school’s purposes. Planning, therefore, has to integrate the mission statement into a process, which allows individuals to plan and prioritise their own work, so that school needs and individual activity are harmonised.

Roberts (1994: 25) advises that the school needs to decide jointly on its priorities and focus its collective energies on ensuring that these priorities become the successful
parts of the whole. This brings the school to its action planning stage. School development plans are a means of best managing development and change, to make the school more effective: a method of enabling the school to ‘organise what it is already doing and what it needs to do in a more purposeful and coherent way’.

The key process in Figure 4.2 is vectoring – moving from the general to the specific, the abstract to the concrete, and the common to the personal. It is only when individuals are able to participate in the setting of specific targets that measurable outcomes will occur.

![Diagram of Mission Statement, Objectives, and Targets](image)

**FIGURE 4.2 Mission and Planning (West-Burnham 1997: 90)**

The interconnection of mission statement, development planning and target setting is demonstrated in Figure 4.3

![Venn Diagram of Mission Statement, Development Planning, and Target Setting](image)

**FIGURE 4.3 Mission, Planning and Targets (West-Burnham 1997: 91)**
In the illustrated process each component feeds off the other. They are interdependent and inadequacy on the part of one will compromise the other two. At the critical point where the three coincide, there is quality in action with values directly influencing behaviour.

Cuttance (1997: 16) asserts that one of the key processes bringing accountability and development together is strategic planning. Schools develop their own plans for development – these are known as school development plans. School development plans are a statement of the key programmes and activities that the school wants to change or improve (objectives); how these improvements are to be achieved (strategies); and what their impact will be (outcomes); to improve learning outcomes for students. Action plans are developed by the school to address the objectives stated in the school development plan. The processes by which school development plans identify their objectives and implement them are crucial to their success. The objectives themselves and the implementation process must focus as directly as possible on increasing educational outcomes for students.

In the context of quality management, development planning has to be client driven. The mission statement has to be placed firmly at the outset of the planning process and requires constant reference to it as the criterion for acceptability and prioritisation. Equally important is that the planning cycle harmonises all components of the management process (West-Burnham 1997: 91). George & Trigg (1994: 236) make out a strong case for processes to be customer sensitive.

West-Burnham (1997: 91-92) identifies the following principal stages in the planning process:

- Setting objectives: translating the broad imperatives of the mission statement into specific outcomes which are attributed to individuals, set within a defined timescale and with clear performance indicators.

- Allocating resources: ensuring that financial, physical and personal resources are attributed to each objective so as to ensure that it is attainable.
• Implementation: this requires translation of objectives into specific actions by individuals. For this to happen these actions need to be defined in concrete terms with appropriate training and development if necessary. Implementation may be by individuals or through teams.

• Monitoring and evaluation: if objectives have been appropriately written, then monitoring is a simple exercise; if performance indicators are written in sufficiently concrete and specific terms, then failure or success will be immediately apparent. Evaluation is carried out in terms of the mission statement - that is the extent to which the objectives have enhanced compliance with stated purposes.

Berry (1995: 49) concludes that if school development planning is managed well, a wide range of benefits will accrue:

• A welding together of the staff group
• Involvement of the governing body in the planning process
• A sense of direction and achievement for all
• An affirmation of the school’s aims and objectives.

4.3.4 APPRAISAL, MONITORING, PERFORMANCE INDICATORS AND TARGET SETTING

Terms such as ‘success criteria’, ‘performance indicators’ and ‘target setting’ have recently gained currency in the world of education. This kind of language is traditionally associated with the culture of commerce and industry, and is viewed with suspicion by many educationalists. Those who hold this view argue that this kind of language implies an emphasis on formal accountability, on a product-centred view of the task at hand, and a preoccupation with quantifiable findings, whereas educational organizations are dealing not with a product but with the complex process of educating and developing people which cannot be represented in such relatively simple ways. There are many who view this apparent culture clash as irreconcilable. However, such a view often represents more a rejection of the language being used than a desire to be uncritical or unaccountable. Good professionals are invariably

Fitz-Gibbon (1996: 5) defines a performance indicator as an item of information collected at regular intervals to track the performance of a system. He further draws a distinction between performance indicators and compliance indicators. Compliance indicators are checks as to whether some required features have been implemented. Performance indicators, on the other hand, need to be designed to reflect our understanding of how a system works. Monitoring means keeping track of the performance of a system, largely by the use of performance indicators focused on outcomes.

In response to the widespread concern for quality and in an attempt to meet the legitimate demands for accountability, national and international agencies have put considerable effort into investigating the utility and validity of educational indicators as a means for monitoring the performance of educational systems, as a mechanism for improving and reforming the provision of education, and as a basis for international comparability. Cohen & Spillane explain: ‘Educational indicators are seen as a way to improve education by improving decision making about education’ (Chapman & Aspin 1997: 109). Nuttall (1994: 17) adds that indicators are designed to give information to policy-makers about the state of the educational system, either to demonstrate its accountability or, more commonly, to help in policy analysis, policy evaluation and policy formulation. Indicators are important to rational policy analysis.

Appraisal is a fundamentally significant process in the context of quality management. Appraisal of managers and educators in schools has three essential purposes:

- Recognition and reinforcement of success and consolidation of effective practice.
- Diagnosis of professional development and training needs.
- Negotiations of personal targets which identify personal responsibility for the implementation of school objectives.
And the appraisal process is underpinned by:

- The allocation of appropriate resources of time, money, etc.
- The provision of appropriate training.
- The existence of clear criteria for acceptable performance.
  
  (West-Burnham 1997: 93).

Hopkins, West & Ainscow (1996: 53) argue for the need to ground policy decisions in data gathered. Too often elaborate policy-making processes are set up to validate the directions and priorities which school managers favour, rather than identify what is actually appropriate for the particular school. They attest to how powerful a contribution of accurate and thoughtfully analysed data can be to the decision making process – so long as it is drawn on to make decisions, rather than justify decisions.

Freeston (1994: 92) argues that in order to optimize the school’s mission, every aspect of its work should be critically self-evaluated. In schools, the obstacles to a self-evaluation process are considerable, given the public’s concern over learner performance and widespread pressure for school improvement.

According to Lewis, Jr (1993: 19) a system should be put in place to allow the school organization to determine systematically the degree to which school services please customers, and then focus on internal process improvement. In order to assure that processes are always improved, data should be collected and analysed on a continuous basis, with particular attention paid to variation in processes. The causes of variation are examined to determine if they result from special circumstances, such as failure of textbooks to arrive in time during an effort to improve reading achievement, or from recurring or common causes, such as teachers not being trained properly to begin a new reading programme. Different strategies should be adopted to correct each occurrence. The immediate objectives of the analysis and measurement efforts are to reduce re-work and waste, and to improve cost-effectiveness and accuracy. The ultimate objective, of course, is to ensure that all those operating within the school, understand the extent to which customer satisfaction is being realised. Appraisal enables the impact or effectiveness of the mission statement to be assessed. It provides a measure to see how the theory and principles are being put into practice.
4.3.5 LEADERSHIP

Leadership goes beyond the influence a person acquires with the formal authority he or she gets as the result of an appointment to a specific position. Leaders inspire other workers to take up new challenges and to achieve goals that they do not believe they have the capacity or motivation to achieve. Proper motivation within the organizational setting requires vibrant leadership skills from the public manager. Any failure in leadership ability will invariably lead to a demotivated workforce and to concommitant substandard service delivery. In essence, leadership is central to the success of any public institution (Du Toit, Van der Waldt, Bayat & Cheminais 1998: 181).

Leadership has the power to make or break an organization. Not management, but leadership. Leadership -- shared vision, shared values, and the courage to act on them is the difference between businesses that prosper over time and those that seem to just get by. Most organizations are overmanaged and underled. When leaders are more interested in looking good than in doing what is right and necessary, the results can be catastrophic (Snyder, Dowd & Houghton 1994: 15). Weaver (1992: 86) adds that managers, in the TQM view, need to become leaders who 'not only work in the system but also on the system'. This type of leadership is needed to ensure that production quality improves constantly and forever and truly satisfies the customer.

Whilst leadership is important in all organizations, appropriate leadership is a vital ingredient in Total Quality Management. Senge (1990) states that many of the problems that face organizations can be traced to lack of leadership. W.E. Deming (1998), leading advocate of Total Quality Management, is even more adamant about this point. He states that 85- 90% of the problems that an organization experiences are due to the lack of leadership. There is little reason to think that education is any different. If significant changes in schools are to occur, then it is imperative that those who are responsible for providing leadership in education possess the vision, knowledge, and skills that are needed to bring about the transformation (Bamburg, Internet).

Sallis (1996: 75) adds that leaders must have the vision and be able to translate it into clear policies and specific goals.
West-Burnham (1997: 112) supports this view, adding that without appropriate leadership no quality programme will work. Only dynamic leadership can create the commitment to drive the strategy. Leadership will serve as the most graphic example of what adopting a quality approach actually means in practice. Oakland (2000: 18) cautions that quality is too important to leave to the so-called ‘quality professionals’; it cannot be achieved on an organization-wide basis if it is left to the experts. The Chief Executive of an organization should accept the responsibility for and commitment to a quality policy in which he/she must really believe. Leadership needs to be totally committed to quality.

Freeston (1994: 92) adds that leaders of quality organizations must live and breathe the essence of quality. In every action they take, every decision they make, they are role models for the rest of the organization. In this respect, two of Deming’s fourteen points are critically important: constancy of purpose and self-evaluation.

In attempting to illustrate the importance of leadership in a quality institution, Sallis (1996: 75) makes reference to the research of Peters and Austin (1986) on the characteristics of excellence, for their book, *A Passion for Excellence*. Their research led them to conclude that the difference is leadership. They argue strongly for a particular style of leadership to lead the quality revolution; a style to which they have given the acronym, MBWA or ‘management by walking about’. A passion for excellence cannot be communicated from behind the office desk. MBWA emphasises both the visibility of leaders and their understanding and feeling for the front-line and the processes of the institution. This style of leadership is about communicating the vision and the values of the institution to others, and getting out among the staff and the customers and experiencing the service for themselves. Nutt (1995: 73) adds that strategic leaders are concerned with ‘walking the vision’. The leader must obtain the support of many people, and interest groups, both inside and outside the organization, to carry out transformation. St Clair (1997: 200) supports this view by making reference to Madu & Kuei (1995) who sum up: ‘Achieving total quality is not simple. A firm must undergo a transformation to change from its traditional management approach to total quality management. This transformation must be initiated by top management and be strategic in scope.’
Peters and Austin see educational leaders as needing the following perspectives:

- **Vision and symbols** – The Principal must communicate the institution’s values to the staff, learners and wider community.
- **‘Management by walking about’** is the required leadership style for any institution.
- **‘For the kids’** – this is the educational equivalent to ‘close to the customer’. It ensures that the institution has a clear focus on its primary customers.
- **Autonomy, experimentation, and support for failure** – educational leaders must encourage innovation among their staff and be prepared for the failure that inevitably accompany innovation.
- **Create a sense of ‘family’** – the leader needs to create a feeling of community among the institution’s learners, parents, educators and support staff.
- **‘Sense of the whole, rhythm, passion, intensity, and enthusiasm.’** – these are essential personal qualities required of the leader.

(Sallis 1996: 76).

Sallis (1996: 76) argues that the significance of leadership for undertaking the transformation to TQM should not be underestimated. Without leadership at all levels of the institution, the improvement process cannot be sustained. Commitment to quality has to be the prime role for any leader. It is for this reason that TQM is said to be a top-down process. It has been estimated that 80% of quality initiatives fail in the first two years because of a lack of senior management backing and commitment. To succeed in education, TQM requires strong and purposeful leadership.

Senior management must take the lead and provide vision and inspiration. In TQM organizations, all managers have to be leaders and champions of the quality process. They need to communicate the mission and cascade it throughout the institution. The function of leadership is to enhance the quality of learning and to support the staff who deliver it. While this sounds obvious, it is not always the way management functions are viewed. Traditional notions of status can lie uneasily with total quality approach. TQM turns the traditional institution on its head and inverts the hierarchy of functions. It empowers the teachers and can provide them with greater scope for initiative. It is for this reason that it is often said of TQM institutions that they require less management and more leadership (Sallis 1996: 77).
Daugherty (1996: 83) argues that the key ingredient in implementing a total quality system is obtaining a visible commitment from top management. He concludes that in cases where total quality efforts have been effective, top management support is considered the main reason for success; in instances where total quality programmes have been ineffective, a lack of top management support is judged to be the primary cause of failure.

In further support of the view of the importance of top management, Sarji (1995: 21) makes reference to Philip Crosby who says, ‘Teaching people, leading people, showing people, providing tools – everything loses meaning, if employers, customers and suppliers feel that management is not working like they talk’.

Lawler (1994: 69) adds that total quality management programme emphasize the importance of top management acting as the main driver of TQM activities. The reasons for this are multiple, but the most important focus is on the view that TQM is a culture, not just a programme. It is a culture in the sense that it tries to change the values of the organization and its employees as well as their behaviour in multiple areas. Top management support is thought necessary to assure that the right priorities are set and that commitment to the principles of TQM exist throughout the organization. The leader plays a vitally important role in developing a quality culture.

Sallis (1996: 77) summarises the functions of leadership in terms of quality as follows:

- Have a vision of total quality for his or her institution.
- Have a clear commitment to the quality improvement process.
- Communicate the quality message.
- Ensure that customer needs are at the centre of the institution’s policies and practices.
- Ensure that there are adequate channels for the voices of customers.
- Lead staff development.
- Be careful not to blame others when problems arise, without looking at the evidence. Most problems are the result of the policies of the institutions and not the failings of staff.
- Lead innovation within their institutions.
• Ensure that organizational structures clearly define responsibilities and provide the maximum delegation compatible with accountability and uninterrupted delivery.

• Be committed to the removal of artificial barriers whether they be organizational or cultural.

• Build effective teams.

• Develop appropriate mechanisms for monitoring and evaluating success.

In discussing quality and leadership, West-Burnham (1997: 132) distinguishes between knowledge, skills and behaviour. The Figure 4.4 shows the distinction.
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<tr>
<th>KNOWLEDGE</th>
<th>SKILLS</th>
<th>BEHAVIOUR</th>
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<tr>
<td>Individual motivation</td>
<td>Listening, Empathising</td>
<td>Constant reference to the vision. Values people and shows it</td>
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<td>Organisations as social systems</td>
<td>Giving feedback</td>
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<td>The school's environment</td>
<td>Questioning</td>
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<td>Learning styles</td>
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<td>Customer requirements</td>
<td>Analysing</td>
<td>Tolerance of ambiguity</td>
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<td>Development strategies</td>
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<td>Counselling</td>
<td>Celebration of work as fun</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Delegating</td>
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Total quality is fundamentally about improvement. Leadership in the quality organization has to be about transformation. The most effective leaders are those who are involved in change to facilitate organizational growth. Figure 4.4 summarises the components of leadership for changing organizations.
Sallis (1996: 78) points out that a key aspect of the leadership role in education is to empower teachers to give them the maximum opportunity to improve the learning of their students. In support, he makes reference to Spanbauer's (1992) plan for leadership to create a new educational environment. Spanbauer visualises a leadership style where leaders ‘must walk the quality talk and understand that change happens by degree, not by decree’. In examining the issue of leadership for empowerment, Spanbauer presents the following conclusions and recommendations:

- Involve teachers and all staff in problem-solving activities, using basic scientific methods and the principles of statistical quality and process control.
- Ask them how they think about things and how projects can be handled rather than telling them how they will happen.
- Share as much management information as possible to help foster their commitment.
- Ask staff which systems and procedures are preventing them from delivering quality to their customers – learners, parents, co-workers.
- Understand that the desire for meaningful improvement of teachers is not compatible with a top-down approach to management.
- Rejuvenate professional growth by moving responsibility and control for professional development directly to the teachers and technical workers.
- Implement systematic and continued communication among everyone involved in the school.
- Develop skills in conflict resolution, problem solving, and negotiations while displaying greater tolerance for and appreciation of conflict.
- Be helpful without having all the answers and without being condescending.
- Provide education in quality concepts and subjects such as team building, process management, customer service, communication and leadership.
- Model, by personally exhibiting desired characteristics and spending time walking around, listening to teachers and other customers.
- Learn to be more like a coach and less like a boss.
- Provide autonomy and allow risk-taking while being fair and compassionate.
- Engage in the delicate balancing act of ensuring quality to external customers (learners, parents, taxpayers), while at the same time paying attention to the needs of internal customers (educators, governing body members, and other co-workers).
In presenting the model, Figure 4.5, Murgatroyd and Morgan, argue that TQM demands a kind of leadership that is different from that which prevails in most schools today. They contend that TQM leadership requires a very different set of assumptions about management and the work of managers, the key points of which are:

- TQM leadership is about imagination, enabling and empowerment of the rank and file – not about status.
- The role of the TQM leader is to activate, coach, guide, mentor, educate, assist and support his or her colleagues so that they focus on a shared vision, strategy and set of intended outcomes.
• TQM visionary leaders realise that it is cost-effective to empower those nearest to a process, to manage that process themselves.
• TQM leaders concentrate on the whole picture and keep it at the forefront of people's thinking.
• TQM leaders also search for the small things that can make a critical difference.
• TQM leaders believe that challenges and fun go together – laughter is healing.

Aspin, Chapman & Wilkinson (1994: 21) are of the view that the many measures that have been introduced to allow for parents and representatives of the local community to take part in the management and decision-making in schools, in the name of pursuing and achieving quality, add to the complexities of the school leader's role. The new measures as outlined in the *South African School's Act* (84 of 1996) have been designed to promote greater empowerment of parents and local communities, in the belief that making the education system more responsive to community needs will make a major contribution to enhancing school effectiveness.

### 4.3.6 DECISION MAKING

Managers at all levels in an organization are involved in planning the future actions of the organization. Managers continually make decisions throughout each stage of planning and the effectiveness of their plans is determined largely by their decision-making skills. Decision-making can be defined as the process of making a choice among alternative courses of action. Managerial decision-making involves a conscious choice and is a deliberate process. By making a choice, a manager comes to a conclusion and selects a particular course of action that he feels might lead to the attainment of the organization's goals (Smit & Cronje 1992: 140).

Decision-making is the essence of a manager's job. While planning, organising, leading, controlling and coordinating are the basic functions of management, each of these involves decisions – decisions as to which plan to implement, what goals to use, etc. In almost every important decision, the outcome of the decision depends not only on the alternatives the manager chooses, but also on external events that are not under the manager's control (Du Toit, Van der Waldt, Bayat & Cheminais 1998: 207).
Bounds, Dobbins & Fowler (1995: 202-204) add that the decisions we make really reflect our best understanding of ourselves in relation to the situations in which we find ourselves at the time we make those decisions. Thus, the quality of our understanding of various situations will greatly influence the quality of our decisions and the subsequent actions we take. What becomes significant in the decision-making process is not the decision, but the way we make sense of all the things that impinge on that decision. All managers in making decisions will seek to ‘satisfice’ stakeholders as well as they can. ‘As well as they can,’ though, can mean different things to different managers. Sometimes managers make a decision quickly when they really should employ the process of rational decision-making in a more conscientious fashion, and, as a result, this diminishes the overall quality of their decisions.

Sometimes managers proceed to resolve a problem without a clear idea of their goals. TQM provides guidelines, tools, and techniques for managing a system efficiently and effectively. TQM principles and the idea of an organization as a system, also provide a context for understanding and dealing with the situations that managers confront daily. These principles help managers understand those situations and guide their decisions in figuring how an organization might attain positive results for all its stakeholders.

An important element associated with the principles of TQM centres on the building of high-trust relationships, a commitment to total employee involvement and the development of non-adversarial system of industrial relations. The programme emphasises total employee involvement and devolving greater decision-making to operative level employees. TQM programmes aim to create and sustain greater employee commitment and trust (Dawson & Palmer 1994: 163).

Chapman, Dunstan & Spicer (1996: 212) are of the view that the effectiveness of schooling is enhanced when a partnership is developed between parents, principal, staff and learners in a school community. Decision-making practices which variously draw on this partnership to establish the membership of decision-making groups, and which apply the benefits of that decision-making partnership across all functional areas of the school’s operation, lead to a strong sense of mutual support, a strengthening of purpose, a commitment to decisions made and an empowerment of participants.
TQM suggests several questions a manager might ask to get information that will lead to the best decisions for the organization and all its stakeholders. By getting answers to these questions, managers are more likely to have the information they need to achieve organizational success, or minimize the risk of failure. The following is a sample of questions derived from the principles of TQM:

- What are the underlying conditions in the organization that current problems may be symptoms of? (This question will help get at the fundamental causes of the problem).
- What changes can we make in our processes to prevent this problem from happening again? (This question will help managers fix the fundamental causes of a problem than simply alleviate a symptom).
- What factual data versus opinions do we have about this process and how well it works? (This question focuses all employees on gathering data rather than making guesses about a problem).
- Are these processes in statistical control? (By understanding if a process is in statistical control or not, managers can determine whether a problem has a special cause outside the system or is the result of a common cause within the system).
- How are our products and services designed to provide value to customers?
- Are managers working to make sure our processes are aligned with and capable of providing offerings that customers value?
- Have we given the employees the resources, training, and authority to solve problems that arise from conditions or processes they control before they become big problems?
- Do we know how the employees throughout different parts of the organization are working to accomplish the overall mission?
- Do we have methods in place that allow us to continually improve our processes and the quality of our offerings? (Bounds, Dobbins & Fowler, 1995: 204-206).

Asking these questions helps to keep a sharp focus on quality.

Superintendent Mike Walters of Tupelo, Mississippi, discovered the benefits of participatory management, and arrived at the conclusion that the power pie gets bigger every time you cut it. Walters was a ‘happy bureaucrat’, until he stumbled
upon participatory decision-making. Walters adopted Deming's concept of continuous improvement, which builds on the meaningful contributions of everyone in the organization. He provided teachers in the district of Tupelo an open invitation to 'reinvent' the schools. Walters' teacher-centred approach to reform, instilled an unmistakable pride in Tupelo's teachers. Teachers used their personal time, without extra compensation, to participate in staff development programmes. Participatory decision-making reached new heights (Rist 1993: 164-166).

Smit & Cronje (1992: 149) make mention of creativity in decision-making. Creativity is defined as the process of developing an idea or concept that is new, original, imaginative and useful. In today's complex environment, creative decisions are an essential ingredient to organizational survival. Botes (1994: 85) concludes that a public manager's decisions have far-reaching consequences that may be felt even in the most remote parts of the country. Thoroughness, efficiency and fairness must remain the cornerstone of good decision-making and the manager must carry out the role with courage.

4.3.7 COMMUNICATION

In the view of Du Toit, Van der Waldt, Bayat & Cheminais (1998: 200) the processing of information is a key part of a manager's job. In large part, communication lies at the heart of a manager's job.

Communication is defined as the exchange of information and understanding between two or more persons or groups. Without understanding between sender and receiver concerning the message, there is no communication (Omachanu & Ross 1994: 28). Oakland & Morris (1997: 50) point out that there are four principal ways of communicating: verbal, written, visual, and by example. Each has its own requirements, strengths and weaknesses. Good communication involves using the most appropriate medium. They add, that the first steps in a quality improvement programme are a statement from the top management and a directive, which are communicated to everyone so that they may understand the benefits of TQM for them.
Organizations where TQM is practised have cultures that promote open and complete sharing of information among all employees. When people have information spelling out what is going on, this eliminates rumours and speculation, and provides the details needed for people to identify with the organization, to have a common purpose and to work well together. Three of Deming's 14 Points for Management, directly address issues involving communication:

- **Create constancy of purpose.** Employees and managers can work best together when they have constancy of purpose that they all understand. A culture that values and facilitates open communication helps managers maintain constancy of purpose in a dynamic world that is constantly changing.

- **Drive out fear.** The source of fear for most people is uncertainty about their roles or what is going on in their environments. When people understand their roles and have information they need to perform well in contributing to organizational processes, this helps to eliminate uncertainty.

- **Break down barriers between departments.** Barriers arise in organizations when one group of people does not know what another is doing or exactly, how what that group does, is going to affect them. Clearly, open communication about processes and activities throughout the organization and the interrelationship among departments to execute organizational strategies is an important method for breaking down such barriers. (Bounds, Dobbins & Fowler, 1995: 496).

Smaby, Harrison & Nelson (1995: 310) undertook a study of the role of elementary school counsellors as total quality management consultants. They see the key to TQM as a total quality group within which skilled communicators show respect for other members, use effective influencing techniques, and understand group dynamics. They conclude that the school principal can get help from the school counsellor for leading the total quality group toward more effective group communication and decision making about quality and consumer satisfaction problems faced by the school. School counsellors can apply their counselling and group work skills to help their principal lead a total quality group. Total quality groups can be used by the counsellors to help schools address quality and consumer satisfaction issues that are so important to
school reform.

Downey, Frase & Peters (1994: 104-105) distinguish between traditional forms of communication, such as:

- I need to be heard.
- I need to criticize.
- My agenda must prevail.
- I must do many things quickly.

And transformed forms of communication, such as:

- We need to listen.
- We need to provide honest feedback
- Our agenda must be addressed.
- We must accomplish first things first.

There are numerous techniques, tools and activities that can help a team develop a communication culture based on mutual respect, openness, and honesty. Some of the basic tenets are:

- Ensure that each member of the team has a chance to be heard.
- Develop a shared knowledge base.
- Go slow to go fast.
- Listen with respect.


Whitaker & Moses (1994: 132) conclude that communication and collaboration flatten the organization and allow the leader to build shared vision through individual and small group contacts. Problem solving is enhanced and hastened. Face-to-face dialogue builds trust and engenders the loyalty needed to make it through turbulent times.

4.3.8 TEAMWORK

Teamwork is an essential component of the quality organization. The way teams are organised does have a major impact on the attainment of organizational goals.
Deming believes that all enterprises essentially succeed through teams and cooperation (Whitaker 1994: 227). Robbins (2000: 305) adds that teams are introduced worldwide as a means to increase productivity, quality and employer job satisfaction. A work team generates positive synergy through coordinated effort. Creech (1994: 12) contends that there is increasing recognition that how one organises, profoundly affects everything else, and that the team approach produces by far the best results. According to Weaver (1996: 205) to reach their full potential, teams must have two aims. The first is to increase organizational effectiveness through the continual improvement processes. The second aim of teams is to be a force for changing organizational culture. Weaver is of the firm view that teams are likely to achieve both of their aims when they practise and model Deming’s 14 points.

Frazier (1997: 23) is clear that continuous quality improvement requires an organization to break down barriers between people to create synergy for creative solutions. Group synergy, the power of two or more people to achieve a goal which is greater than each is individually capable of achieving, can produce creative solutions to divergent issues. People must be open to sharing their personal visions and come to realise that there is not necessarily one correct answer to a problem. The team concept also has a number of advantages for problem solving.

Mohr & Mohr (1983: 186) in making out a case for quality circles in the workplace, argue that teamwork through the quality circle process lessens workers’ feelings of separateness from others in the organization. Circle meetings can satisfy their need for affiliation and increase their sense of being important and useful to the total organization. In addition, the problem-solving process within teams gives them greater insight into the difficulties and constraints faced by supervisors and managers and a more realistic understanding of the manager’s role. As team members come to perceive themselves as an integral part of the organization, they develop a more participative and committed attitude towards it.

Hayward (1999: 10) has observed that in traditionally managed schools, new ideas largely emanate from the principal, executive staff and the Governing Body. In a quality-driven school, new ideas and possible solutions to challenge emanate from anyone who is able to make a positive contribution.
Lewis Jr (1993: 20) is of the firm view that the people closest to the problem usually have the best solutions. School people are an almost unlimited source of knowledge and creativity that can be used, not only to solve problems, but also to continuously improve the quality of services and products.

Lal (1994: 1-8) presents an Indian model for effective teamwork when he talks about quality circles for increased productivity, growth and employee satisfaction. In quality circles, Lal asserts that the emphasis is on democratic participation in the real sense. Quality circles, which are formed by employees themselves, have positively contributed to the quality of work-life of the people and effective organizational performance. Broadly speaking, a quality circle is a small homogenous group of employees working in the same work area, or doing similar type of work who voluntarily meet together on a regular basis to identify, select, analyse and solve, quality, productivity, cost reduction, safety and other work-related problems. The philosophy and modus operandi of quality circles is based on the finer values of team spirit among employees, trade unions, healthy management attitude and, above all, an organizational commitment of all those who have a stake in the organization. It teaches to respect humanity, to bring cohesiveness among isolated individuals and to give due recognition to the human factor for better achievements.

Whitaker & Moses (1994: 127) are clear that the effectiveness of teamwork is dependent on sustaining shared goals. Team building that is done in isolation of vision and goals will not produce better results in the short term or the long run. Teamwork comes down to increasing cooperation and interaction. Cooperation, in a school setting, means aligning actions in a coordinated fashion so as to accomplish bigger and more complex goals.

Sallis (1996: 80) argues that organizations, which become involved in TQM, discover the benefits of having effective teams at all levels. He points out that education institutions are, in the main, organised in teams to deliver the curriculum. This is an advantage, but to build an effective TQM culture, teamwork needs to be extended and must penetrate and permeate throughout the institution and be used in a wide range of decision-making and problem-solving situations. Teamwork needs to extend across all functions and should include both academic and support staff.
Trumbull (1994: 31) makes reference to Myron Tribus’ recounting of a statement made to him in Japan: ‘You promote and reward people for individual performance; we promote and reward people for getting other people to perform well’. This is, after all, the acid test of leadership.

Oakland (2000: 204) makes reference to the four main stages of team development:

- Forming – awareness
- Storming – conflict
- Norming – co-operation
- Performing – productivity

Whilst conceding that the teams in school serve as the major vehicle for organising work, West-Burnham (1997: 134) cautions that there is a substantial gap between labelling a group a team, and creating an effective work team which is able to function in a total quality environment. He observes that schools seem to be remarkably unwilling or unable to convert themselves into team-based organizations. Hendrix (1994: 232) contends that the ‘T’ in TQM should stand for teamwork. He points out that teamwork is much more than a group trying to accomplish something. It is a specific way of using a common process and structure to focus individual roles and efforts on achieving common objectives, thus the effectiveness of the group effort is greater than the sum of the individual efforts. Teamwork is everyone doing the right things, at the right time, in the right way, with the right resources.

Donaldson Jr (1994: 112) cautions about the hazards of teamwork. There is the danger that ‘groupthink’ can develop. Teams can arrive at ‘contrived collegiality’ and never arrive at true collaboration. Threatened principals can undermine efforts at working together. The transition from traditional patterns of problem solving and decision making to more collaborative ones is fraught with difficulties. Building collaborative cultures involves a long developmental journey; there are no shortcuts. Further, he warns that working collectively should not involve every teacher in more meetings that identify problems without showing promise of resolving some. It should not add more responsibilities onto teachers’ already heavy workloads. It should not expect educators to instantly function as a team without the group skills to do so.
In clarifying the role of project teams, Sallis (1996: 81) points out that teams are not just there to run things. While this is an important function of teams, they can also be used to achieve specific projects. *Ad hoc* and short-life project and improvement teams are the key elements in the delivery of quality improvements. Teams have the added advantage of involving the maximum number of people in the total quality process. Teams become the engines of quality improvement. It is useful to think of the TQM institution as a series of overlapping teams. Quality improvement works by a series of teams working on small incremental projects each of which is designed to solve a problem, improve an existing process or design a new one. The brief of each is usually limited because it is easier to achieve success with small and manageable assignments. Small projects that fail do not jeopardise the credibility of the whole process. The idea is that a series of small successful projects can add up to something much larger.

Teamwork, however, does not just happen. Training is often necessary. The members of the team have to learn to work together. Teams need nurturing and mentoring if they are to function well and give of their best. Teamwork needs to be based on mutual trust and established relationships. Only when a team has an identity and purpose can it deal effectively with its primary function. A team needs the roles of its members to be clearly defined and its purposes and goals clearly established. Further, in order to operate, a team needs to be provided with the basic resources and the appropriate tools to tackle problems and to arrive at solutions. In addition, a team needs to know its accountability and the limits of its authority. A team needs to develop beneficial team behaviour. Good communication within the team is essential (Sallis 1996: 82-86).

Figure 4.6 captures the essential components of teamwork.
The components of effective teams identified in the figure above provide the basis from which team training needs can be identified.

West-Burnham (1997: 139) identifies the following skills for effective teamwork:

- Listening
- Questioning
- Giving feedback
- Summarising
- Proposing ideas
- Building on suggestions
- Being open about feelings
- Assertiveness
- Collaborative decision-making
• Problem-solving
• Conflict resolution
• Time management
• Stress management
• Managing meetings
• Public speaking
• Written communication

Steyn (2000: 267) undertook a study of empowerment and teamwork in quality schools. She posits that more recent conceptions of educational leadership demonstrates a move away from traditional authoritarian models of decision making towards more collegial views on role relations between principals and their staff. Many educators maintain that total quality management (TQM) represents one such conception by providing a structured, systematic educational delivery system and a strategy to address quality in the education sector. The research involved a study of the empowerment of staff and teams in four schools in the Kenmore-Tonawanda district in the United States of America. These schools were selected for investigation because they had been awarded the prestigious New York State Governor’s Excelsior Award for Quality in the education sector. The respondents in this study indicated that as their teams have become more proficient at self-management, they have exerted an overall effect on the management of the entire school. This has resulted in higher standards and more efficient and effective utilisation of resources. The teams in the schools also proved to be successful because they operate in an open, constructive and non-threatening environment where team members are trusted. The idea of trust which is critical in team building was acknowledged by many respondents in the different schools.

In 1989, Christa McAuliffe Elementary School in Virginia, piloted a quality management programme with the help of the Xerox Corporation. The programme had three basic threads:

• Interactive skills – how to initiate, react to, and clarify ideas.
• Problem-solving skills – how to identify and analyse problems, collect and display appropriate data, and select, implement, and evaluate solutions.
• The quality improvement process - how to identify the customer, and how to plan, organize and monitor for quality.
This study concluded that teamwork is what makes quality management work at McAuliffe. The staff members most affected by decisions are those who help make them. Parents are also involved in quality management (Steyn 2000: 268).

Borges (1993: 20) in examining ways to manage an organization, concluded that competition prohibits cooperation between the school's workers and managers. Instead, management should emphasize teamwork as the best way to obtain quality. Sagor & Barnett (1994: 9-10) are firm in their belief that a TQM environment is characterised by all members of the work team feeling as though they are contributing to the decision-making process. They refer to the findings of Larson & La Fasto (1992) that provide helpful guidelines for principals who are using planning and action teams as part of the strategic planning process:

- Have a vision for what should or could be; enact change, and unleash the talents and energy of the team members.
- Make sure the team's goal is clearly specified, is personally challenging, and creates a sense of urgency.
- Help team members to establish clear roles and accountabilities, to create a system where individual performance is monitored and feedback is provided, and to use objective and factual information in making decisions.
- Select team members who possess the necessary technical skills, motivation to contribute to the task, and ability to collaborate, and who are dedicated to spending their personal time and energy to successfully complete the task.
- Assist team members in developing mutual trust so they can remain focused on the problem, use their time more efficiently, develop open lines of communication, and take over from one another when necessary.
- Provide teams with adequate human and material resources and publicly recognise their accomplishments.

The National Teaching Awards Booklet (2002: 15) concludes that: ‘The Ministry of Education trusts that all schools operate in a honest, transparent and democratic culture to improve the quality of education in South Africa.’
4.4 IMPLEMENTING TOTAL QUALITY MANAGEMENT IN PUBLIC SCHOOLS

Products and services that satisfy a customer do not happen by accident. Neither does total quality – it is greatness by design. It takes a lot of hard work. Careful planning, listening to the customer, teamwork, the involvement of everyone in the process, special training, systematic examination of ways to improve, performance measurement, and an *esprit de corps* that comes from people in the organization who feel appreciated. All of these factors need to build on each other and to be guided by shared vision of what is important and what is needed to achieve it (Lewis Jr 1993: 64). Diwan (1996: 90) adds that implementation of TQM strategic plan requires strict discipline, patience, cooperation, determination and the endurance of the entire organization. Proper systems are the foundation on which the implementation strategy of a TQM effort rests. Efforts in implementing TQM in schools require a plan. Fields (1993: 91) suggests that the PDSA cycle should be the model for such an enterprise.

**FIGURE 4.7 The PDSA Cycle (Fields 1993: 32).**
The PDSA cycle ensures awareness of the participants, ownership by them, a structure to follow, a process for implementing pilots, and a pivotal point for review and recycling. A plan is necessary to increase the critical mass of people who understand, accept, and use the information. Further, a good TQM plan will be proactive to clearly define everyone's role and to recognise people for quality improvement achievements (Fields 1993: 91-92).

Greenwood and Gaunt (1994: 123) add that a training course is necessary to convince all role-players, if not, at least the key management personnel, of the vital importance of a quality culture. It must bring to light quite quickly and dramatically some quantifiable evidence that it is worth doing, from the point of view of both the teachers in the front line and the customers – the learners.

Fields (1993: 94-95) advises that the major goals of the training programme should include the following:

- Understanding and ownership of the process.
- Knowledge and understanding of the tools for self-management.
- Opportunities with mentors to apply skills effectively.
- Perceptions that people and things are better than before.
- Opportunity and expectation to share successes and to improve all processes.
- Understanding and use of the tools of quality and the PDSA cycle.

Greenwood and Gaunt (1994: 127) argue that a quality system for a school should contain two elements:

- A system to ensure that the organization carries out its functions of delivering aspects of ‘education services’ to its immediate customers – parent and child – its external customers- employers and institutions of higher education. It must ensure that every department within the organization is aware of the importance of delivering a quality service to all its customers.
- On a second level, the system must be developed to ensure that a consistent approach is taken by all educators to the delivery of a quality service to their learners and a commitment to the process of ‘continuous improvement’.
The key elements of a quality system are:

- A quality policy – this constitutes a restatement in quality terms of the school’s perceived mission. There must be a firm commitment by all role-players to the quality ideal.
- An appropriate organizational structure – a flatter hierarchy with few status distinctions helps to create an environment conducive to TQM. Teamwork is the norm.
- A quality system - a systematic mechanism for collecting, collating and interpreting data of all kinds, in order to deliver a quality service to all customers, internal and external.
- Regular customer surveys – this is necessary to know whether you are meeting your customer requirements.
- An appropriate curriculum design – this is the product that is provided for the customers.
- A minimal documentary system – schools tend to become plagued by enormous quantities of bureaucratic paperwork. Communication must be relevant and must be limited to a specific purpose. (Greenwood & Gaunt 1994: 128-135).

Glover (1993: 18) argues that implementing TQM as a strategy for gaining competitive advantage requires leadership and commitment from the top. To get started, the head of the organization should initiate an exploration of the potential of TQM. A TQM steering committee should be created to gather information on TQM philosophy, processes, and tools and on successes and failures that other similar organizations have experienced in their quality improvement and cost containment efforts. Through a literature search, attendance at TQM conferences and workshops, visits to institutions experimenting with TQM, and training sessions conducted by TQM consultants, the task force should be well prepared to make recommendations to the senior officers for appropriate action.
The following is a schematic representation of the total quality implementation plan:

1. Explore Total Quality
2. Understand Deming's Philosophy & System of Profound Knowledge
3. Organize a Quality Steering Committee
4. Develop a Total Quality Master Plan
5. Create a Total Quality Guidance System
6. Establish Pilot Study
7. Educate and Train for Total Quality
8. Listen to Customers to Gather Information
9. Develop Quality Service Measurement System
10. Detect and Close Performance Gaps
11. Implement Total Quality in the Classroom
12. Develop Recognition and Reward Program

FIGURE 4.8 Implementing Total Quality in Education (Lewis Jr 1993: 87).
4.5 SOME TOOLS FOR QUALITY IMPROVEMENT

There is a need for educators to be familiar with the basic tools that apply to the quality movement. West-Burnham (1997: 157) points out that one of the great clichés of the quality movement is the notion of working smarter not harder. This is usually seen as being achieved through the adoption of a range of techniques that facilitate team working by structuring analytical and decision-making processes. The techniques are deceptively simple but provide a clarity and structure to collaborative working, a focus on core purpose and enhancing working relationships.

Murgantroyd & Morgan (1993: 155) observe that some people see TQM as essentially about measurement – through measuring outputs we can ensure quality. This explains the growing interest in performance indicators in education and the assumption that these indicators speak to both quality and value for money. But TQM is not concerned just with the outcomes of schooling, but with the whole nature of schooling as a process. TQM is a comprehensive approach to the management of well-being and effectiveness in organizations, so that the organization can achieve sustainable steep-slope quality improvement. However, some aspects of TQM do concern hard data and information.

In arguing the case for daily management tools for effective total quality management, Murgantroyd & Morgan (1993: 155) sum up that the critical issue is, ‘How can we collect good information so that we can make good decisions?’ The focus and the emphasis are upon making decisions, not measurement. Arcaro (1995: 125) sounds a word of caution: TQM is not tools and techniques. TQM tools and techniques only assist in the quality transformation. Unfortunately, too many people believe that TQM is tools and techniques – and they are destined for failure.

Sallis (1996: 94) adds that there is a need to turn philosophy into practice and to develop practical means by which teams within education can achieve quality improvement. Quality tools and techniques are the means of identifying and creatively solving problems. One of the most powerful aspects of TQM is the bringing together of a range of useful tools to implement its underlying concepts. However, it is
important that we find the right tools for the job and train staff in their use. With practice, such tools can become part of the decision-making culture of the institution.

Murgantroyd & Morgan (1993: 159) caution that there are no quick ways to adopt tools and to begin to use them on a wide scale, takes time. Also, the use of tools has to become embodied in the culture of the organization and is part of the organization’s way of communicating, both within and between teams. One key criterion for selecting a tool should be that its use aids the development of the team; while at the same time contributing to the achievement of the team’s goals. That is, the tool must have process value as well as outcome value. Some of the more popular tools and techniques for quality improvement are:

4.5.1 BENCHMARKING

This is one of the most widely used techniques in total quality organizations and is essentially an exercise in comparative analysis. It is about finding good ideas and ways to improve existing practices. The American company Xerox has pioneered the use of benchmarking as a competitive strategy; that is, studying the attributes of the best companies in the world, and adopting them as their standards. Xerox defines benchmarking as, ‘the continuous process of measuring products, services, and practices against the company’s toughest competitors and against companies recognised as industry leaders’ (Lewis Jr 1993: 190).

It is called a power tool of quality, because it can generate significant improvements in a company’s key business process (George & Weimerskirch 1994: 180).

The following figure by West-Burnham (1997: 158) captures the process:

| Aim |
| To improve on best practice |

| Step 1 – Review |
| - Identify the process or product to be improved. |
| - Identify those who ‘do it better’. |
| - Gather hard data to inform analysis. |
Step 2 – Analysis
- What factors contribute to their success?
- Is their product/approach right for us?
- What are the implications of adopting their approach?

Step 3 – Planning
- What can we achieve?
- How are we going to achieve these outcomes?

Step 4 – Action
- Implement specific actions.
- Monitor progress against norms.
- Go back to the original and review.
- Consider ways of extending improvement.

FIGURE 4.9 The Stages in Benchmarking (West-Burnham 1997: 158).

This process can be carried out on the basis of good practice in different schools and within a school. What happens in other teams, departments and classrooms is likely to be a powerful source of improvement. Internal benchmarking has the additional advantage of helping and supporting review and development processes (West-Burnham 1997: 158).

Examples of benchmarks in schools as public institutions include, the response time to parents’ queries, and the time taken by an educator after receiving the learners’ tasks to evaluate them, comment on them, return them to the learners, and undertake the necessary review and remedial work.

Dalton (1993: 20) the Superintendent of the Maryville City Schools, applied benchmarking to see if it contributes to school improvement and facilitates shared decision-making. Each school faculty identified an area of need and then found the most successful programme in that area to visit. Faculty members spent two days
visiting and studying various successful programmes. Following the trips, many changes occurred at all five schools such as:

- Initiating portfolios for all advanced students
- Teaching language through writing
- A more ‘hands-on’ approach in maths and science
- Allowing students to embark on independent projects
- Incorporating more computer use into classrooms.

In addition, an evaluation survey of the benchmarking effort revealed these impressive staff development benefits:

- Involvement in the decision making process
- Opportunities for team decision-making
- Leadership development.

Dalton (1993: 20) finally concluded that benchmarking produced tangible, beneficial results for all the schools in the system. But more importantly, it promoted and encouraged a new attitude among team members.

However, benchmarking as a tool needs to be judiciously used. Brigham (1994: 21) cautions that TQM practices such as ‘world class benchmarking’ might actually damage the efforts of a quality novice. His advice is to benchmark immediate competitors only.

According to Murgantroyd & Morgan (1993: 167) what makes benchmarking important to an organization is the fact that the benchmarks are available to customers. The crux is that benchmarks indicate a service commitment, or guarantee, which is measurable by the school and the customer. Sallis (1996: 101) adds that in education, there are various simple means of benchmarking which can be carried out as staff development exercises. Teachers can simply visit other institutions and see how things are done. They can discover best practice and ensure that theirs matches it, and then seek to improve on it. The importance of benchmarking is that it saves reinvention.
4.5.2 BRAINSTORMING

Latta and Downey (1994: 30) define brainstorming as a group process that challenges everyone, in a freewheeling and risk-free environment, to generate ideas and to identify problems and solutions. In the opinion of Sallis (1996: 94) brainstorming is an ideal TQM tool. It is also enjoyable and productive to use. It taps into the creativity of a team and allows team members to generate ideas and issues quickly. A successful brainstorm allows staff to be inventive and free from restriction. West-Burnham (1997: 159) adds that it is particularly powerful in generating solutions to apparently intractable problems and in situations where creativity is at a premium. He suggests the following steps:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Step 1</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>- The problem or issue being reviewed is written on a flip chart or blackboard.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Each member of the team suggests ideas which are written up without alteration or comment.</td>
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<tr>
<td>- The facilitator encourages each member of the team to contribute as many ideas as possible.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- The following rules are applied at this stage:</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• No criticisms or judgements</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• No evaluation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• No discussion</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• No problem-solving</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Anything goes – all ideas are valid</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Everybody makes inputs freely</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
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<tr>
<th>Step 2</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>The facilitator takes each suggestion in turn and checks with all members of the team to ensure understanding and accuracy of recording.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Step 3</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>The ideas generated are reviewed for duplication, trivia, the impracticable and inappropriate. Team consensus is needed before any factor is abandoned.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The ideas that are left are now subject to evaluation by applying criteria to them. Criteria might include cost, staff availability, training required, feasibility, consistency with agreed strategies. Again the team’s view on the ‘best fit’ should prevail.

**Step 4**
The outcomes that meet all criteria are potential solutions, which may be self-selecting or require further discussion in order to produce a rank order.


The following is an example of a brainstormed list:

**WHAT ARE THE MAJOR CHALLENGES FACING THE DISTRICT?**
- Lack of financial resources.
- Lack of parental involvement.
- Poor quality of administrators.
- Teacher resistance to change.
- Low turnover of educators.
- High student dropout rate.
- Poor quality of education in district.

FIGURE 4.11 A Brainstormed List (Latta and Downey 1994: 15).

Whilst brainstorming excites the imagination and stimulates ideas, Sallis (1996: 95) cautions that it is not a tool for analysis. Brainstorming does not provide objective assessments of a situation. As a result, it needs to be used in conjunction with other tools.
4.5.3 AFFINITY NETWORKS

The technique is used when there is a need to group a large number of ideas, opinions, or issues and to categorise them. The aim is to identify which ideas have more affinity than others and to group them accordingly. The affinity network makes use of creative rather than logical processes. It makes order out of chaos and stops a team drowning in a sea of ideas.

Affinity networks are a simple and powerful team process that starts with brainstorming. The ideas have to be in sufficient detail. The group then sorts out the ideas into related groupings. Once the groupings are established, the team must quickly decide on a heading card or title for each grouping. The header needs to capture the essential link between the ideas in each group. The next stage is to work out the relationships or affinities between groupings by drawing lines to link them. This will produce a tree diagram. The final result is a clarification of a complex set of issues or ideas into a small number of linked ideas with the relationship between them clearly established (Sallis 1996: 95-96).

Figure 4.12 is an example of an Affinity Diagram.
WHY DO BUSES ARRIVE LATE TO SCHOOL?

FIGURE 4.12 Affinity Diagram (Ohle & Morley 1994: n.p.).
4.5.4 ACTION PLAN

An Action Plan is a listing of activities on a chart. By identifying who is responsible, what resources are necessary and when actions are expected to be completed, a time-framed accountability is achieved. The following is a possible format.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>ACTION TO BE TAKEN</th>
<th>TEAM/ PERSON RESPONSIBLE</th>
<th>RESOURCES NEEDED</th>
<th>TARGET DATES START/END</th>
<th>DATE COMPLETED</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
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</tbody>
</table>


Haberer and Webb (1994:4) suggest that action plans should be part of all meeting minutes, or they can be used in lieu of the minutes, because they tell in a succinct fashion, the story of what was discussed and what decisions were made.

4.5.5 FISHBONE OR ISHIKWA DIAGRAMS

The tool is known as the Fishbone Diagram because of its shape, and as the Ishikwa Diagram, after Kaoru Ishikwa, the Japanese quality expert who formalised the tool. At times it is also known as the Cause-Effect Diagram. (Schargel 1994: 31).

The technique allows a team to map out all the factors that affect the problem or a desired outcome. The mapping may best be carried out through a brainstorming session. The aim is to list all the factors that affect the quality of a process and then to map the interrelationships between them. The Ishikwa diagram is a visual list drawn
up in a structured fashion. It illustrates the various causes affecting a process by sorting out and relating the causes to each other. For every effect there will be a number of causes and it is usual to group these in a number of major categories. This tool is used when an institution or a team needs to identify and explore the possible causes of a problem or look for the factors that could lead to an improvement (Sallis 1996: 96).

West-Burnham (1997: 160-161) contends that the Cause-Effect diagram is one of the most widely used techniques in quality circles and one of the most powerful diagnostic and team development activities. He summarises that the systematic application of a cause and effect diagram can:

- Identify all the causes of a problem
- Distinguish causes from symptoms
- Analyse the relative significance of related causes
- Provide data for the use with other techniques.

**FIGURE 4.14** Ishikawa Diagram or Fishbone Diagram of the causes contributing to poor student attendance in the district (Latta & Downey 1994: 50).
4.5.6 THE FLOW CHART

The Flow Chart is a diagram of the steps in a process, shown in their natural sequence. By showing how a process works in practice, potential difficulties can be identified and short-circuited, resulting in the creation of a new, improved process. This tool is useful in the process of thinking through a new process before it is implemented so that potential pitfalls can be more easily avoided (Bonstingl 1996: 69).

Walton (1994: 100) adds firmly that the first step for a team looking for ways to improve a process is to draw a flow chart of that process. A process cannot be improved unless everyone understands and agrees on what the process is. A well-constructed flow chart can immediately turn up redundancy, inefficiency, and misunderstanding.

In the following example, a team of teachers and school leaders used a flow chart to identify the steps they needed to take in order to implement total quality transformation.
I BUILD TQM AWARENESS

- In self
- In subordinates and co-workers

INITIATE LEADERSHIP & COMMITMENT

- In community
- Walk the talk
- Model the Quality Philosophy everywhere, all the time
- Communicate effectively

BUILD RESOURCES

- Funding
- Time
- Materials

NETWORK

- Reach out to organisations, community, other model schools
- Partnerships with businesses

PROVIDE TRAINING FOR ALL

- Available resources
- Training by educators
- Cascade model

FOCUS ON CUSTOMERS & SUPPLIERS

- Who are customers? Suppliers?
- Needs and wants
- Establish ongoing relationships of support

FIGURE 4.15 Flow Chart (Bonstingl 1996: 72).

Sallis (1996: 99) sums up the use of the flow chart when he states, what often takes pages of narrative to describe in print, can be summed up in an easily understood flowchart.
4.5.7 FORCE-FIELD ANALYSIS:

Force-field analysis is a useful tool for studying a situation, which requires change. It is based on the idea that there are two opposing forces to change. One set of forces is driving the change while the other set resists. The analysis rests on the simple proposition that change can be brought about either by strengthening the promoting forces or neutralising the resisting forces. It is a helpful tool because it promotes identification of all the forces, which are involved. The following is an example of force-field analysis.

IMPLEMENTING TQM

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>RESTRAINING</th>
<th>DRIVING FORCES</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>• Finances low</td>
<td>Training available</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Lack of TQM understanding</td>
<td>Community concerned about</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Staff intransigence</td>
<td>'crisis' in education</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Cynicism – another ‘flavour of</td>
<td>Support from local businesses</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>month’?</td>
<td>Team focus in our schools</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Time constraints</td>
<td>School governing board support</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

A histogram is a *columnar* graph showing the frequency distribution of data collected on a given variable. The height of each column displays the frequency (number) of a given measurement. The frequency distribution will indicate *groupings* of data and *how much* variation exists. Data is tabulated and arranged according to size. Data for a histogram can be gathered about any series of events, a series of occurrences, or a problem that has variant activity. The *data helps* identify changes or shifts in processes as changes are made. The tool helps to determine the range of variation and facilitates the establishment of standards on which future measurements can be compared (Latta & Downey 1994: 34-35).

**FIGURE 4.17 Educational Uses of Histograms at Various Levels** (Latta & Downey 1994: 36).

Based on what becomes abundantly apparent, the authorities can make informed decisions about the provision of security. The extent of the need varies during different parts of the year.
4.5.9 PARETO ANALYSIS

This technique helps to establish the vital elements of a problem from the relatively trivial. The approach is derived from the work of the Italian economist Pareto who put forward the '80/20' hypothesis, i.e. 80% of the problems are caused by 20% of the process. Pareto analysis is a means of identifying the real cause of the problem so that it can be addressed directly.

FIGURE 4.18 Pareto Analysis of factors resulting in reports being sent out late (West-Burnham 1997: 167).

In the example in Figure 4.18, two factors account for two-thirds of the late reports. It is therefore possible to identify appropriate remedial activity which is specifically targeted. It also becomes possible to analyse the extent to which the problem has been overcome on future occasions. Although the result might be guessed intuitively, the Pareto analysis ensures that the response meets the real need and provides evidence to ensure that future monitoring is effective. It also allows for a further stage of analysis to examine the factors causing the 'vital few' problems (West-Burnham 1997: 167). It is clear that this tool is useful when we have to sift the vital few from the trivial many.
4.5.10 THE PDSA CYCLE

The Plan-Do-Study-Act Cycle invented by Walter Shewart and developed by W. Edwards Deming is a useful tool for carrying on a continuous improvement process. The PDSA Cycle is a model of the way people learn, so it can help us analyse and improve the processes we use in getting a job done. Students can be taught to use the PDSA Cycle to better understand the systematic nature of their own learning processes. The following is an example of a PDSA Cycle developed by a student.

**FIGURE 4.19** The PDSA Cycle (Bonstingl 1996: 78).

According to Bonstingl (1996: 79) the PDSA Cycle is one of the most versatile quality tools. It can be used to study and improve virtually any process, from conducting meetings to organising field trips, and attracting more parents and business people to support the work of the school.
4.5.11 PROBLEM SOLVING TECHNIQUES

According to West-Burnham (1997: 167-168) a rational, methodical approach to problem solving increases the probability that the problem will be solved with the most appropriate solution. A diagnostic approach is more likely to result in high-quality outcomes. It is important to see problem solving as a skill to be developed rather than depending on intuition. The intuitive response starts from the recognition of the problem, tries to identify causes and then proposes solutions. The outcomes of this approach will include:

- Solving the symptoms but not the problem.
- Solving the problem but at high cost.
- Solving the one problem but then creating others.
- Not solving the problem or the symptoms but learning to live with both.

In a quality environment none of these outcomes is acceptable. The real problem must be solved (thereby removing the symptoms); the solution must not increase costs and must be capable of full implementation. The components of a rational approach to problem solving are shown in figure 4.20
4.5.12 STATISTICAL METHODS

Statistics can be broadly defined as the study of numerical data to better understand the characteristics of a population or process. A skilled statistician extracts a clear picture from numerical information, which aids in decision-making (Gitlow, Gitlow, Oppenheim & Oppenheim).

The central purpose of the use of statistical methods in total quality is to understand and so eliminate variation. Variation is the antithesis of quality as it implies deviation. The quality technique of Statistical Process Control (SPC) uses a range of standard statistical techniques to identify variations during a process and so facilitate corrective action to prevent failure at the final outcome (West-Burnham 1997: 171).

Greenwood and Gaunt (1994: 80-81) argue that regardless of whether we are talking about profit or non-profit organizations, in manufacturing or in service industries, all organizations, if they wish to succeed, are finding that they have to monitor customer requirements continuously and strive to satisfy customer needs. Further, manufacturing a quality product, providing a quality service, or doing a quality job, one with a high degree of fitness for purpose, is not enough. The cost of achieving that quality must be carefully managed so that the long-term effect of quality costs on the organization is a desirable one. Therefore, we need to use statistical techniques to improve our work processes.

Statistical tools and concepts are essential to the generation of knowledge. For these tools to be effectively used, all persons on the team must be willing to hold themselves accountable for their part of the process being studied. They must be willing to have data gathered that will assess how well they are accomplishing the tasks for which they are accountable. Accountability and results are never used for blaming but only for continuously improving. To know what to keep and what to fix, good data is vital (Kaufman & Zahn 1993: 9-10).

In the total quality approach, data is managed in a particular and distinctive way. Data are:

- Gathered in a consistent manner
Examples of the sorts of data that can be used in this way might include:

- Attendance figures – learners, educators and parents
- Satisfaction ratings
- Course work assessment
- Use of materials and resources

(West-Burnham 1997: 171).

The principles of Total Quality Management, as described by W. Edwards Deming, are dependent on the organizational leader’s ability and willingness to collect and analyse pertinent information so as to make informed decisions about quality and quality improvements. The concept of statistical process controls, when used appropriately, allows organizational leaders, at all levels, to monitor and adjust the organization’s processes, procedures, and systems to assure total quality (Lezotte 1992: 77).

Greenwood and Gaunt (1994: 105-106) in discussing the importance of statistical control techniques and the costs of quality conclude that:

- All work is a process.
- Managing quality is about refining processes.
- School processes can be measured.
- The aim is to get things right first time, i.e. cut out inspection.
- This is achieved by refining operating procedures.
- Techniques for doing so are readily available.

Greenwood and Gaunt (1994: 106) therefore propose that the following action be taken:

- Measure the costs of non-conformance.
- Analyse work processes in the school and consider ways of improving them.
• Determine areas of ‘waste’, calculate their costs and improve the processes, which give rise to such waste.

• Analyse one’s own behaviour in terms of the following:
  - clarity of the instructions given.
  - the amount of ‘hassle’ in one’s life.
  - the amount of time one spend re-doing work.
  - the amount of time spent dealing with problems and complaints.

Rosander (1989: 329) points out that the statistician’s job is to help management solve statistical problems anywhere in the organization. However, this cannot be done until management is convinced that statistics is a useful and powerful science that can solve management problems. The goal of the statistician is to show these people by example and demonstrations, that it is to their advantage to accept statistics, if not appreciate it. The value and success of quality and statistics must be demonstrated successfully to management in particular, and workers in general. Statistical quality controls have led, and can lead, to improvements.

Peter DeDominici (1994: 185- 187) recounts his experience in using quality tools to solve problems. As Principal of Denver Place School in Ohio, he was required to keep records of disciplinary actions so case files can be checked when repeat offences are brought to his attention. During 1991- 1992, he created a database in order to obtain more accurate and easily accessible information. He developed three types of charts to study the statistics – histograms, run charts, and Pareto charts. For example, the discipline cases experienced were plotted on a run chart. The vertical axis showed the number of reports, and the horizontal axis indicated the months of the school year. The chart showed that the behavioural problems grew sharply in certain months. The rise was related to warmer weather when more interactions occurred outside and more learners came into contact with one another.

This kind of information could enable certain proactive measures to be taken.

The above was a discussion of some of the tools and techniques available for use in the Total Quality transformation process. However, the mere availability of these tools does not guarantee quality. There must be the commitment and willingness on the part of all role players to employ the tools to attain the quality transformation. Quality tools can help educators and school administrators focus on real problems, monitor progress and evaluate actions taken.
4.6 SOME CASE STUDIES OF THE SUCCESSFUL IMPLEMENTATION OF TOTAL QUALITY MANAGEMENT

The following cases are presented as examples of the successful implementation of Total Quality Management. The only fully documented study of TQM in South Africa is St Adrewns Preparatory School—a private school. All the other cases are of public schools in the United States of America and the United Kingdom. The cases have been selected to reflect a variety of conditions. The main objective is to analyse the extent to which the conditions that existed then, resemble the conditions that exist in South Africa today. At the end of the presentation of the cases, critical commentary is offered.

4.6.1 MOUNT EDGECUMBE

Total quality management principles were applied to Mt Edgecumbe High School (MEHS) in Sita, Alaska. The school was started in 1947 as a school for Native Americans. Alaska has the smallest population of all the American states, but it is spread over a very large land mass. With such a low population density, it is difficult to maintain high-quality high schools in the small villages and towns. MEHS is a residential school with about 210 students and a teaching staff of 13 people (Tribus 1994: 273).

Schmoker and Wilson (1993: 129) add that historically, the school's largely native students had performed poorly on standardised tests, scoring in the bottom 30%. But by the end of the 1985-86 school year, achievement scores had jumped by a third. Although the emphasis on achievement was there from the beginning, a number of factors converged to create what is probably the best example of Total Quality Management in education.

Larrae Rocheleau, the Superintendent, described the incoming native Alaskan students as:

'Our Native American students, for the most part, have extremely deep ties to their heritage and are struggling to keep the values and pride of the past
while adjusting to a world dominated by another culture, another language and different social values. We attempt to nurture that Native pride and build on those positive feelings without emphasizing the negatives of adjustment' (Tribus 1994: 274).

Tribus (1994: 273 - 287) gives the following account of his experience of the application of TQM principles to the operation of the school. The Superintendent was not interested in creating an elitist school – ‘our job is to provide value-added education, not to select a few who don’t really need us.’ One of his major objectives was to turn these students into entrepreneurs who would go back to their villages and make a difference. He therefore planned courses in entrepreneurship and sought teachers who would use project-oriented learning as a way to get the students into the habit of being purposeful in the application of what they learned. Of the educators who shared the vision, one was extremely enthusiastic. David Langford saw here an opportunity to fulfil his own dreams. David attended a session with an executive in a company involved in the quality movement. David was intrigued with TQM concepts. David concluded that Deming's ideas could and should be applied to education. Lockwood (1994 : 131) adds that Langford felt renewed by the encounter with Jim Martin of McDonnell Douglas Corporation, and began studying and contacting corporate people nationwide who had been active in the quality movement.

With support from Superintendent Larrae Rocheleau, David experimented with different approaches to overcoming student indifference to learning. Through dialogue, the students developed their own sense of why they studied. Student enthusiasm for the new approach to learning began to affect the other teachers. Gradually other educators began to follow David's example and adopted similar approaches. Morale and motivation improved. Rocheleau produced the following version of Deming’s “Fourteen Points”:

**Our actions at Mt Edgecumbe High School, are based on the following beliefs:**

1. Human relations are the foundation for all quality improvement.
2. All components in our organization can be improved.
3. Removing the cause of problems in the system inevitably leads to improvement.
4. The person doing the job is most knowledgeable about the job.
5. People want to be involved and do their jobs well.
6. Every person wants to feel like a valued contributor.
7. More can be accomplished by working together to improve the system than by working individually around the system.
8. A structured problem solving process using statistical graphic problem-solving techniques lets you know where the variations lie, the relative importance of problems to be solved and whether the changes made have had the desired impact.
9. Adversarial relationships are counter-productive and outmoded.
10. Every organization has undiscovered gems waiting to be developed.
11. Removing the barriers to pride of workmanship and joy of learning, unlocks the true, untapped potential of the organization.
12. Ongoing training, learning and experimentation is a priority for continuous improvement (Greenwood & Gaunt 1994: 14).

One of the basic tenets of Deming’s teachings is that individual workers cannot know what to do to contribute to the enterprise if they do not understand and give support to its purpose. Furthermore, this purpose must be constant and not changing every day. All the role players spent considerable time developing a consensus about the purpose of the school. The statement of purpose permeated all aspects of school life. Tribus’ reaction to learner, staff and administration commitment to and understanding of TQM is described as one of ‘amazement and admiration’. The entrepreneurship course proved extremely successful.

David’s class rewrote Deming’s fourteen points so that their application to education became more apparent. They also identified the various ‘customer-supplier relationships’. After flow-charting some of the activities of the school and studying the objectives of the various teachers, the students and teachers, together, set about restructuring the system. Students saw their work as complete only if it was perfect. Tribus also observed that student discipline problems had all but vanished. Through the use of TQM, the staff is able to devote more attention to each individual student. The students also help one another to become independent learners. He concludes that this school is demonstrating the true power of education. What he saw exceeded his expectations, and his only wish was that he could find the same thirst for learning in the rest of the country.
However, what has been done at MEHS cannot be cloned and simply reproduced elsewhere. Nevertheless, there are valuable lessons for all those operating within the education sector. Much can be accomplished if there is a willingness to exceed expectations of those that you work with. From his experience, Superintendent, Larrae Rocheleau (1994: 14) concludes that quality does not cost more, it saves money. Quality is not more costly, it is cheaper.

Schmoker & Wilson (1993: 137) add that Mt. Edgecumbe has other important lessons for us as well. It demonstrates that students can do their best work in a self-regulated environment, especially if we create conditions in which students can see for themselves that what we are asking them to learn is meaningful, that it will prepare them for a promising future and bring purpose to their lives. And these same conditions can give teachers more time to share and educate each other about how to create the best conditions in which their students will thrive.

### 4.6.2 INTRODUCING TQM AT HEATHLAND SCHOOL

Geoffrey Samuel (1997: 95) relates his experience of the development of TQM at the Heathland School, a mixed comprehensive school with a roll of about 1640. Some 90% of the pupils are drawn from ethnic minorities. As Principal, Samuel and his Deputy became increasingly interested in articles on TQM. They attended talks where representatives from trade and industry, urged schools to ‘take the quality route’. After extensive reading and research, Samuel and his Deputy decided to proceed. They began with a mission statement and commenced with inviting tenders for the establishment of a quality system. The brief for the mission statement conference aimed to ensure that it would:

- Provide the focus for TQM.
- Provide the framework for all policies and procedures.
- Unite staff (teaching and non-teaching), parents and pupils behind a clear statement.
- Provide the touchstone on which performance can be tested.
• Be the focus for our prospectus and all our communication within and without the school.
• Be the starting point for the school development plan.

A Quality Committee was established, comprising the four-strong Senior Management Team and two other senior members of staff, one of whom was later to become the quality manager. Consultants, Coopers and Lybrand, spent several days in school interviewing staff and meeting the Committee before a draft Quality Manual was developed. The job description of the Quality Manager had three main foci. The first was the operation of the system. This was not simply a maintenance job. The whole philosophy of TQM is based on continuous improvement. The system is kept under continual review so that as soon as the possibility of an improvement can be described, it is put into action. The second focus was an oversight of the review and development processes. A school development plan was produced. Thirdly, the quality manager was responsible for all the preparations for the quality inspections.

Once the quality system was in place, the school turned its attention to audit. The essence of quality assurance is that the institution implements its own system to ensure that it is actually delivering what it claims. The purpose of audit is to identify non-conformance with procedures and to set in train remedial measures. There were clear, consistent audit procedures with an audit checklist. The quality of the documentation often has a marked impact on the success of the exercise. The quality manager devised the forms for use. The audit reports were shown to Inspectors. The checklist for audit covered most of the areas of concern to Inspectors. The Inspectors were suitably impressed. They wrote: ‘Many innovative steps have been taken to ensure a focus on quality’. In order to perpetuate the quality culture, the school invested in an extensive staff development programme. Staff appraisal was linked to staff development.

Adopting the philosophy and practice of TQM, ensured that Heathland had a great deal of internal consistency and coherence than most schools of the same size. The school had a mission statement that was not just a form of words, but a statement of its ethos and values, which drive the development plan, governors, staff, pupils and
parents. Inspectors reported that the Heathland School was 'underpinned by a school ethos in which tolerance, respect, the importance of self-esteem, traditional values and the commitment to academic excellence are the driving principles' (Samuel 1997: 95-107).

4.6.3 TQM AT WESTINGHOUSE

Westinghouse is vocational/technical high school that draws students from 70 different 'feeder' junior high schools and intermediate schools. Most of the students reside in the inner-city neighbourhood of Brooklyn. Of the 1700 students enrolled in 1993:

- 76% were Black
- 20% were Latino
- almost 2.5% were Asian
- 32 students were White
- 25% were female
- many of the students came from single-parent low income families
- over 50% were eligible for the free lunch programme
- almost half of the graduates were the first in their families to obtain a high school diploma (Schargel 1994: 51).

Many students travelled long distances to get to school. Many students entered Westinghouse with a lack of motivation, a history of educational failure and low self-esteem. In addition the school was plagued by the usual problems of:

- Both parents working and arriving home exhausted with little time to worry about the child’s school matters.
- Budget cuts resulted in the loss of staff.
- Little or no support from the bureaucracy for quality initiatives.
- Senior staff sceptical of innovation.
- Loss of experienced staff through voluntary severance packages.
- The school is in need of repairs and painting.
One of the first tasks of the incoming Principal, Lewis A. Rappaport, was to build a
good reputation among the incoming business community, a demoralised staff,
incoming students and their parents. A promotional piece was developed and
distributed to business houses and feeder schools. A survey was conducted to
establish the impediments to quality improvements. Most believed that the greatest
impediment was the principal and the administration. The survey provided a good
starting point to open discussion on the need to change things at Westinghouse.

The school commenced with embarking on seven essential steps to Total Quality:

**STEP 1: Making an Administrative Commitment.**

All the quality theorists agree that Total Quality will not work unless there is a
commitment by management. Deming and Juran insist that at least 85% of the
problems in business are caused by management and that 15% or less are caused by
the workers.

At Westinghouse the Principal clearly demonstrated his commitment to making total
quality work.

**STEP 2: Selecting a Quality Coordinator**

It is difficult for the Principal to serve as the quality coordinator. The primary jobs of
the Principal in the Total Quality process should be to serve as a catalyst for change
and as an ‘enabler’ providing the resources, time, and space necessary to enable the
process to work. The choice of a quality coordinator is an important one and there are
certain attributes that a quality coordinator must possess:

- He or she must believe in the process and must have expertise in the
  philosophy, tools, and techniques of Total Quality.
- The Quality Coordinator must have the ability to lead people. He or she must
  see the need and act on it.
- He or she must have excellent written and oral communication skills and a
  sense of vision. Internal customers must be convinced that the idea of Total
  Quality is good and workable.
- A Quality Coordinator must know how to build consensus. Therefore, he or
  she must be a conciliator and must engender trust and respect.
• The coordinator must be able to delegate power and responsibility.

The Quality Coordinator meets frequently with the Principal, proposing various courses of action. In addition, it is the quality coordinator’s job to:

• Lead the quality movement in the school.
• Set the direction that the total Quality Education movement will take (with the guidance of the Principal and steering committee).
• Meet with the various customer groups and visitors.
• Do extensive reading.
• Conduct training workshops.
• Establish the vision path and pursue it.
• Serve as the leader of the Quality Steering Committee.
• Maintain an expertise by taking Total Quality workshops and seminars.

STEP 3: Writing a Mission Statement.

A mission statement helps to align often-disparate components of a school. It helps to develop a common focus. It provides staff, students, parents and the external customers a clear vision of the purpose of the school. By aligning the forces, a mission statement creates a synergy— that is, a whole greater than the sum of its parts. The mission statement of Westinghouse High School was written after much discussion and occasionally raised voices. It took 4 months to be written and approved.

STEP 4: Identifying Customers and Suppliers.

It is important to identify whom the school serves. Like the business community, schools are composed of suppliers and customers and an end product. The product produced in schools should be an educated graduate. Westinghouse identified staff, students and parents as internal customers. The external customers are the recipients of graduates, the colleges and universities, the business community, the military, and the community at large. It is essential that the school identifies its own set of suppliers and customers. In making decisions, the needs of suppliers and customers must be
taken into account. The school must work with both the supplier and the customer in order to produce its product.

**STEP 5 : Involving Internal and External Customers.**

It is a tremendous challenge to get parents involved in the education of their children. The colleges and university customers have a great deal to gain and to share with the high schools. The high schools are suppliers to the higher education establishments. If colleges wish to help raise educational standards of public schools, they must assume a more active role.

**STEP 6 : Finding Out More About the Process.**

It is useful for schools to identify benchmarks for quality. Westinghouse identified and copied the best in the field from industrial groups that were further along in the Total Quality Process.

**STEP 7 : Institutionalising the Process**

Institutionalisation ensures that if the champion of the quality initiative is replaced, other stakeholders will guarantee that the process continues. The Quality Steering Committee and not any individual must be the school’s change agent.

The people at Westinghouse caution that introducing TQM into education is like rolling a huge stone up a hill. It is slow, tedious, and hard work. The greatest obstacle is inertia. The process takes a while to effect culture change. The time needed for this culture change frequently leads to frustration and cynicism among the staff, the parents, the students, and the bureaucrats. People have to be educated not to expect instant results. The best advice from Westinghouse is to continue to persevere and wear down the resistance. The change is worth the effort (Schargel 1994 : 51-74).

As to how successful Westinghouse was in implementing Total Quality Management, can best be gauged from the letter the Principal received on 18 June 1993:
Dear Mr Rappaport

I am very pleased to hear of the positive strides taken by George Westinghouse Vocational and Technical High School towards improving the educational environment at the school.

I commend you and the entire Westinghouse community for instituting a Total Quality Education initiative that has increased parent and teacher involvement, and most importantly, improved student outcome. I am thrilled that Westinghouse’s initiative has encouraged so many new parents to participate in the school, that the student dropout rate is down, and that the graduation rate is up. It is truly an encouraging sign that so many of your students are now opting to further their education by going on to college. Please also extend my thanks to the many corporate partners who have joined your school in this important effort.

On behalf of eight million New Yorkers, I applaud the efforts of the George Westinghouse High School to provide a quality education for all its students.

Sincerely,

David N. Dinkins
MAYOR

(Schargel 1994: 150-151).
4.6.4  TOTAL QUALITY MANAGEMENT AT THE DELL PRIMARY SCHOOL

Situated in a pleasant setting, overlooking the River Wye and Chepstow Castle, the Dell Primary School opened its doors to its first pupils in 1989. The school enjoys excellent facilities in a fine building amid extensive landscaped grounds. The school caters for about 400 pupils many of whom have enjoyed state or private nursery/playgroup provision. The school’s catchment area is a relatively prosperous one and parents take a keen interest in their children’s education.

One of the school’s first challenges was to put in place policies, processes and practice that would meet the aspiration of a parent body who had largely campaigned to keep open their own village schools and who would inevitably make comparisons with their child’s former school. The pace of change in the education arena at that time was rapid, and the priority was to establish and embrace a philosophy, a set of aims and an organizational climate that could respond successfully to the new contexts that pupils and staff faced.

The school’s philosophy that every child should fulfil his/her potential has resulted in a set of aims related to providing spiritual, cultural, moral, physical and mental development. Underpinning these aims was, crucially, the aim of ‘establishing an educational environment within which teaching and support staff, governors, advisers, parents and friends can work with each other for the successful achievement of these aims’. The school also embraced the challenge of developing an understanding partnership with parents, i.e. putting parents and pupils first, meeting and exceeding their needs and expectations. The philosophy of being a caring school and of valuing all who work in, or for the Dell primary School was uppermost in everyone’s mind.

The emphasis was on ensuring a coherence of policies, such that each child received an equality of entitlement. Good quality planning, leading to good quality learning experiences, was reflected in a staff development policy. The school’s increasingly comprehensive school development plan (SDP) provides the opportunity to review and improve all aspects of school life in a flexible yet systematic way. At present, it addresses all matters related to school improvement under four headings: curriculum, personnel, environment and community/industry.
In 1995, Dell Primary won the Government Charter Mark for Public Sector Organizations. The Judges' report read, ‘The cycle of consultation with customers, analysis of their views, the incorporation of those views in revising and improving services and the repetition of this cycle as part of a continuous improvement process is finally in place.’

It also became the first primary school in Wales to receive Welsh Joint Education Committee accreditation for meeting a suitable standard for policy and practice. Following a seminar delivered by the Wales Quality Centre in May 1996, senior management and governors were convinced that the business excellence model provided a coherent whole for the various focal points which are inherent in the service provided, i.e. the model could be used as a basis for self-assessment and provided the opportunity to be externally assessed against a relevant national standard. The process of submission, assessment, and critical feedback was seen as an ideal model in which to continue to make the school better tomorrow than it is today. Existing policies and practices were sufficient to see the school gain the Wales Education Sector Award in 1996 and 1997. In 1997, the headteacher was the Quality Person of the Year at the awards. Encouraged by these awards, Dell Primary entered for the UK Quality Awards of 1997. The school is pleased to be the first public sector organization in the UK to achieve the award winner status. However, the most important recognition has been by the school itself, in realising the importance of applying total quality management to a primary school (Rowlands 1998: 203-209).

4.6.5 THE DEMING APPROACH AT KATE SULLIVAN ELEMENTARY SCHOOL

Using W. Edwards Deming’s quality principles, the 44 year-old school which serves inner-city children and suburban children in Tallahassee, is shifting from 20th century ‘effective’ traditional school to a 21st century ‘quality’ school. The principal Nancy Duden (1993: 144) reports that they are learning to think and act differently. They are making instructional decisions based on questions such as, ‘Will this help our students become life-long readers, writers, and problem solvers?’

One Kate Sullivan parent describes the contrasting experiences her two children received from the same teacher: ‘Three years ago, the focus in my child’s classroom
was on preparing students to face the challenges of middle school. Three years later, the focus has shifted significantly. Now you see students learning to set goals that are personal to them and to their success, and the teacher serving as a facilitator rather than director.

The older child experienced the effective school paradigm, whereas the younger enjoyed the benefits of a quality classroom.

In order to effect the transformation, the following values were established to help maintain a 'constancy of purpose' for all restructuring efforts at Kate Sullivan:

- Individuals are valued.
- Teachers are professional educators.
- Parents are partners.
- Decision-making is shared.
- Teachers are team members.

In order to 'institute training' the school began an intensive in-service plan, developed by the Principal and a team of teachers. The overall goal of this intensive in-service plan was to establish a culture of continuous quality improvement that is student-focused and based on learning principles. The teachers thereafter felt encouraged to take risks within the classroom, to use innovative educational practices they knew to be effective, and used their knowledge and experience to improve the delivery of services both to the students and the community.

As a result of the adoption of Deming's principles, 85% of the teachers started to feel strongly that the school reflects 'a high level of respect, trust, collegiality, cohesiveness, and caring,' and more than 95% of the parents and teachers feel positive about the school's climate for learning. A process was developed for helping students to set their own learning goals, develop an action plan, keep track of their progress, and to make adjustments when necessary, based on data collected (Duden 1993: 18-20).
Carlson (1994: 14) contends that recently, the application of Total Quality Management principles in education has constituted the most significant educational reform initiative but certainly not the only one. TQM does not provide any simplistic recipe for success but is a significant part of the broad exploratory process which is under way to restructure and constantly improve education for the benefit of both the individual and society.

Carlson (1994: 14-15) asserts that perhaps one of the most important things that can be said about TQM at this stage – and this applies equally to business and education – is that it has helped to point us in a new direction, a direction away from centralised, bureaucratic, autocratic thinking towards thinking about organizations and people in a far more flexible, holistic light. TQM has to do with concepts such as teamwork, cooperative learning, leadership, driving out fear, breaking down barriers, continuous improvement, focusing on customers, creating learning organizations, thinking about processes and systems, intrinsic motivation, joy in learning, authentic assessment, empowering people, vision, values, principles and so on.

According to Carlson (1994: 16) TQM has so far, probably generated more failures than successes, mainly because people are reluctant to change, even when faced with the necessity to do so. Leadership is extremely important in the implementation of change. Carlson therefore concludes that our most urgent educational need in South Africa is for people with leadership and management skills in line with the TQM principles. Without these skills and an adequate support structure for them, it is unlikely that the rest of the educational reform process will ultimately succeed. Although there are many important similarities, a lot of which have been overlooked in the past, a school and a business are essentially different organizations, and so great care must be taken when adapting and using business models in schools. At the same time, the partnership between business and education is an important one. One of the most significant roles that business can play to foster education in South Africa, is in the provision of management and leadership training as has been done by companies such as the Xerox Corporation in America.
St Andrew’s Preparatory School in Grahamstown, founded in 1885, is an independent boarding plus day school with pre-primary, junior primary and senior primary departments. There are about 290 children in the school which employs 22 teachers, 16 administrative and support staff, eight student housemasters and 27 kitchen, dormitory and maintenance staff. In 1986 the school experienced a significant drop in pupil numbers, just a year after it had celebrated its centenary. A weekend seminar was held in April that year, led by professor Gavin Straude of the Business Administration Department at Rhodes University, to analyse how the school could market itself more effectively. It was attended by staff, parents and members of the school’s governing body. The agenda included a discussion of the school’s mission and objectives, a SWOT analysis, a study of the school’s customers and their needs and how to develop a marketing strategy for the school. Arising out of this seminar and the follow-up discussions, a number of significant decisions were taken which included:

- Acknowledging that the school was no longer primarily a boarding school but a mixture of day and boarder pupils and thus it was important to try to capture as large a share as possible of the day-pupil market.
- Changing the focus from results to processes with a view to clarifying and quantifying what pupils and parents would experience as members of the school family.
- Moving the school from the fringes of non-racialism towards becoming fully integrated with pupils admitted on the basis of academic criteria rather than on race or language groups.
- Developing the perception of the school as a leader in the field of education rather than as a follower.

Arising out of this seminar, St Andrew’s Prep. became one of the first schools in South Africa to draw up and publish its own Mission Statement, a document which, to the present day, has had a strong unifying influence in the school, reflecting both school values and a sense of vision. From the Mission Statement the following six concepts have emerged into powerful core values, which have played a major role in the subsequent success of the school:

- Creating a relaxed, caring environment.
• Developing positive, self-confident children.
• Applying modern educational principles to satisfy the needs of pupils with a wide range of ability.
• Emphasizing staff development.
• Cultivating strong communication links between parents and the school.
• Offering a broad range of educational experiences.

Since 1988, pupil numbers have increased steadily every year. In March 1992, St Andrew’s Prep, together with a company known as Quality Management Associates (QMA) but now known as Proudfoot Crosby, embarked on a joint project to adapt its quality business model to suit the needs of a South African school with a view to improving school management and classroom learning. To suggest that what followed was a painless process would be a distortion of the truth. Each step of the way was met with varying degrees of suspicion and resistance but, at the end of each stage, the staff had the option to continue or abandon the process. TQM principles cannot be forced on anyone.

The school’s first introduction to TQM was a one-hour motivational talk given to the staff by Peter Gilbert, director of Proudfoot, prior to the start of the April holidays during which time the staff read Philip Crosby’s book, Quality Without Tears. At the end of the holidays the majority of the teaching and administrative staff attended a two-day seminar designed to introduce an organization to Crosby’s 14 steps which constitute his quality improvement process and to gain the necessary commitment to proceed with the process of implementation. Crosby’s 14 steps are:

• Management commitment
• Quality Improvement Team
• Education
• Measurement
• Cost of Quality
• Quality Awareness
• Corrective Action
• Zero Defects Planning
• Zero Defects Day
• Goal Setting
The next step was the establishment of the Quality Improvement Team (QIT) to drive and manage the quality process at the school. The team was launched and trained by Cheryl McCulloch, area manager of QMA in Cape Town. The first team consisted of the individuals holding a variety of positions in the school. These ranged from principal to classroom cleaner and from the matron to an administrative assistant. This committee co-ordinated the quality activities throughout the school with each person generally taking responsibility for one of the sub-committees that reported to the QIT. These sub-committees included education, aesthetics, measurement, curriculum development, awareness, cost of quality and recognition.

One of the first tasks of the committees was to draw up and get general support for a quality policy statement to which the school has subsequently committed itself. In September 1992, three staff members attended an intensive four-day seminar in Johannesburg where they were trained to carry out the education of the entire school staff. For educationalists, this was a very difficult task as they were dealing with training material which was geared entirely towards the commercial world. This material needed extensive re-writing and simplifying to make it applicable to a school context. Between October 1992 and March 1993 the rest of the school staff attended one of two quality education courses. They were the Quality Education Systems (QES) consisting of ten two-hour sessions and the Quality Awareness Experience (QAE) consisting of four one and a half-hour sessions. In February 1993, a staff member and a parent were trained to run the Indaba course consisting of four two-hour sessions which were then held in Xhosa for the kitchen, dormitory and maintenance staff. By the beginning of April 1993 the whole Prep staff had received one form or another of 'quality' education which equipped them to apply the quality principles in their own work situations. Herein lies one of the strengths of the system: everyone in an organization is included, and everyone learns to speak a common language of quality improvement and this makes it possible to create an organizational culture to support the process.
A major drawback, however, has been the language barrier between racial groups. When people cannot communicate with each other fluently on a daily basis, it is difficult for them to weld into a strong team.

Together with his 14 steps, the cornerstone of Crosby’s approach to quality are what he calls the ‘four absolutes of quality’. They are the:

- Definition of quality: conformance to requirements
- System of quality: prevention
- Performance standard: zero defects

The practical application of these ‘absolutes’ is based on the understanding that all work is a process, that is, a series of actions that produces a result. At every step in the process the requirements need to be clarified for both the supplier and the customer. Communication and team work are essential for the process to flow smoothly. The strengths of the first absolute are twofold: firstly, conformance to requirements provides an objective definition of quality as opposed to the usual subjective views of what constitutes a quality product or service. Second, the requirements for any quality process are reached through negotiation and not mandated from above. This does not mean that once requirements are agreed upon, there is an obligation for people to keep their promises to each other to ensure that they deliver their product or service according to the agreement.

A valuable task at St Andrew’s Prep has, therefore, been the re-drafting of the school’s procedures so as to get agreement and commitment from everyone involved with each procedure. The second ‘absolute’ goes hand-in hand with the first. By clarifying their procedures and conforming to them, members of an organization can prevent problems from occurring and thus they can save money and time and avoid frustration by not having to repeat work. In the school situation the third ‘absolute’ has caused most problems, mainly because the zero defects concept has been misinterpreted to suggest that the school is striving to produce zero defect people. It must be stressed that zero defects is first and foremost an attitude. There is, however, a further problem with this concept: once zero defects has been reached, by implication there is no longer any need to strive to improve. Continuous improvement
is a more dynamic concept, one which takes one beyond zero defects, and thus it has
now replaced zero defects at the school.

The fourth 'absolute' states that money is lost every time something goes wrong. This
is as true of schools as it is of business organizations. The price of non-conformance
can also be measured in terms of time wasted, and in damaged human relations, both
of which tend to make more impact on people who work in a people-oriented
organization like a school. Understanding the work that people do as a series of
processes with inputs, outputs, customers and suppliers is a fundamental concept of
quality improvement. At different stages of the work processes, people are constantly
switching roles from supplier to customer and back again to supplier.

This underlines the importance of people within an organization treating each other
with as much respect, as they should give to their external customers. In the end,
quality results from constantly improving processes and not from blaming people
when problems do occur (Carlson 1994: 16-20).

Carlson (1994: 20) recounts his visit to the United States of America. The purpose of
the visit was to obtain a broader perspective on the application of TQM principles in
schools. He particularly wanted to establish the extent to which TQM is being used in
schools, and whether or not profound changes had occurred as a result of TQM
practices at both the administrative and the classroom level. In addition, he wanted to
find out about the methods being used to implement TQM in schools and what TQM
sources were available. In brief, his visit confirmed that the application of quality
principles is making a profound impact on many American schools and thus they
merit serious consideration in the South African context. All the schools he visited in
the United States were public schools and all were, in varying degrees, applying TQM
principles. The one exception was Milton Academy, an independent school in Boston.

Carlson (1994: 16) observes:

‘In all traditional respects, Milton is a highly successful school. It has
long waiting lists, its academic results are outstanding and it has top-
class facilities. I do not want to be unfair to Milton on the basis of one
brief visit, but in comparison with the other schools, it did not strike
me as a quality school. Although I was well treated, it seemed to lack
the warmth, the personal attention and the customer focus that
characterised the other schools I had visited. Speaking later to one of
the governors of the school, I felt my impressions were confirmed. I
am left wondering if there is any need for TQM in a well-established, flourishing independent school, or if schools like Milton Academy perhaps run the risk of isolating themselves from the realities of the world around them.'

An article in *USA Today* of 8 April 1994, announced that Wilkerson Middle School, an inner-city school in Birmingham, catering almost entirely for black children from poor homes, had become the first school in the United States to win the RIT/USA TODAY Quality Cup in the government category. Four years ago, however, Wilkerson School was a disaster in every respect. Then Dr Diane Rivers, curriculum co-ordinator for Birmingham's 19 middle schools intervened. She had become convinced that TQM could spark a revolution in Birmingham classrooms. When she was given permission to use TQM in one school, she chose troubled Wilkerson. In just four years the school was completely transformed.

Carlson (1994: 20) contends that Wilkerson has much in common with South African schools. If Wilkerson could undergo such dramatic changes, could the same thing not happen in our schools?

A visit to Clark County provided Carlson with the opportunity to spend time in schools and talk to people at the coal-face – from the superintendent to the bus-drivers – to see what kind of impact TQM made in practice on a school district in Virginia. He reports that he was overwhelmed by what he heard and saw.

'I saw children tackling authentic learning activities, I listened to empowered teachers who were excited about their teaching programmes, and I spoke to support personnel who had a clear picture of the valuable role they played in the overall success of their schools. I left Clarke County convinced that TQM could have a dramatic impact on classroom learning and school management.'

From his visit, Carlson (1994: 20) concluded that TQM is about joy in learning and is about the spirit of life-long learning. Herein seems to lay the crux of the TQM educational reform movement both for the individual person as well as for society at large.
4.7 A CRITICAL REVIEW OF THE CASES PRESENTED

The six cases of the implementation of Total Quality Management were presented in varying detail and each with a different emphasis. Each case will be critically reviewed with a view to establishing what the similarities and differences are with the general scenario in the majority of South African public schools.

CASE 1 - MOUNT EDGECUMBE

Mount Edgecumbe is probably the most shining example of the successful implementation of Total Quality Management. The school is situated in a low population density area, which is similar to the position in the large rural areas of our country. The school caters for historically disadvantaged and marginalized learners, similar to the position of many of our schools. Like Mount Edgecumbe, many of our schools in rural areas and the townships have a history of poor performance in standardised tests. Whilst there are exceptions, the performance of traditionally Black schools is way below that of traditionally White schools in the matriculation examination.

Compared to the manner in which our Superintendents of Education operate, Mount Edgecumbe’s Superintendent, Larrae Rocheleau had a more hands-on approach. His goals and objectives were very clear and he appears to be driven by a particular passion. This is important as all literature on Total Quality Management emphasize the need for strong commitment from senior management.

Many of our learners today have much in common with the predicament shared by pupils attending Mount Edgecumbe. Many of our learners from the townships are attending traditionally White, Coloured and Indian schools. Whilst subscribing to the ethos of their new school, many ‘have extremely deep ties to their heritage and are struggling to keep the values and pride of the past while adjusting to a world dominated by another culture, another language and different social values’ (Tribus 1994: 274).
One significant point of difference is that the learners at Mount Edgecumbe could see the relevance of their learning. Mount Edgecumbe’s main objective was to turn its students into entrepreneurs who would go back to their village and make a difference. Students were taught to be ‘purposeful in the application of what they learned’. Given South Africa’s high rate of unemployment (estimated at 49%) our learners do not have the same level of motivation. Nevertheless, we can learn an important lesson in the way Mount Edgecumbe structured its entrepreneurial course.

Particular notice should be taken of the industry’s willingness to share their ideas on quality with the school. Educator, David Langford felt ‘renewed by the encounter with Jim Martin of McDonnell Douglas Corporation, and began studying and contacting corporate people nationwide who had been active in the quality movement’. An important lesson perhaps is, how schools should proceed in establishing contact with the corporate world.

David Langford’s different approaches to overcoming student indifference to learning deserve close scrutiny. Respondents to the questionnaire, cited learner attitude as the second most serious obstacle to the implementation of quality initiatives. South African educators need to take heart that there are ways to improve learner morale and motivation. Learner discipline is a major problem in many South African schools. This concern has prompted many educators, parents and school administrators to call for such drastic measures such as the reintroduction of corporal punishment. It is interesting to note Tribus’ (1994) observation that with the introduction of Total Quality Management, ‘student discipline problems had vanished’.

Mount Edgecumbe’s version of Deming’s Fourteen Points is a sterling example of how schools should produce their own version of Deming’s Fourteen Points. This could serve as a valuable set of beliefs on which to base all policy and actions. The overall message of ‘continuous improvement’ is the essence. David Langford’s class rewrote Deming’s Fourteen Points so that their application to their education was clear. They identified the various ‘customer-supplier relationships’ and this is crucial to quality management.

The transformation of the curriculum in South Africa saw the introduction of Outcomes Based Education (OBE). One important principle that OBE is based on is
collaborative learning to enable each learner to attain his full potential. At Mount Edgecumbe, Tribus (1994) observed, 'students helping one another to become independent learners'. He concluded that the school is demonstrating the true power of education. The application of Total Quality Management will greatly facilitate the successful implementation of OBE.

There exists the general perception that quality costs money. Whilst everything that happened at Mount Edgecumbe cannot be reproduced in South African public schools, an important lesson from the case study is that much can be accomplished if there is a willingness to exceed expectations of those whom you work with. Given the severe budgetary constraints under which South African public schools operate, it is useful to note Superintendent Larrae Rocheleau’s conclusion that quality does not cost more; it saves money.

Above all, the most important lesson from Mount Edgecumbe is; if we are going to deliver on our public mandate, schools need to create conditions in which students can see for themselves that what they are being asked to do is meaningful.

**CASE 2 - HEATHLAND**

Heathland is an excellent example of the importance of the commitment of top-level management to the success of Total Quality Management. Both the Principal, Geoffrey Samuel and his Deputy personally drove the process. The demographics at Heathland can compare to many large public schools in South Africa. It had a roll of 1640; 90% of the pupils drawn from ethnic minorities, creating a rich and varied mixture of cultures.

It is important to note that before embarking on the TQM route, there needs to be extensive reading and research. Writing a clear mission statement after extensive consultation with all stakeholders is a vital commencement point in the TQM journey. Establishment of a Quality Committee is necessary for the process to be driven. If affordable, the use of consultants is always welcome.

Heathland teaches us the importance of undertaking periodic audits. The purpose of
audits is to identify non-conformance with procedures and to set in train remedial measures. Schools must have clear, consistent audit procedures with an audit checklist. Heathland also teaches us the importance of proper documentation, as the quality of documentation often has a marked impact on the success of the exercise. It is important to note that Heathland, in order to perpetuate the quality culture, invested heavily in an extensive staff development programme.

Despite the various cultural mix of Heathland the Inspectors reported that the school was, ‘underpinned by a school ethos in which tolerance, respect, the importance of self-esteem, traditional values and the commitment to academic excellence are the driving principles’.

This report has valuable lessons for our public schools diversity management programmes.

CASE 3 - WESTINGHOUSE

Westinghouse is presented as a case study as it equates very closely with large public schools in disadvantaged communities. At Westinghouse, ‘many students travelled long distances to get to school’. Many entered Westinghouse with a lack of motivation, a history of educational failure and low self-esteem. The attitude of the parents at Westinghouse to the education of their children is characteristic of the attitude of most parents as revealed in the questionnaire. Lack of parental support was cited by respondents as the third most serious obstacle to quality.

Further, we can easily identify with the other problems faced by Westinghouse. Budget cuts result in the loss of staff. The Department of Education’s Rationalisation and Redeployment programme had a devastating effect on the stability of staff at many schools. The questionnaire revealed, like Westinghouse, there is little support from the bureaucracy. ‘Vague and unclear direction from the Department’ was cited as the most serious obstacle to quality.

The public education system in South Africa suffered heavily from the granting of Voluntary Severance Packages (VSP) to many educators. Through the granting of the VSPs, South Africa not only lost its most experienced educators and school
administrators, but also terminated the services of educators in the scarce fields of Maths and Science, something it could ill-afford to do, particularly in light of the global challenges of living in a technologically advancing society.

Du Toit, Van der Waldt, Bayat & Cheminais (1998: 204) point out that an important aspect of service and product delivery is how the public institution presents itself to the community. The first action of the incoming Principal at Westinghouse, L. A. Rapparort is worthy of note. He commenced by ‘marketing’ the school. A promotional piece was developed and distributed to business houses and feeder schools. Current school administrators need to acquire skills on how to successfully market their schools. Oakland (2000: 13) asserts that ‘the marketing function of an organization must take the lead in establishing the true requirements for the product or service’. The use of surveys to establish the impediments to quality improvements enables one to proceed in a systematic and methodical fashion. It provided a good starting point to open discussion on the need to change things at Westinghouse.

The seven steps that the school embarked upon are logical and purpose driven. These steps are easy for any public school to follow. It also reveals that introducing TQM is not a quick-fix solution. It is a slow tedious process involving a lot of hard work. People have to be educated not to expect instant results. The best advice from Westinghouse is to continue to persevere and wear down the resistance because the change is finally worth the effort. The letter that Westinghouse received from David N. Dinkins, Mayor of New York, encapsulates many of the benefits of introducing TQM. The student dropout rate went down, and the graduation rate went up. Greater parent and teacher involvement in the education process led to improved student outcome. After graduation many more students opted to further their studies.

Overall, the success of Westinghouse, a technical/vocational school can serve as an inspiration to other public schools to implement TQM to bring about a transformation.
CASE STUDY 4 - DELL PRIMARY

Compared to the previous cases, Dell is the first primary school to be analysed. It is also an example of an ‘advantaged’ school. Many ‘advantaged’ schools see no need to embark on a quality journey, as concepts such as TQM are perceived to be relevant only to schools that are experiencing problems. Dell Primary is selected as a case of an advantaged school successfully implementing TQM. The school enjoys excellent facilities and fine buildings amid extensive landscaped gardens. The school caters for about 400 pupils, many of who have enjoyed state or private nursery/playgroup provision. The school’s catchment area is relatively prosperous one and parents take a keen interest in the education of their children.

One of the school’s challenges was to meet the aspirations of the parents who would inevitably make comparisons with their children’s former school. An important starting point, was to create a climate conducive to all role players working with each other for the successful achievement of aims. The principle of meeting and exceeding parents and pupils expectations was high on the agenda. The school earned the valuable reputation of being a ‘caring school’.

Dell Primary’s winning of the Government Charter Mark for public sector organizations is a clear indication that there is scope even for an advantaged school to implement Total Quality Management. TQM can make a difference even at a school that appears to have everything. TQM is about continuous improvement and quality is not a static state or a destination; it is an on-going journey.

CASE 5 - KATE SULLIVAN ELEMENTARY SCHOOL

This case is selected to illustrate that TQM can be applied to all levels of the public education system. There is a need for quality management even at the elementary school level. Kate Sullivan Elementary School used Deming’s quality principles in order to shift from the 20th century ‘effective’ traditional school, to a 21st century ‘quality’ school. National Minister of Education, Professor Kader Asmal, has declared his intention to create an education and training system for the 21st century.
The contrasting experience of the mother's two children is a clear warning to schools that fail to embark on a quality journey. The transformation is vital to the continued existence of public schools. At Kate Sullivan Elementary School, the adoption of Deming's principles brought about a dramatic change in the attitude of educators, parents and learners.

CASE 6 - ST ANDREW'S PREPARATORY SCHOOL

St Andrew's is the only available, fully documented case of the formal application of TQM in a South African school. It firstly needs to be noted that St Andrew’s Prep. is a ‘private’ school and many of the conditions that prevail are not characteristic of the large majority of public schools. Nevertheless, it is an interesting local case of the successful application of TQM. In examining this case, the great benefit of the application of TQM becomes apparent- ‘it helps to point us in a new direction, a direction away from centralised, bureaucratic, autocratic thinking towards thinking about organizations and people in a far more flexible, holistic light’.

The case also reveals that it is easy for TQM to fail, particularly if people are reluctant to change. Since leadership is extremely important in the implementation of change, our support services should look at creative ways of developing our leadership. TQM is doomed to fail without bold and decisive leadership. According to Carlson there is an urgent need in South Africa for people with leadership and management skills in line with TQM principles.

What prompted St Andrew’s to undertake some form of introspection was that the school experienced a significant drop in pupil numbers in 1986. A seminar was held to work out strategies as to how the school could market itself. Conducting a SWOT analysis is useful indication as to where a school could commence in addressing their concerns. Particular note must be taken of the decision to move the school from the fringes of non-racialism towards becoming fully integrated with pupils admitted on the basis of academic criteria rather than on race or language groups. This is an important pointer to many ‘advantaged’ schools clinging to outmoded admission policies and practices.
Adopting and publishing its own Mission Statement served as a strong unifying influence at St Andrew’s Prep. Since embarking on the TQM journey, pupil numbers have increased steadily every year. St Andrew’s also teaches us the lesson that each step in the quality journey is a painful one, as one has to encounter varying degrees of suspicion and resistance. Most important of all lessons is that, TQM cannot be forced on anyone.

Another factor that contributed to the success of TQM at St Andrew’s is the establishment of a Quality Improvement Team (QIT) that drove and managed the quality process. Further, adequate training was provided for the team and the staff in general. Reading literature and attending intensive workshops was constantly emphasized. Also of note, is the fact that not only the professional staff was trained, support staff were also trained. They have an important contribution to make to the overall success or failure of the institution. Only if everyone is trained, will everyone speak the common language of quality and improvement. Having clear, democratically arrived at, work procedures is useful to ensure conformance. Non-conformance is costly in terms of time wasted, and damaged human relations. This case study underlines the importance of people within an organization treating each other with respect.

An overview of Carlson’s visit to schools in the United States of America implementing TQM, confirms the view that the present application of quality principles is making a profound impact on many American schools. TQM therefore merits serious consideration in the South African public schooling system. Carlson’s account of the transformation of Wilkerson Middle School is a shining example of hope for the thousands of disadvantaged schools in South Africa.

The various cases analysed reveal the often-dramatic changes after the implementation of TQM. If these schools can undergo such dramatic transformation, should not public schools in South Africa consider implementing TQM and reap similar rewards?
4.8 SUMMARY

This chapter has presented the main ingredients necessary for a quality culture to prevail. Vision and mission are vital ingredients to creating a quality school. The importance of planning cannot be over-estimated. A quality organization cannot just be managed – it demands a special kind of leadership. A quality leader displays distinct knowledge, skills and behaviour. In Chapter 6, the findings will be presented to reveal to what extent these elements exist currently in our public schools. This will enable certain judgements to be made on the scope and applicability of Total Quality Management. A schematic representation of the steps involved in implementing TQM in schools is offered for consideration.

In order to make the quality transformation, one needs a range of quality tools. Appropriate use of the quality tools outlined will help to ensure that quality is attained in our schools. Some case studies of the successful implementation of Total Quality Management are presented. The six cases selected enable one to see the practical implementation of TQM. The cases were selected to reflect a variety of conditions. The objective was to draw comparisons between the cases and the conditions that currently prevail in South African public schools.

The next chapter deals with the research methodology adopted in this study.
CHAPTER FIVE

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

5.1 INTRODUCTION

The focus of this chapter is a discussion of the methods used to gather data, as well as the investigative techniques employed. The various hypotheses are presented. In addition, a complete description of the sample used in this research project will be provided. The techniques utilised for the analysis of the sample and the research instruments used will be discussed.

5.2 THE RESEARCH PROBLEM

In recent years there has been much talk about transforming the public service in South Africa to improve service delivery. The education sector within the public service has been criticised for poor service delivery. The Director- General of Education, Thami Mseleku, in the Statement of Public Service Commitment argues that, ‘our challenge as public servants is how to change words into action and to ensure that we deliver a range of services and outcomes that meet people’s needs’. Despite the many quality initiatives introduced since 1994, problems still persist. Total Quality Management is an approach that has assisted business organizations to meet and exceed customer expectations and in ensuring that the business becomes globally competitive.

In the opinion of Flood (1993: xi) Total Quality Management could help to remove unnecessary and costly waste, help to locate and eradicate sources of error and to provide the consumer with reliable products and services that they really want. This study has as its main objective the investigation of the extent to which the principles of Total Quality Management, that helped the private sector transform, can
be applied to the South African public schooling system, with a view to improving service delivery.

5.3 HYPOTHESES

There is a perception in certain quarters that given the imbalances and inequities that exist in education, we cannot talk about quality before addressing the issues of equality. The disparities that exist are so vast, that all efforts should first be concentrated on addressing the issue of equitable provision of education. There is therefore, no scope for a management philosophy such as Total Quality Management being applied to the public schooling system. The conditions that exist in South African public schools do not favour the application of the principles of Total Quality Management.

In light of the above, the research was guided by the following hypotheses:

1. Vision and mission are central to a Total Quality Management practice. Since many schools lack vision and mission, it is not possible to apply TQM to the public schooling system.

2. The poor physical environment that exists in many schools does not favour the application of the principles of TQM.

3. Inadequate learning resources make it impossible for us to talk about quality initiatives.

4. Poorly qualified educators and poorly trained educators do not favour the application of the principles of Total Quality Management.

5. Current learner attitude does not help to introduce quality into public schools.

6. Customer input is central to the success of Total Quality Management. Parental support for education programmes is seriously lacking in public schools, therefore there is no scope for TQM to succeed.

7. Strong leadership commitment is a vital ingredient for Total Quality Management to succeed. The quality of management that exists in most public schools is cause for concern – large parts of the system are seriously
dysfunctional. Therefore, Total Quality Management cannot be applied to the public schooling system.

8. Teacher union activity disrupts learning and teaching in many public schools. Union members would therefore not favour the introduction of TQM.

9. Lack of support from the education department makes it impossible to introduce the principles of Total Quality Management in public schools.

10. Prompt and regular feedback is an important ingredient of TQM. Currently in public schools, poor monitoring and evaluation of learner performance make it impossible to introduce the principles of TQM.

5.4 LITERATURE REVIEW

Remenyi, Williams, Money & Swartz (1998: 65) point out that the literature review is a material part of the research process taking a significant amount of time and energy. Further, they caution that in order to review the literature adequately it is essential that the researcher examines the published work critically, because not all that is published should be taken at face value.

Firstly, a survey of literature – books, journals, government publications and media reports- was made to establish the state of education prior to 1994, and to establish an overview of the current state of education.

Public service transformation in terms of both the international experience and the South African scenario was explored.

Literature was examined to trace the history of the quality movement. The principal viewpoints of the leading quality gurus were explored.

A critical study of current quality initiatives in education was undertaken. The main focus was Developmental Appraisal for Educators, Whole School Evaluation and the National Teacher Awards.
The relevance of Total Quality Management, an industrial theory, to the education sector was carefully examined. The extent to which the quality principles of Dr W. Edwards Deming can be applied to the public schooling system was explored.

The main ingredients of a quality culture were researched in detail and an exploration of some of the tools for quality improvement was made.

A critical study of literature relating to case studies of the successful implementation of TQM was undertaken.

5.5 THE POPULATION, SAMPLE AND SAMPLING TECHNIQUES

While a population refers to an entire collection of scores or individuals that are being investigated, a sample, on the other hand, refers to only a part of the total population under investigation. A population can therefore be defined as, ‘All scores or members of a group that are of interest to a researcher, the group to which the researcher wishes to generalise’ (Harris 1995: 436). On the other hand, a sample can be defined as, ‘the group of scores that the researcher has or the people providing the scores, ordinarily, a subset of a population’ (Harris 1995: 436).

According to Remenyi, Williams, Money & Swartz (1998: 192) ideally, the sample is chosen so that no significant differences exist between the sample and the population in any important characteristics. The sample serves as a model for the population, and thus, from a statistical analysis of the sample data, it is possible to generalise to the whole population with a specified degree of confidence.

For the purpose of this research, the population was the 74 422 educators in the Kwazulu-Natal Department of Education & Culture (ELRC Report). As it was not possible to survey all the members of the population, a sample was necessary. The stratified random sampling technique was used. The population was firstly divided into different strata. The province of KwaZulu-Natal is made up of 8 regions – Durban South, North Durban, Pietermaritzburg, Ulundi, Empangeni, Vryheid, Ladysmith, and Port Shepstone. As each of these regions display distinctly different
variables, the sample had to include members from all 8 regions. The sample had to include remote rural, semi-rural and urban schools. Schools reflecting the different deciles of poverty in terms of being described as 'advantaged' or 'disadvantaged' had to be included in the sample. Within the region, the random sampling technique was used. Random sampling is a method of selecting subjects such that each individual in the population has an equal chance of being selected. The results obtained for the subjects can then be generalised to the entire population under investigation (Harris 1995: 7).

Approximately 100 questionnaires were sent to educators in each of the eight regions – a total of 800. A total of 455 (56, 88%) responses were received. The validity of the results obtained from a sample focuses on the extent to which they satisfy their ultimate purpose. The sample for this investigation was selected on the basis that the scores obtained would accurately reflect whether educators in general, working in public schools in South Africa, believe that there is any scope for a management philosophy – Total Quality Management- to be introduced in their schools.

16 Chairpersons/members of governing bodies were interviewed. The 4 key Departmental officials involved with quality initiatives were interviewed. Governing body chairpersons/ members were interviewed to establish whether they were aware that it was their duty to institute quality at schools and what they believed were the prospects for the introduction of Total Quality Management at their schools. Department officials were interviewed to establish the extent of success that the Department was currently enjoying in the introduction of quality initiatives such as Developmental Appraisal for Educators (DAS) and Whole School Evaluation (WSE).

5.6 RESEARCH INSTRUMENTS

According to Neuman (1997: 30) data collection techniques can be grouped into two broad categories, namely quantitative techniques and qualitative techniques. Quantitative techniques provide data in the nature of numbers while qualitative techniques provide data in the nature of pictures or words.
Remenyi, Williams, Money & Swartz (1998: 192) point out that these two approaches are not mutually exclusive and the research scientist will often work with both, so that qualitative and quantitative research techniques are sometimes viewed as the end of a continuum. Researchers should be ready to draw on both kinds of evidence in order to address different aspects of a research problem.

For the purposes of this research, both qualitative and quantitative approaches were used. The research instruments chosen for this investigation were:

- **A questionnaire** – directed at educators in public schools in all eight regions in the province of Kwazulu-Natal.

- **Interviews** – semi-structured and open-ended interviews were conducted with chairpersons/members of school governing bodies, and departmental officials in charge of administering quality initiatives.

### 5.6.1 THE QUESTIONNAIRE

The questionnaire is a convenient and effective method of obtaining answers to certain questions. The use of questionnaires allows researchers to quantify different attitudes, personality traits, opinions, and interest of the population under investigation. Furthermore, questionnaires enable researchers to uncover a variety of different biographical data (Harris 1995: 45).

Whilst questionnaires are a popular way of obtaining data, O’Sullivan & Rassel (1999: 230) caution that poor questionnaires may result in low response rates, unreliable or invalid data, or inadequate or inappropriate information. They suggest that quality questionnaires require well-worded questions, clear responses, and attractive layouts. In addition, investigators must use systematic procedures to decide exactly what to ask. Firstly, the researcher must clarify the study’s purpose, ascertain that the proposed questions are consistent with its purpose, and determine whether the survey information will be adequate. Secondly, the researcher must make sure that the
questions and the overall data collection strategy will yield reliable and operationally valid data.

Researchers, therefore, need to invest a tremendous amount of effort in the design of a questionnaire to protect the reliability and validity of the data. In designing an effective questionnaire which will provide acceptable content validity, attention needs to be focused on a number of key areas, such as the wording of questions, length of questions, the sequence of the questions and the layout of the questionnaire (Neuman 1997: 244).

With regard to the type of questions, they can either be open-ended or closed-ended. Remenyi, Williams, Money & Swartz (1998: 152) point out that the type of question chosen has implications for the type of evidence that can be obtained and therefore on the method of analysis of the evidence. Open-ended questions are typically used in exploratory studies where the researcher is not in a position or is not willing to pre-specify the response categories. The response is in the form of a narrative which has to be analysed qualitatively. A great advantage of the open-ended question is that they afford the respondent an opportunity to respond in candid fashion revealing his true feelings and perceptions. A disadvantage of open-ended questions is that they require the respondent to be articulate and willing to spend time on giving a full response to the question. On the other hand, closed-ended questions are typically used in quantitative studies. The assumption is that detailed knowledge is available on the attributes of interest and therefore it is possible to pre-specify the categories of response.

In the questionnaire employed in this research, there was a balance between open-ended and closed-ended questions. As the questionnaire was directed at educators, there was no real concern about difficulties with the language used. The overwhelming majority of respondents were able to interpret the questions and respond appropriately.

Martins, Loubser and Van Wyk (1996: 219) advise that proper sequencing of questions will enable the researcher to improve the level of understanding achieved by the subject and also induces '...a harmonious flow of thought in the questionnaire'.
With this in mind, the questionnaire was divided into four sections:

- **Section A – Biographical and General Information.**
- **Section B – The Constitution, the Basic Principles Governing Public Administration and Service Delivery.**
- **Section C – The Obstacles to Quality.**
- **Section D – The Principles of TQM.**
- **Section E – Quality and Education Policy.**

With regard to measurement, questionnaire responses were quantified by assigning numbers to the responses according to a given set of rules. According to Remenyi, Williams, Money & Swartz (1998: 152) measurement can be made at four levels: nominal, ordinal, interval and ratio. Variables that are measured at the nominal or ordinal level are often referred to as qualitative variables, while those variables measured at the interval or ratio level are referred to as quantitative variables.

### 5.6.1.1 NOMINAL SCALES

According to Remenyi, Williams, Money & Swartz (1998: 152) nominal scales, which are the least sophisticated level of measurement, are used to place individuals or objects into categories with respect to some characteristics. For example, in this research, educators were classified in terms of years of experience, professional rank, and in what type of school they are teaching. Numbers are assigned for each response, for example 1 – for primary, 2 – secondary, 3 – combined, 4 – LSEN.

Nominal data have no logical order but can be counted (Proctor 1997: 114). The mode is the correct measure of central tendency when using nominal data (Dillon, Madden & Firtle 1994: 290).
5.6.1.2 ORDINAL SCALES

Ordinal scales are used when the respondent is asked for responses in the form of a ranking ordering. While the evidence is again put into categories, the numbers assigned indicate the ordering of categories. Respondents were required to identify the obstacles to quality. They were presented with a table of 10 obstacles, and they were required to rank them from 1 to 10, with 1 representing the most serious problem.

Remenyi, Williams, Money & Swartz (1998: 153) caution that while there is order in the numbers assigned, the intervals between the numbers have no meaning. For example, if a respondent gives ‘lack of parental support’ a ranking of ‘1’ and gives ‘poor monitoring and evaluation of learner performance’ a ranking of ‘2’, what is known is that ‘lack of parental support’ is a more serious obstacle to quality than ‘poor monitoring and evaluation of learner performance’. However, what is not known is how much more serious an obstacle one is compared to the other. The difference in rank does not provide information on the difference in intensity. Furthermore, there is no scale to show a regular difference in intensity.

An appropriate measure of central tendency when using ordinal measurement is the mode and median (Dillon, Madden & Firtle 1994: 290).

5.6.1.3 INTERVAL SCALES

Interval scales possess the property that the difference between the numbers on the scale can be interpreted meaningfully. The more categories that are used for rating the scale, the more likely the properties of ‘true’ interval variables will be exhibited by the rating scale (Remenyi, Williams, Money & Swartz 1998: 153- 154). The use of interval measurement allows researchers to use the mean, median, and mode as suitable measures of central tendency (Churchill 1995: 457).
5.6.1.4 RATIO SCALES

Ratio scales provide the highest level of measurement. For these scales, the numbers on the scale possess all the properties of the nominal, ordinal and interval scales and in addition, ratios of numbers on the scale have meaning. Ratio evidence is the highest level of evidence and can be analysed by the full range of statistical techniques. For example, the item requiring the annual school fee payable per learner can be analysed using the ratio scale (Remenyi, Williams, Money & Swartz 1998: 153-154).

5.6.1.5 THE LIKERT SCALE

Questions on the Constitution and Public Administration and The Principles of TQM were formulated using the popular scaling technique called the Likert Scale. The Likert Scale was developed by Rensis Likert to measure the direction and strength of an individual's opinion. The Likert scale is also referred to as Summated Scales and can be analysed either on an item-by-item basis or summated to comprise a particular score for each subject. The Likert scale is simple and easy to construct, and is also useful for mail surveys since the instructions can be easily understood (Hawkins & Tull 1994: 297).

However, according to Zikmund (1994: 372) the major disadvantage of the Likert scale is its inability to quantify and adequately explain a single score.

In Section B, respondents were required to give their opinions and perceptions on a five-point scale as to what extent the values and principles governing public administration were being adhered to; with '1' representing the position that they were not being adhered to at all and '5' representing the position that they were being strongly adhered to. In Section D, respondents were presented with the main principles of TQM. On a scale of 1 to 5, they were required to indicate to what extent they believe these principles can be applied to their particular schools. '1' represents the position that there is no scope at all, while '5' represents the position that there is great scope for the implementation of the principles of Total Quality Management in their schools.
5.6.2 PRE-TESTING AND VALIDATION OF THE QUESTIONNAIRE

A measuring instrument is valid to the extent that it is accurately able to measure that which it intends to measure. According to Huysamen (1994: 35) the 'validity of test scores refers to the extent to which they satisfy their intended purpose. Thus, if a test is meant to predict future success in an academic course, its validity hinges on just how well its scores succeed in performing this function'.

At the crux of validity is the level of compatibility between a construct and the indicators of it. Neuman (1997: 141) defines validity as the extent to which 'conceptual and operational definitions mesh with each other. The better the fit, the greater the measurement validity'.

The questionnaire used in this research study provides an effective investigation into the scope and applicability of Total Quality Management to the public schooling system. This measuring instrument has sufficient content validity. The questionnaire was compiled after a comprehensive literature survey was undertaken, ensuring that all relevant factors were included in its construction to protect its content validity. In addition, a pilot study was conducted to safeguard the internal validity of the questionnaire.

The questionnaire was pre-tested by four masters graduates who provided some suggestions in simplifying the wording of some parts of the questionnaire. It was established that the questionnaire was understood and their answers showed enough variation for the planned analysis to be conducted. It was also clear that the questionnaire was able to hold their interest to fully complete it.

The questionnaire was then piloted. According to O'Sullivan & Rassel (1999: 235) the pilot study involves conducting the entire study as planned on a small sample representing the target population. A sample of 30 educators of varying professional ranks was selected. The result of the pilot study revealed that the questionnaire is reliable and valid as a measuring instrument. After minor adjustments, the final questionnaire was administered to the sample selected.
5.6.3 INTERVIEWS

In the view of Remenyi, Williams Money & Swartz (1998) interviews constitute an effective means of collecting large amounts of evidence. Types of interviews differ, depending on the amount of structure imposed by the researcher. This in turn will determine the freedom of the respondent in replying to or elaborating on the questions. There are two types of interviews: open-ended interviews and structured interviews. A mixture of both was used in interviewing departmental officials and chairpersons/ members of school governing bodies.

Interviewing four key education department officials who are involved in quality initiatives such as Developmental Appraisal of Educators (DAS) and Whole School Evaluation (WSE) proved useful in establishing what the obstacles are to implementing a quality programme. This enabled the researcher to establish what steps can be taken to overcome these obstacles in order to give an initiative such as Total Quality Management (TQM) a chance of being successfully implemented. The implementation model proposed, takes into account current concerns about quality programmes.

Sixteen chairpersons/ members of governing bodies of schools reflecting differing school climates were interviewed. Interviewing governing body members has firstly established whether they are aware of their responsibility to ensure quality in education. Interviews were intended to reveal whether the ‘customers’ of education, i.e. learners and parents are satisfied with the quality of service received.

According to Bell (1993: 93) the major advantage of the interview is its adaptability. A skilful interviewer can follow up ideas, probe responses and investigate motives and feelings, which the questionnaire can never do. The way in which a response is made (the tone of voice, facial expressions, hesitation, etc.) can provide information that a written response would conceal. Questionnaire responses have to be taken at face value, but a response in an interview can be developed and clarified.
The interview schedule prepared for chairpersons/members of school governing bodies was not intended to stifle spontaneity on the part of respondents; they were allowed to state what is important to them. The purpose of the loose structure was to ensure that all topics crucial to the study are in fact covered. Further, the focused interview greatly facilitated the arduous task of data analysis.

5.7 STATISTICAL ANALYSIS OF DATA

In order to support or refute the hypotheses, empirical evidence has to be provided. The data obtained has to be presented in an appropriate fashion and then analysed. According to Sekaran (2000: 307) in data analysis we have three objectives:

- Getting the feel for the data
- Testing the goodness of data
- Testing the hypotheses developed for the research.

The feel for the data will give preliminary ideas of how good the scales are, how well the coding and entering of data have been done. In this research study, data was analysed using descriptive statistics.

5.7.1 DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS

The data obtained from research projects should be clearly and concisely presented. This facilitates complete understanding of information on the part of the user. Descriptive statistics ‘include both specific numbers and ways of presenting data in tabular form in order to make the information succinct but clear to the reader’ (Harris 1995: 6). In short, descriptive statistics involve transformation of raw data into a form that would provide information to describe a set of factors in a situation. This is done through ordering and manipulation of the raw data collected (Sekaran 2000: 395).
The most popular tools of descriptive statistics include frequency distributions, measurement of central tendency, and measures of variability (Dillon, Madden & Firtle 1994: 292).

5.7.1.1 FREQUENCIES

Frequencies refer to the number of times various subcategories of a certain phenomenon occur, from which the percentages and the cumulative percentages of their occurrence can easily be calculated (Sekaran 2000: 396). The use of frequency distributions enables the classification of data into groups of values, clearly illustrating the number of observations from the data set that falls into each of the classes. The data may be presented in tabular and graphic form.

5.7.1.2 MEASURES OF CENTRAL TENDENCY

According to Sekaran (2000: 397) it is often useful to describe a series of observations in a data set in a meaningful way, which would enable individuals to get an idea of, or 'a feel' for the basic characteristics of the data. Harris (1995: 93) argues that while a frequency distribution is an effective method of communicating the overall picture of scores in a distribution, researchers may sometimes require one or two figures that represent a group of scores. In such a situation, a score which is at the central point of the distribution is selected, that is, a measure of central tendency.

The measures of central tendency are the mean, median and mode.

5.7.1.2.1 MEAN

The mean or the average is a measure of central tendency that offers a general picture of the data without unnecessarily inundating one with each of the observations in a data set. The mean of a set of 10 observations, is the sum of the 10 individual
observations divided by 10 (Sekaran 2000: 397). The mean represents the average individual in the sample.

5.7.1.2.2 THE MEDIAN

The median is the central item in a group of observations when they are arranged in either an ascending or a descending order (Sekaran 2000: 397).

The median can also be viewed as the 50th percentile. According to Harris (1995: 95) the most important feature of the median is that it ‘has the property of minimising the average absolute deviation of the raw scores’.

5.7.1.2.3 THE MODE

Sekaran (2000: 397- 398) argues that in some cases, a set of observations would not lend itself to a meaningful representation through either the mean or the median, but can be described by the most frequently occurring phenomenon.

For example, in the question requiring respondents to rank the obstacles to quality, calculation of the mean and median will serve no useful purpose. However, looking for the most frequently occurring phenomenon, the mode can prove particularly useful.

While the mean, median and mode can be useful measures of central tendency; we also have to examine dispersions.

5.7.1.3 MEASURES OF DISPERSION

While measures of central tendency provide valuable information on the basic characteristics of data, it is useful for researchers to determine the variability of a collection of observations. In this respect, the three measures of dispersion, namely, the range, variance, and standard deviation, provide crucial information on the manner in which a group of scores vary from the mean score.
5.7.1.3.1 THE RANGE

Range refers to the extreme values in a set of observations. In other words, it is the
difference between the highest score and the lowest score in a collection of data
(Sekaran 2000: 398). Huysamen (1990: 51) cautions that since the range is based on
only two scores, it is not a very good indicator of variability.

5.7.1.3.2 THE VARIANCE

According to Sekaran (2000: 398) the variance is calculated by subtracting the mean
from each of the observations in the data set, taking the square of this difference, and
dividing the total of these by the number of observations.
In other words, the variance is an indication of the extent to which score values are
dispersed from the mean. If all score values were equal, then the variance would be
zero. The greater the dispersion of the score values from the mean, the greater the

5.7.1.3.3 THE STANDARD DEVIATION

The standard deviation offers an index of the spread of a distribution or the variability
in the data (Sekaran 2000: 399). It is the square root of the variance or the square root
of the average squared deviation. The process of squaring and then taking the square
root ensures that the standard deviation is in the same units as the raw scores (Harris

The standard deviation indicates the dispersion of raw scores from the mean score.
Sekaran (2000: 399) contends that the standard deviation, in conjunction with the
mean is a very useful tool because of the following statistical rules in a normal
distribution:
• Most observations fall within three standard deviations of the average or the mean.
• More than 90% of the observations are within two standard deviations of the mean.
• More than half of the observations are within one standard deviation of the mean.

5.8 SUMMARY

The chapter covered succinctly the research problem and the various hypotheses. The extent of the literature review is explained. A detailed discussion of the sampling techniques and the research instruments employed was provided. The main research instruments are the questionnaire and interviews. A broad overview of the techniques involved in the statistical analysis of data was provided in preparation for the next chapter, where the analysis, interpretation and discussion of data will take place.
CHAPTER SIX

ANALYSIS, INTERPRETATION AND DISCUSSION OF DATA

6.1 INTRODUCTION

In keeping with the research methodology outlined in the previous chapter, the data obtained via the questionnaires received from educators is analysed. The information received during interviews conducted with governing body chairpersons/members and departmental officials is analysed in terms of commonalities and recurring themes.

The analysis is divided into two parts:

**Part A** deals with the analysis and interpretation of data from the 455 questionnaires received.

**Part B** provides a discussion on the responses to questions put to governing body chairpersons/members and departmental officials.

In Part A, data is firstly presented in tabular form indicating the item, the frequency, percentage and the cumulative percentage. The frequency assigned to ‘0’ is used to indicate that, the respondent did not answer that particular item.

Thereafter, data is presented in a graphic form to enable one to make observations easily.

In Part B, the information ascertained at the interviews is presented in a narrative form. Ideas and thoughts are grouped together in terms of recurring themes.
6.2 PART A : THE QUESTIONNAIRE

QUESTION ONE : EDUCATOR EXPERIENCE

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>EXPERIENCE</th>
<th>FREQUENCY</th>
<th>PERCENTAGE</th>
<th>CUMULATIVE PERCENTAGE</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>0 – 5 years</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>8.79</td>
<td>8.79</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6 – 10 years</td>
<td>83</td>
<td>18.24</td>
<td>27.03</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11 – 15 years</td>
<td>89</td>
<td>19.56</td>
<td>46.59</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16 – 20 years</td>
<td>121</td>
<td>26.59</td>
<td>73.18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>21 years and over</td>
<td>122</td>
<td>26.81</td>
<td>99.99</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TOTAL</td>
<td>455</td>
<td>99.99</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

TABLE 6.1 EXPERIENCE OF EDUCATORS

This item establishes the teaching experience of the sample. Table 6.1 and Figure 6.1 indicate that there is a fair distribution. Included in the sample are 40 educators who commenced training and teaching in the post-apartheid era. These newly appointed educators would have been trained in the latest teaching methodologies. Training in Outcomes Based Education (OBE) and technology education were aimed at addressing issues of equity and quality. The bulk of the sample (53.41 %) have over 15 years of teaching experience – a point where educators can be reasonably classified as ‘experienced’. This helps to increase the reliability of the observations on quality in education.
QUESTION TWO: PROFESSIONAL RANK

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>PROFESSIONAL RANK</th>
<th>FREQUENCY</th>
<th>PERCENTAGE</th>
<th>CUMULATIVE %</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>LI Educator</td>
<td>339</td>
<td>74.50</td>
<td>74.50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Head of LA/Dept</td>
<td>73</td>
<td>16.04</td>
<td>90.54</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Deputy Principal</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>4.84</td>
<td>95.38</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Principal</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>4.40</td>
<td>99.78</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.21</td>
<td>99.99</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

TABLE 6.2 PROFESSIONAL RANK OF EDUCATORS

This item reveals that educators of all professional ranks were included in the study. Level 1 educators, by virtue of their numbers, would make up the bulk of the sample. Management members (HODs, Deputy Principals and Principals) make up 25% of the sample. This ensures that the viewpoints of both level 1 educators and management on issues of quality in education are reflected. Further, it was established that there is no significant difference in the perceptions of level 1 educators and management on the issues of implementing quality strategies in schools.
QUESTION THREE: TYPE OF SCHOOL

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>TYPE OF SCHOOL</th>
<th>FREQUENCY</th>
<th>PERCENTAGE</th>
<th>CUMULATIVE %</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. PRIMARY</td>
<td>145</td>
<td>31.87</td>
<td>31.87</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. SECONDARY</td>
<td>250</td>
<td>54.95</td>
<td>86.82</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. COMBINED</td>
<td>39</td>
<td>8.57</td>
<td>95.39</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. LSEN</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>4.62</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>455</td>
<td>100</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

TABLE 6.3 TYPE OF SCHOOL

Table 6.3 and Figure 6.3 reveal that all types of schools are covered in the sample. The majority of respondents are from secondary schools, where currently there is a debate on whether the results obtained in the final matriculation examination is a reliable indicator of quality. There is a strong feeling that more than one indicator should be used to judge a school’s quality.

31.8% of respondents teach in primary schools. Combined schools refer to those schools accommodating both primary and secondary learners, whilst LSEN schools cater for learners with special education needs. Whilst no significant difference could be established in how educators from different types of institutions perceive quality, it was interesting to note that 76.19% of LSEN educators were optimistic about implementing total quality management, which is not significantly different from the 79.5% of educators overall who were optimistic about total quality management.
### QUESTION FOUR: GEOGRAPHIC LOCATION OF SCHOOL

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Location</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
<th>Cumulative %</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Remote rural</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>3.96</td>
<td>3.96</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Semi rural</td>
<td>81</td>
<td>17.80</td>
<td>21.76</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Urban</td>
<td>356</td>
<td>78.24</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>455</strong></td>
<td><strong>100</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### TABLE 6.4 GEOGRAPHIC LOCATION OF SCHOOL

![Bar chart showing geographic location of schools](chart.png)

**FIGURE 6.4 GEOGRAPHIC LOCATION OF SCHOOL**

It is evident that the overwhelming majority of respondents are from urban schools. However, of the total of 99 (21.76%) respondents from remote rural and rural schools, 71 (71.72%) see above average prospects for the implementation of the principles of total quality management in schools. An interesting picture emerges when one examines the school fee structure of the rural schools.
The following table and figure (6.4.1) reflect the range of the 99 rural school’s annual fees.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>FREQUENCY</th>
<th>PERCENTAGE</th>
<th>CUMULATIVE %</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>R1 – R200</td>
<td>67</td>
<td>67.68</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bet R201 – R500</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>31.31</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bet R501 – R1000</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1.01</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TOTAL</td>
<td>99</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**TABLE 6.4.1 RANGE OF SCHOOL FEES OF RURAL SCHOOLS**

This helps to dispel the assumption that quality is entirely dependent on money and that quality programmes cannot be implemented at poor schools.
Of 297 'advantages schools', 168 (56.57 %) charge a school fee of between R201 to R500. Further, these schools report an average school fee return of between 50 % and 69 %. 
QUESTION 6: ANNUAL SCHOOL FEES

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>ANNUAL SCHOOL FEE</th>
<th>FREQUENCY</th>
<th>PERCENTAGE</th>
<th>CUMULATIVE %</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. R1 – R200</td>
<td>57</td>
<td>12.53</td>
<td>12.53</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. R201 – R500</td>
<td>226</td>
<td>49.67</td>
<td>62.20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. R501 – R1000</td>
<td>89</td>
<td>19.56</td>
<td>81.76</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. R1001 – R3000</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0.44</td>
<td>82.20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. R3001 – R5000</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>6.81</td>
<td>89.01</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. ABOVE R5000</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>10.99</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TOTAL</td>
<td>455</td>
<td>100</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

TABLE 6.6. ANNUAL SCHOOL FEE

FIGURE 6.6. ANNUAL SCHOOL FEE

From the above it can be seen that over 60% of the schools charge under R500-00 while 81.76% of the schools charge fees that do not exceed R1000-00. Linked to the fact that 79.5% of respondents feel that there is good or great scope for the application of the principles of TQM to their schools, it can be concluded that quality is not significantly dependent on the material position of the school. This helps to dispel the myth that quality costs money. In fact, we have to agree with Larrae Rocheleau (1994: 14) when he concluded that quality does not cost more money; quality saves money.
QUESTION 6.1: SCHOOL FEE RETURN

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SCHOOL FEE RETURN</th>
<th>FREQUENCY</th>
<th>PERCENTAGE</th>
<th>CUMULATIVE %</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>90% - 100%</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>6.38</td>
<td>6.38</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>70% - 89%</td>
<td>133</td>
<td>29.23</td>
<td>35.61</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>50% - 69%</td>
<td>128</td>
<td>28.13</td>
<td>63.74</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>40% - 49%</td>
<td>90</td>
<td>19.78</td>
<td>83.52</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>BELOW 40%</td>
<td>75</td>
<td>16.48</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

455   100

TABLE 6.6.1 PERCENTAGE OF PARENTS PAYING FEES

FIGURE 6.6.1 PERCENTAGE OF PARENTS PAYING FEES

It can safely be concluded that the majority of parents pay over 50% of the actual fee due. Therefore, parents would require some return on their investments. It would therefore, not be unreasonable for parents to demand a high quality education.
**QUESTION 7: EDUCATOR QUALIFICATION**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>QUALIFICATION</th>
<th>FREQUENCY</th>
<th>PERCENTAGE</th>
<th>CUMULATIVE %</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Lower than Gr 12</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Gr 12 (matric)</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>2.86</td>
<td>2.86</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Diploma/Degree</td>
<td>314</td>
<td>69.01</td>
<td>71.87</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Honours Degree</td>
<td>99</td>
<td>21.76</td>
<td>93.63</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Masters Degree</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>5.49</td>
<td>99.12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. Doctoral Degree</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.22</td>
<td>99.34</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>0.66</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>455</strong></td>
<td><strong>100</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**TABLE 6.7 EDUCATOR QUALIFICATION**

![Bar graph](image)

**FIGURE 6.7 EDUCATOR QUALIFICATION**

From the above table and graph is clearly evident that the majority of educators (69.01%) have the minimum requirement of a teaching diploma or degree. This has been accomplished through the various initiatives of the Department of Education and ELRC to assist educators to upgrade their qualifications.

The 2.86% of educators who have just Grade 12 as their qualification, are located in rural schools. It is pleasing to note that 27.47% of educators have gone on to acquire advanced degrees. The above picture of the training and qualification of the human resource bodes well for the attainment of quality in schools. Appropriately qualified personnel is a vital ingredient to ensure the successful implementation of total quality management.
Question 9 and Question 10.1 to 10.6 were designed to gauge consumer satisfaction with the level and quality of service in the public sector in general and education in particular. Questions aimed at eliciting whether the state was meeting its obligations in providing a basic education to all its citizens, and whether the basic tenets of fair and equitable service delivery were being observed.

The following table and figure capture the cumulative picture. ‘1’ represented the position that the key principles were not at all being observed, whilst ‘5’ represented the position that they were being strongly adhered to.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>FREQUENCY</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>%</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>37.52</td>
<td>30.51</td>
<td>7.93</td>
<td>3.75</td>
<td>2.15</td>
<td>99.86</td>
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</table>

**TABLE 6.8 LEVEL OF SATISFACTION WITH PUBLIC SERVICE DELIVERY**

From the above a barely satisfactory picture emerges. Public perception of the effective and efficient provision of services tends more to the negative. This reveals that the public is aware of the quality of service that they should be receiving, but are not receiving. There is a strong case for urgent public sector reform in South Africa so that public servants can deliver in terms of the principles of *Batho Pele*.
SECTION C

OBSTACLES TO QUALITY

QUESTION 11

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</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

TABLE 6.9 – OBSTACLES TO QUALITY

RANK ORDER IN TERMS OF MOST SERIOUS OBSTACLES

1. Lack of support from Education Department
2. Learner attitude
3. Lack of parental support
4. Inadequate learning resources
5. Poor physical environment
6. Teacher Union Activity
7. Poor leadership & communication – Principal/SMT
8. Poorly qualified/trained educators
9. School lacks vision and mission
10. Poor monitoring and evaluation of learner performance
QUESTION 12: MISSION STATEMENT

<table>
<thead>
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<th>FREQUENCY</th>
<th>PERCENTAGE</th>
<th>CUMULATIVE %</th>
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<td>YES</td>
<td>414</td>
<td>90.98</td>
<td>90.98</td>
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<td>41</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>TOTAL</td>
<td>455</td>
<td>100</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

TABLE 6.10 SCHOOL MISSION STATEMENT

From the above it is clear that the overwhelming majority of schools (90.98%) have mission statements. The literature surveyed for this study clearly identified the mission statement as the first vital ingredient of a quality school. West-Burnham (1997: 79-80) sees the mission statement as a platform for action.
84.39% of respondents indicated that their school’s mission statement makes reference to quality. Question 12.3 that required respondents to quote the direct reference to quality, yielded the following common references:

- high quality public education
• develop talents to the fullest
• put learning and teaching first
• continuous improvement
• exceptional performance
• educational excellence
• world-class education

All the above phrases are consistent with the principles of Total Quality Management. The fact that the majority of schools are mindful of quality and have quality as a daily focus, leads one to conclude that they will not be averse to the idea of implementing Total Quality Management – a philosophy that emphasizes 'continuous improvement' to meet and exceed customer expectations.

Question 12.3 required respondents to indicate some recent plans that have flowed from the mission statement. The following are some of the frequent responses:

• expanded curriculum
• staff professional development programme
• learnerships to ensure job related experience
• wider range of extra-curricular activities
• greater involvement in co-curricular programmes
• vigorous school maintenance programmes
• all-inclusive school development plan
QUESTION 13: THE ENVIRONMENT AND TQM

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
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<th>FREQUENCY</th>
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<th>CUMULATIVE %</th>
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<tr>
<td>YES</td>
<td>335</td>
<td>73.62</td>
<td>73.62</td>
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<tr>
<td>NO</td>
<td>120</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>TOTAL</td>
<td>455</td>
<td>100</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

TABLE 6.12 THE ENVIRONMENT AND TQM

FIGURE 6.11 THE ENVIRONMENT AND TQM

The majority of schools (73.62%) viewed their physical environment as conducive to attaining quality. This was substantiated by pointing out that they have land and buildings. There are an adequate number of classrooms.

Of those who responded ‘no’ (80%) were mainly from the rural areas. These schools cite the following common problems:

- inadequate toilets for both learners and educators
- not enough classrooms
- problems with water, electricity and telephone

The above problems can be attended to, so as to pave the way for quality programmes. There is a need to work systematically with the Schools Register of Needs.
TABLE 6.13 LEARNING RESOURCES

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>FREQUENCY</th>
<th>PERCENTAGE</th>
<th>CUMULATIVE %</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>YES</td>
<td>154</td>
<td>33.85</td>
<td>33.85</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NO</td>
<td>294</td>
<td>64.62</td>
<td>98.47</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>1.54</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>TOTAL</td>
<td>455</td>
<td>100</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

FIGURE 6.12 LEARNING RESOURCES

The majority of educators (64.62%) complain of inadequate resources. Three recurring details that were used to substantiate their claim were:

- no, or inadequate supply of textbooks
- no resource centres, or poorly equipped resource centres.
- no laboratories

The question of textbooks could be explained by pointing out that, given the rapid curriculum changes that are taking place, schools are reluctant to invest in large stocks of books that could soon become obsolete.
QUESTION 15: STAFF DEVELOPMENT TEAM

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>FREQUENCY</th>
<th>PERCENTAGE</th>
<th>CUMULATIVE %</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>YES</td>
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<td>68.13</td>
<td>68.13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NO</td>
<td>136</td>
<td>29.89</td>
<td>98.78</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>1.99</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TOTAL</td>
<td>455</td>
<td>100</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

TABLE 6.14 PRESENCE OF A STAFF DEVELOPMENT TEAM

The majority of schools (68.13%) have staff development teams (SDT). The SDT is entrusted with the task of initiating, coordinating and monitoring the developmental appraisal of educators. On-going appraisal is fundamental to the success of Total Quality Management.
**QUESTION 15.1: STAFF DEVELOPMENT PLAN**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>FREQUENCY</th>
<th>PERCENTAGE</th>
<th>CUMULATIVE %</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>YES</td>
<td>283</td>
<td>62.20</td>
<td>62.20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NO</td>
<td>160</td>
<td>35.16</td>
<td>97.36</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>2.64</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TOTAL</td>
<td>455</td>
<td>100</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**TABLE 6.15 STAFF DEVELOPMENT PLAN**

![Bar chart showing the frequencies of different responses to the staff development plan question.]

**FIGURE 6.14 STAFF DEVELOPMENT PLAN**

The majority of schools (62.2%) have a staff development plan drawn up. The main purpose of the staff development plan is to ensure that the development of staff proceeds in an organized and systematic fashion. Clear goals and career path developments need to be worked out before proceeding with staff development.
QUESTION 15.2: STAFF DEVELOPMENT

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>FREQUENCY</th>
<th>PERCENTAGE</th>
<th>CUMULATIVE %</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>YES</td>
<td>175</td>
<td>38.46</td>
<td>38.46</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NO</td>
<td>265</td>
<td>58.24</td>
<td>96.70</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>3.30</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TOTAL</td>
<td>455</td>
<td>100</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

TABLE 6.16 STAFF DEVELOPMENT

Despite the fact that the majority of schools have a properly constituted staff development team (SDT) and a staff development plan, the majority of educators (58.24%) report that not enough is being done to develop staff professionally. This would point to a capacity problem in terms of policy implementation and execution of duties. Failure to develop staff professionally is undoubtedly, a serious obstacle to implementing quality programmes.

However, the desire on the part of the majority of educators to be developed professionally augurs well for the implementation of TQM.
PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT WORKSHOPS

On an average, educators attended 3 workshops in 2002.

The overwhelming majority (90%) of the workshops dealt with implementing Outcomes Based Education (OBE), and Continuous Assessment (CASS) moderation. Workshops on gender equity and transformation, management topics, the Grade 9 GETC, workshops organized by the Association of Professional Educators of KwaZulu-Natal (APEK) and the conduct of the Senior Certificate Examination, account for the remaining 10% of workshops attended.

From the above, it is clear that educators are attending workshops. On-going professional development is central to the Total Quality Management philosophy.
QUESTION 15.5: TEAM WORK

Educators were required to rate on a scale of 1 to 5, staff commitment to teamwork, with ‘1’ being poor and ‘5’ being excellent.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>FREQUENCY</th>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>4</th>
<th>5</th>
<th>0</th>
<th>TOTAL</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>PERCENTAGE</td>
<td>2.86</td>
<td>11.43</td>
<td>32.09</td>
<td>34.95</td>
<td>17.58</td>
<td>1.10</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

TABLE 6.17 STAFF COMMITMENT TO TEAM WORK

FIGURE 6.16 STAFF COMMITMENT TO TEAM WORK

The majority of respondents rate staff commitment to teamwork as ‘good’.

This would greatly facilitate the implementation of the principles of Total Quality Management, as teamwork is a vital ingredient in ensuring the success of TQM. W. Edwards Deming, the foremost exponent of TQM, is of the firm belief that enterprises essentially succeed through teams and cooperation (Whitaker 1994: 227).
QUESTION 16: LEARNER COMMITMENT TO QUALITY LEARNING

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>FREQUENCY</th>
<th>PERCENTAGE</th>
<th>CUMULATIVE %</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Totally disinterested</td>
<td>44</td>
<td>9.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Partially interested</td>
<td>181</td>
<td>39.79</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sometimes very keen</td>
<td>177</td>
<td>38.90</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Always very keen</td>
<td>46</td>
<td>10.10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Exceptionally pleasing</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>1.54</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TOTAL</td>
<td>455</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

TABLE 6.18 LEARNER COMMITMENT TO LEARNING

The above statistics confirm educator's views that learner attitude is one of the more serious obstacles to attaining quality.

Some of the specific reasons cited for learner attitude are:

- affluence - the youth are spoilt by their parents.
• The youth are too 'pleasure oriented'
• Easily distracted – television, drugs etc.
• Learners are poorly disciplined.
• Pass requirements are too 'low'.
• Lack of job opportunities fail to keep learners motivated.
• Violence in schools.

Whilst poor learner commitment may be viewed as a serious obstacle to implementing Total Quality Management, the reverse position is equally true – implementing TQM may be the only way to get de-motivated learners re-motivated. This conclusion is arrived at after examining some of the cases of the successful implementation of TQM.

When one looks at the case of Mount Edgecumbe High, one observes that 'historically the school’s largely native students had performed poorly on standardized tests, scoring in the bottom 30%'. An educator, David Langford, experimented with different approaches to overcoming student indifference to learning. David Langford decided to implement Total Quality Management. Consistent with the principles of TQM, ‘students developed their own sense of why they studied. Students enthusiasm for the new approach to learning began to affect the other teachers. Gradually others began to follow David’s example. Student morale and motivation improved’ (Tribus 1994: 273-287).

Smoker & Wilson (1993: 137) add that Mt. Edgescumbe has other important lessons for us as well. It demonstrates that, ‘students can do their best work in a self-regulated environment, especially if we create conditions in which students can see for themselves that what we are asking them to learn is meaningful, that it will prepare them for a promising future and bring purpose to their lives'.
QUESTION 17: PARENTAL SUPPORT

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
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<th>FREQUENCY</th>
<th>PERCENTAGE</th>
<th>CUMULATIVE %</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Totally disinterested</td>
<td>58</td>
<td>12.74</td>
<td>12.74</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Partially interested</td>
<td>257</td>
<td>56.48</td>
<td>69.22</td>
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<tr>
<td>Sometimes very keen</td>
<td>114</td>
<td>25.05</td>
<td>94.27</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Always very keen</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>4.63</td>
<td>98.90</td>
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<tr>
<td>Exceptionally pleasing</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>1.10</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TOTAL</td>
<td>455</td>
<td>100</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

TABLE 6.19 PARENTAL SUPPORT FOR QUALITY LEARNING

Limited parental support is another serious obstacle to quality. The majority of parents are either partially interested or sometimes very keen in the education of their children. The TQM approach demands constant consultation with the recipients of the service.
Peculiar or special reason cited for poor parental involvement, included:

- Both parents are working
- Economic pressures
- Parents have problems of their own
- Family unit is becoming increasingly unstable
- Parents cannot keep pace with the transformation taking place in education
- Literacy levels of parents and the language poses a barrier to communication.

Whilst conceding that the above are problems, one needs to look at the case of Westinghouse. Many of the students at Westinghouse came from single-parent low-income families. Over 50% of learners were eligible for the free lunch programme. Schargel (1994: 150-151) points out that the school was plagued by the usual problems of ‘both parents working and arriving home exhausted with little time to worry about the child’s school matters’.

After implementing Total Quality Management, the school received a letter from the Mayor of New York, David N. Dinkins: ‘I commend you and the entire Westinghouse community for instituting a Total Quality Education initiative that has increased parent and teacher involvement, and most importantly, improved student outcome. I am thrilled that Westinghouse’s initiative has encouraged so many new parents to participate in the school, that the student dropout rate is down, and that the graduation rate is up’.
QUESTION 18: LEADERSHIP STYLE OF SMT

<table>
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<th>3</th>
<th>4</th>
<th>5</th>
<th>0</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1 SMT has vision and shares it</td>
<td>53</td>
<td>51</td>
<td>150</td>
<td>119</td>
<td>75</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2 SMT walks the job</td>
<td>44</td>
<td>68</td>
<td>124</td>
<td>120</td>
<td>64</td>
<td>35</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3 SMT knows the job</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>53</td>
<td>109</td>
<td>114</td>
<td>154</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4 SMT knows the learners</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>56</td>
<td>130</td>
<td>150</td>
<td>91</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5 SMT provides strategic leadership</td>
<td>49</td>
<td>56</td>
<td>140</td>
<td>125</td>
<td>76</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6 SMT gives quality top priority</td>
<td>41</td>
<td>56</td>
<td>126</td>
<td>134</td>
<td>89</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
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<td>779</td>
<td>762</td>
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<td>28.54</td>
<td>27.92</td>
<td>20.10</td>
<td>2.64</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

TABLE 6.20 LEADERSHIP STYLE OF THE SMT

![Bar chart showing leadership style of SMT]

FIGURE 6.19 LEADERSHIP STYLE OF THE SMT

As established in the literature survey, appropriate leadership is a vital ingredient in Total Quality Management. W Edwards Deming, a leading advocate of TQM, is of the view that 85-90% of the problems that an organization experiences are due to a lack of leadership. If significant changes in schools are to occur, then it is imperative that those who are responsible for providing leadership possess the vision, knowledge, and skills that are needed to bring about the transformation. Sallis (1996: 76) argues that the significance of leadership for undertaking the transformation to TQM should not be underestimated. The above table and figure reveal that the majority of schools possess good leadership. This will greatly facilitate the implementation of Total Quality Management.
QUESTION 19: TEACHER UNION ACTIVITY

<table>
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<th>FREQUENCY</th>
<th>PERCENTAGE</th>
<th>CUMULATIVE %</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1 Contributes to quality of learning and teaching</td>
<td>132</td>
<td>29.01</td>
<td>29.01</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2 Disrupts learning and teaching</td>
<td>63</td>
<td>13.85</td>
<td>42.86</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3 Has no impact</td>
<td>260</td>
<td>57.14</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TOTAL</td>
<td>455</td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

TABLE 6.21 IMPACT OF TEACHER UNION ACTIVITY

From the above it is evident that teacher union activity has no real negative impact on learning and teaching. In fact, 29.01% of respondents are of the view that teacher union activity contributes to quality learning and teaching. Judging from the recent debates and action around the implementation of Whole School Evaluation, it is important that the full support of unions are enlisted before implementing any initiative. TQM will win support of union members, as it is a philosophy that ‘cannot be imposed upon a school’. The school must want sufficiently to implement TQM. We learn from the case of Westinghouse that introducing TQM into education is like ‘rolling a huge stone up a hill. It is slow, tedious, and hard work’. The best advice from Westinghouse is to continue to persevere and wear down the resistance. The change is worth the effort (Scharge 1994: 51-74).
QUESTION 20.1: DEVELOPMENTAL APPRAISAL OF EDUCATORS

Developmental Appraisal of Educators is a national policy aimed at facilitating the personal and professional development of educators in order to improve the quality of teaching practice and education management. It is based on the fundamental principle of life-long learning and development.

Unfortunately, from the responses of educators, it becomes apparent that Developmental Appraisal of Educators (DAS) is not being implemented in any serious fashion. Schools are at different stages of implementation; some schools have gone through 3 cycles, whilst others have not moved beyond the stage of workshopping the document. Some of the more common responses included:

- Almost a third of respondents did not see DAS contributing to their personal and professional development.

- The documentation used in DAS appears to be excessive to about 65% of respondents. It is described as a 'paper chase'.

- Shortage of resources and the great discrepancy in resources from one school to another were cited by 50% of respondents as major obstacles to implementing DAS. It is clear that these respondents had failed to take into account the fact that DAS has a built-in mechanism to take into account contextual factors in appraising educators.

- Over 75% of respondents indicated that DAS is time-consuming. Given the teaching programmes of educators, there is little time for professional development. The process involves two to four other educators apart from the appraisee. It is difficult to find common 'free' time to undertake the process.

- About 25% of respondents complained about documents on DAS being ‘carefully filed’ in the office. Clearly there is a lack of commitment on the part of some senior managers to implement the process.
• In terms of the composition of the panel, the inclusion of the peer has drawn mixed responses – some see the inclusion of the peer as beneficial whilst other see the inclusion as compromising objectivity.

• Whilst acknowledging that it is the appraisee’s democratic right to constitute his/her own panel, respondents drew attention to the danger of the team being composed of ‘buddies’ and the mentality of ‘you scratch my back, I’ll scratch yours’ could prevail. There is concern that the professional head of the educator’s learning area could be excluded from the educator’s appraisal and development.

• About 15% of respondents cited the absence of a culture of teaching and learning as the main reason why DAS cannot be fully implemented in their schools.

However, the departmental officials interviewed do not support the above viewpoints, on the status of DAS. Based on the reports received from school principals, they contend that all is proceeding well with DAS.

What emerges from the above scenario is that the policy and structures for the developmental appraisal of educators is in place. There is not enough commitment to implementing the policy at school level.

It can therefore be deduced that if TQM is to succeed, one has to work hard to establish total commitment.
The National Policy on Whole School Evaluation (WSE) was gazetted in June 2000. This survey was conducted at the beginning of 2002. WSE has yet to be implemented in 89.23% of schools. Some of the schools have had initial briefing meetings by their Principals, but have not proceeded beyond this stage. 6.15% of respondents indicated that their schools had successfully completed the self-evaluation, whilst only 0.88% of schools were moderated.

Respondents indicated that it was still early to determine whether WSE will contribute to any improvement in the quality of teaching and learning.

The current impasse between the Department of Education and the South African Democratic Teachers Union over Whole School Evaluation has to be speedily resolved if this policy is going to have any chance of succeeding.
QUESTION 21: MONITORING AND EVALUATION OF LEARNER PERFORMANCE

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
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<th>FREQUENCY</th>
<th>PERCENTAGE</th>
<th>CUMULATIVE %</th>
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<td>Little or no feedback</td>
<td>92</td>
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<td>20.22</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Adequate feedback</td>
<td>236</td>
<td>51.87</td>
<td>72.098</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Prompt &amp; regular feedback</td>
<td>106</td>
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<td>21</td>
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<td>100</td>
</tr>
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<td>TOTAL</td>
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<td>100</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

TABLE 6.22 MONITORING AND EVALUATION OF LEARNER PERFORMANCE

FIGURE 6.21 MONITORING AND EVALUATION OF LEARNER PERFORMANCE

The above table and graph reveal that there is adequate monitoring and evaluation of learner performance. This is necessary for Total Quality Management to be successfully implemented.
TABLE 6.23 LEARNER FEEDBACK AND POLICY MAKING

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
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<th>FREQUENCY</th>
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<td>TOTAL</td>
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<td>100</td>
<td></td>
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</tbody>
</table>

FIGURE 6.22 LEARNER FEEDBACK AND POLICY MAKING

In terms of the principles of Total Quality Management, ascertaining feedback from consumers is vital. It is worthy of note that 56.04% of educators use learner feedback in policy making. This increases the prospects for Total Quality Management being implemented in schools.
TABLE 6.24 SCOPE FOR THE APPLICATION OF THE PRINCIPLES OF TQM

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<tr>
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<td>%</td>
<td>2.37</td>
<td>3.99</td>
<td>14.36</td>
<td>32.42</td>
<td>29.76</td>
<td>17.32</td>
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</table>

FIGURE 6.23 SCOPE FOR THE APPLICATION OF THE PRINCIPLES OF TQM

The above table and the graph clearly reveal that the scope for implementing the principles of Total Quality Management range from above average to good in the majority of public schools.
SECTION E : QUALITY AND EDUCATION POLICY

QUESTION 23.1 : WORK OF THE GOVERNING BODY

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>FREQUENCY</th>
<th>PERCENTAGE</th>
<th>CUMULATIVE %</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Totally ineffective</td>
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<td>12.31</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Performs certain functions only</td>
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<td>Satisfactorily performs all functions</td>
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<td>23.52</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Efficient &amp; effective</td>
<td>71</td>
<td>15.60</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Exceptionally pleasing in performing all duties</td>
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<td>6.81</td>
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<td>0</td>
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<td>1.54</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TOTAL</td>
<td>455</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

TABLE 6.25 WORK OF THE GOVERNING BODY

FIGURE 6.24 WORK OF THE GOVERNING BODY

The table and graph reveal that, from the point of view of educators, the majority of governing bodies perform certain functions only. However, this does not tie up with the view of members of the governing bodies who were of the view that they were doing ‘far too much’.
QUESTION 23.2 : ACTIVE PARTICIPANTS ON THE GOVERNING BODY

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>ROLE PLAYERS</th>
<th>FREQUENCY</th>
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<tr>
<td>Parents</td>
<td>248</td>
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<tr>
<td>Educators</td>
<td>310</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Principal</td>
<td>366</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Co-opted members</td>
<td>161</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Learners (Secondary schools)</td>
<td>141</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Non-educators</td>
<td>119</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Community Organisations</td>
<td>30</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

TABLE 6.26 PARTICIPATION ON THE GOVERNING BODY

FIGURE 6.25 PARTICIPATION ON THE GOVERNING BODY

Principals are the most active participants on the Governing Body followed by Educators. In terms of Total Quality Management, parents and learners as the ‘customers’ of education would have to play a more meaningful role.

258
QUESTION 23.3 : THE GOVERNING BODY AND QUALITY IN EDUCATION

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
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</tr>
</thead>
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<tr>
<td>FREQUENCY</td>
<td>81</td>
<td>124</td>
<td>132</td>
<td>74</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>455</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PERCENTAGE</td>
<td>17.30</td>
<td>27.25</td>
<td>29.01</td>
<td>16.26</td>
<td>8.36</td>
<td>1.32</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

TABLE 6.27 THE GOVERNING BODY AND QUALITY IN EDUCATION

The table and graph reveal that governing bodies were barely doing a satisfactory job in providing quality in education. This ties up with the response at interviews, where the majority was not aware of the provision in the *South African Schools Act* (84 of 1996) that stipulates that the State has an obligation to provide only a ‘basic’ education. It was the duty of school governing bodies to ensure ‘quality’ education for all learners.

FIGURE 6.26 THE GOVERNING BODY AND QUALITY IN EDUCATION
It would appear that current programmes are not really supporting the vision to create a world-class education system.

Perhaps it is policies such as the Rationalization and Re-deployment of Educators that have led educators to feel this way. Uncertainties and the vacillating policies in curriculum transformation could also be contributing to the way educators feel.
QUESTION 24.2: MONITORING OF POLICY

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>FREQUENCY</th>
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<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
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<tr>
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<td>49.67</td>
<td>12.53</td>
<td>3.52</td>
<td>2.64</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As pointed out earlier, South Africa has some excellent education policies. However, the monitoring of the policies is barely satisfactory. Not enough is being done to assess compliance with the provisions of the Constitution and with education policies. Total Quality Management demands constant monitoring.
QUESTION 24.3 : COMPLIANCE WITH ASSESSMENT POLICY

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
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<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>4</th>
<th>5</th>
<th>0</th>
<th>TOTAL</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>FREQUENCY</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>136</td>
<td>177</td>
<td>61</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>455</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PERCENTAGE</td>
<td>8.79</td>
<td>29.89</td>
<td>38.90</td>
<td>13.41</td>
<td>6.37</td>
<td>2.63</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

TABLE 6.30 COMPLIANCE WITH ASSESSMENT POLICY

The picture that emerges is satisfactory. Systemic evaluation at key transitional stages is taking place. Total Quality Management requires that system wide evaluation takes place to assess the effectiveness of the entire system and the extent to which the vision and goals are being achieved.
A total of 16 Chairpersons/members of governing bodies were interviewed. The following is a summary of the key responses of the participants to the schedule of questions put to them:

1. All interviewees (100%) responded that they have properly constituted governing bodies. This is in accordance with the law, the *South African Schools Act* (84 of 1996) - all public schools are required to have a properly constituted school governing body.

2. All interviewees (100%) indicated that all stakeholders are participants on the Governing Body. Thereafter, some interviewees went on to clarify 'active' participants. 31% of interviewees were critical of educator participation, pointing out that it was not 'active participation'. Educators were present merely to criticize the work of parents. 25% indicated that non-educators contributed little to governance.

   Overall, the majority of stakeholders are active participants in issues of school governance. Total Quality Management requires active participation across the organization – the commitment must be total in order to succeed.

3. It is interesting to note that the majority of chairpersons/members were not aware of the policy, that the State was only responsible for providing a ‘basic’ education and that it was the duty of the Governing Body to provide ‘quality’ education for all learners at the school.

   Nevertheless, they hastened to add that they were doing ‘more than their fair share’ in providing quality education for all the learners. Over half this group complained bitterly that the State was abdicating its responsibility. In terms of the Norms and Standards for Funding and the monetary allocation received for their schools, they were of the view that the State was not meeting its obligation, even in providing a ‘basic’ education.
A small percentage (18.75%) complained about lack of basic facilities such as classrooms, toilets and sports fields.

Whilst quality in education is not entirely dependent on money available, the State must ensure that the basic infrastructure is in place. The state needs to work rapidly with the Schools Register of Needs, so that all schools can attain quality status.

4. When asked whether the Governing Body was contributing to the provision of quality education, 87% of interviewees responded with an emphatic ‘yes’. However, only 56.25% could provide specific details. This group cited:

- Purchase of textbooks, library books, daily newspapers and other resources.
- Setting up well equipped technology centres.
- Employing additional educators.
- Employing sports coaches and sports administrators.
- Equipping laboratories.

5. In rating the contributions of the various stakeholders, 100% of respondents felt that parents were doing far too much. They paid high school fees. All were of the view that the State should be doing a lot more.

67% were pleased with the contribution of educators.
93.75% were pleased with the support received from the school Principal.
50% felt that learners were making a positive contribution to quality education.
31.25% responded that community leaders were playing a meaningful role in school governance.

The above picture reveals that the key role players are committed to attaining quality in their schools. This is an indication that there is scope for Total Quality Management.
6. The following obstacles to quality were cited:

- Not enough money.
- Little support from the Department of Education.
- Poor teacher attendance.
- Learners causing disruptions.

The above obstacles are either misplaced concerns or not serious obstacles. They can be addressed in a creative fashion. With some effort, the way can easily be paved for the implementation of Total Quality Management, and implementing TQM in turn will help eliminate many of the above problems.

INTERVIEWS WITH DEPARTMENTAL OFFICIALS

In the main, district and regional office coordinators for quality assurance were interviewed. After some discussion, it was established that the bulk of their work dealt with receiving and compiling reports on the status of Developmental Appraisal for Educators (DAS) and Whole School Evaluation (WSE). These reports were eventually forwarded to the Provincial Quality Assurance Directorate.

With regard to DAS, all officials were of the view that it was an excellent policy and that it was assisting in developing teachers professionally. None had any knowledge of any formal needs survey being carried out, but added that it arose out of the work of teacher unions.

In drawing up DAS, there was extensive consultation. The project was steered by the WITS Education Policy Unit and backed by the largest teacher union, SADTU.

The officials were unanimous in the view that adequate training in implementing DAS had taken place, and training continues to take place. Each institution was issued with at least four sets of the training manuals. All of the officials conceded that there are problems with implementation of the policy, but only in certain schools and this was largely due to attitude – lack of commitment from senior management being the most serious.
With regard to the policy on Whole School Evaluation, it was established that WSE stems out of a public need for accountability and the need for the National Department of Education to carry out periodic systemic evaluation. All officials rejected the assertion that the Department had failed to consult with the largest teacher union, SADTU. They pointed out that there was consultation with all stakeholders.

There was adequate training – a select team of officials from each of the 9 provinces were trained by the National Department of Education. Thereafter, training was held for regional and district officials. Finally, a three-day workshop of school principals was held throughout the province. It was expected that principals would conduct training at the school level.

Given the current impasse, none of the officials could say with any firm degree of commitment as to what the status of Whole School Evaluation is.

Finally, after providing the interviewees with an overview of Total Quality Management, they were in the main, clearly optimistic that there is scope for TQM to be implemented in schools.

### 6.4 SUMMARY

The data obtained from the questionnaires was first captured in tabular form and then depicted in graphical form. This allowed for easy analysis and interpretation. The discussion reveals the scope and applicability of Total Quality Management to the public schooling system. Based on the data various inferences were made and conclusions were drawn. The discussion of the responses from governing body chairpersons/ members provided valuable insights on quality in schools. Their role in the provision of quality in education was illuminating. The discussion of the viewpoints of departmental officials involved in quality initiatives helped to clarify issues.

The next chapter will deal with the main conclusions and present certain pertinent recommendations.
CHAPTER SEVEN

CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

This chapter presents the main conclusions and recommendations. After careful consideration of the data that emerged from the questionnaire and the responses of the interviewees, certain clear conclusions emerge about the scope and applicability of Total Quality Management to the public schooling system. On the basis of these conclusions, pertinent recommendations are made, directed at various levels of action.

7.1 CONCLUSIONS

The provision of education has always been an emotive issue in the history of South Africa. Years of unequal provision of education for the different races led to serious neglect of African education in particular. Since the advent of democracy in 1994, much of the emphasis of education reform was on issues of equity and redress. However, it is becoming increasingly clear that if South Africa hopes to be part of the global community, the emphasis would have to increasingly shift to quality in the provision of education. Without a quality focus, South Africa cannot hope to create an education system that would be able to meet the challenges of the 21st century.

In addressing the demand for equality before quality, it can be safely concluded that these concepts are not mutually exclusive. Equality in every respect is not a prerequisite for quality. In fact, equality and quality are both inseparable features of good education provision. Whilst resolving issues of equality in the provision of education, we need to also vigorously pursue the quality route.

At the beginning of this study, the question posed was whether South African public education could afford the cost of implementing a quality management programme. The question that arises at the end of this study is whether South Africa can afford not to have a quality management programme. Total Quality Management (TQM) has
been found to be a cost-effective management programme. It provides an institution with a set of practical tools to meet or exceed customer expectations.

Over the years many initiatives such as Developmental Appraisal for Educators (DAS) and Whole School Evaluation (WSE) have been introduced to ensure quality in education. These are excellent policies that have been carefully formulated. Unfortunately, their implementation has met with very limited success. Whilst the implementation of DAS is viewed by most educators as merely ‘going through the motions’, WSE has met with strong resistance by unionised educators objecting to departmental quality assurance officials visiting their schools; particularly their classrooms.

What is useful about TQM is that it does not aim to replace existing quality assurance programmes. In fact, the implementation of TQM will serve to create the climate to increase the prospects for other programmes to achieve higher levels of success.

What has emerged from this study is that, policies aimed at assuring quality cannot be imposed upon institutions. What is also clear is that, schools cannot be left on their own to be expected to implement quality assurance. What is significant about Total Quality Management is that, it cannot be imposed upon any institution. TQM offers a logical, step-by-step implementation plan. It specifies the conditions that need to be created to get an institution to want to adopt the quality route. Implementing TQM is preceded by a programme designed to get all those working within the institution to see the immense value and benefits of adopting a quality agenda.

Total Quality Management is clearly not a panacea for all the ills of the South African public schooling system. What has been concluded is that it has successfully assisted many business organizations to compete globally. Whilst acknowledging that there are concerns about importing what is essentially a private sector model to the public sector, it must be noted that there is much about the principles of TQM that can easily be applied to the public sector in general and education in particular. Various writers overseas have adapted TQM for the education sector. Case studies have clearly revealed the successful implementation of TQM in public schools in America and the
United Kingdom. TQM is a practical philosophy, offering a set of tools to enable one to undertake the quality journey.

As consumers in general are becoming more discerning, the consumers of education are demanding a better quality. Schools, as public institutions, would have to respond to this demand, or face mass migration of learners to schools of quality. TQM, as a management philosophy, offers a viable opportunity for all schools to be able to provide their learners with quality education to enable them to compete in the global economy.

On the basis of the literature surveyed and the empirical data collected, many of the hypotheses presented in Chapter 5, about the public schooling system in South Africa are challenged. These hypotheses are rejected and the following conclusions are made:

- Over 90% of public schools have mission statements and the overwhelming majority of mission statements make direct reference to quality. In one way or another they aim to promote high quality education at their schools. It is therefore concluded that the majority of schools have the first ingredient for the implementation of Total Quality Management.

- The majority of schools (73.62%) did not see the physical environment as an obstacle to quality learning and teaching. The hypothesis that poor physical environment does not favour the application of the principles of TQM is therefore rejected.

- The biographical data has revealed that the majority of educators (69.01%) have the minimum requirement of a teaching diploma or degree. A significant percentage of educators (27.47%) have gone on to acquire advanced degrees. It can therefore be concluded that the educators are sufficiently qualified to successfully implement the principles of Total Quality Management.
• Whilst it is agreed that current learner attitude does not favour the introduction of quality initiatives in public schools, from the cases examined, learner attitude is understandable, and TQM offers the best prospect of getting learners to see the relevance of their education and become re-motivated.

• Parental input is vital to the success of TQM in schools. It is agreed that the current apathy will not facilitate the process. However, as has been observed in the cases studied, TQM has the tools and means to elicit parental support. Therefore, there is adequate scope for TQM to be implemented in public schools.

• The empirical data has revealed a positive picture of the leadership capabilities of the school management team. School management is committed to quality. With strong leadership from the school management team, TQM can be applied to public schools.

• The majority has revealed that teacher union activity has little or no impact on the culture of teaching and learning, in fact, 29.01% have indicated that it contributes to the culture of teaching and learning. This bodes well for the introduction of Total Quality Management.

• The lack of support from the education department was cited as the most serious obstacle to implementing quality programmes at school. Vague and unclear policies are a cause for concern. However, the literature survey has revealed that South Africa has excellent policies; there is a capacity problem at the level of implementation. More support needs to be given at the level of implementation.

• Currently there is adequate monitoring and evaluation of learner performance and learner feedback is used in policy formulation. This will greatly facilitate the introduction of Total Quality Management that demands prompt and regular feedback.
The empirical evidence has revealed that there is above average to good prospects for TQM to be successfully implemented in South African public schools. Despite being essentially an industrial or manufacturing philosophy, it can be successfully applied to deliver high quality public education.

7.2 RECOMMENDATIONS

The following recommendations have implications for:

- School Management Teams (SMTs).
- Classroom based educators.
- School Governing Bodies. (SGBs).
- Representative Council of Learners (RCLs).
- Education Districts and Regions.
- The Provincial Department of Education.
- The National Department of Education.

RECOMMENDATION ONE

Given the scarcity of public resources, new and creative ways need to be explored on how to get more from a given set of resources. Whilst conceding that government institutions such as schools cannot be run like a business, schools can become more entrepreneurial in their operation. Being entrepreneurial does not mean spending less; it does mean cutting out waste, fraud and excesses. TQM is recommended, because it has proven to help remove unnecessary and costly waste, to locate and eradicate sources of error, and to provide the consumer with reliable products and services. Implementing TQM in public schools makes common sense.
RECOMMENDATION TWO

The current level of satisfaction with public service delivery standards is a cause for concern. Whilst acknowledging the existence of Batho Pele and other initiatives, much more needs to be done to improve the level of service delivery. The education sector in particular, must embark on vigorous programmes to train personnel on how to meet and exceed the expectations of their customers. Total Quality Management is recommended for this purpose.

RECOMMENDATION THREE

Schools need to become more responsive to what the customers of education – learners, parents, commerce and industry, and society in general, need. Schools cannot function in isolation. This study has revealed various ways to survey what customers need – questionnaires, parent meetings, partnerships with business, etc. Constantly being in touch with the customer, is what will help create competitive, customer-oriented institutions capable of meeting the challenges of the global economy. Schools need to focus on strategies to improve customer service. TQM offers an ideal road map for the transformation of public institutions to become more customer sensitive.

RECOMMENDATION FOUR

Staff development is vital to the provision of high quality education. The survey has revealed that the majority of educators have the minimum qualification to practise. However, quality education demands on-going training. TQM advocates the ideas of empowerment of staff at all levels and team-based joint responsibility for continuous improvement.
RECOMMENDATION FIVE

For TQM to succeed, we need commitment from senior management. The survey has revealed that there is adequate commitment from school management team (SMT) to attaining quality. Therefore, TQM can be implemented in public schools. However, on-going leadership training is recommended to ensure that management are up-to-date with the most recent trends. Quality begins and ends with training. If we expect people to change the way they do things, we must provide them with the necessary tools.

RECOMMENDATION SIX

The costs incurred with the introduction of any new initiative, is always a cause for concern. With TQM it is possible to simultaneously reduce costs and enhance quality. The conclusion arrived at from the cases studied is that, quality does not cost money, it saves money. Better organization of work, greater educator and learner commitment will all interact to reduce failure and re-doing of work. With TQM the focus is on getting things right, the first time, every time.

RECOMMENDATION SEVEN

TQM cannot be imposed from outside, but what has been established is that a sound dose of outside intervention is necessary. W. Edwards Deming has argued that systems cannot fix themselves, they require outside intervention. The reason why systems cannot change themselves is that they do not understand the source of variation embedded in their process. Leaders and workers are too tied into the status quo. External intervention is the only antidote. Deming insists that transforming organizations cannot occur without knowledge and without theory – TQM is that theory.

RECOMMENDATION EIGHT

Whilst many school governing bodies are doing sterling work in ensuring the upkeep and maintenance of their schools, governing bodies must be workshopped on their
role in providing quality education to all learners. They need to be provided with
details as to some of the projects and programmes they could engage in that would
enhance the quality of learning and teaching. Fund-raising to provide specific
facilities such as technology centres, or better-equipped media resource centres must
be encouraged.

RECOMMENDATION NINE

Notwithstanding the earlier recommendation, the State through urgent and progressive
measures, must continue to address the backlogs in education. Certain aspects of
education provision require additional financial resources for infrastructure
development. Adequate classrooms, toilet facilities, water and electricity are absolute
necessities for meaningful education programmes to be conducted. The Schools
Register of Needs must be updated and additional financial provision must be made to
address the backlogs in education in a serious manner. Donor funding must be
enlisted and directed towards addressing urgent needs.

RECOMMENDATION TEN

Learner attitude to learning was cited as one of the more serious obstacle to learning.
The main reason for the current state of affairs is that the majority of learners could
see no relevance of their studies. Whilst learner indifference is cited as an obstacle to
quality learning, the reverse is equally valid. It is precisely because of learner
indifference that we should introduce Total Quality Management. Case studies bear
out the validity of this recommendation. Learning at Mount Edgecumbe improved
dramatically when learners were made to see the relevance of their education. The
focus of learning was to train learners to become entrepreneurs who would go back to
their village and make a difference. Learners were taught to be 'purposeful in the
application of what they learned'.

In the case of Westinghouse, after the introduction of TQM, student dropout rate went
down, the graduation rate went up and the greater parent-teacher involvement in the
education process led to improved student outcomes. In short, Total Quality Management is recommended as a measure to address learner indifference to learning.

RECOMMENDATION ELEVEN

One of the most serious drawbacks of the current education practice is the absence of clear performance indicators. Currently, the senior certificate examination results are used as the primary, if not sole indicator of the standard of education in a secondary school. Systemic evaluation at other exit points is carried out, but the feedback from these exercises is very limited. Schools are under no obligation to publicly demonstrate the standards of their services and products. The levels of accountability are extremely low. Schools under-performing are under no obligation to account to parents who are school fee payers, or to the general tax-paying public. Schools, as public institutions, must be more accountable by publicly demonstrating the standards of their services. Total Quality Management supports the accountability imperative by promoting objective and measurable outcomes of the education process and providing mechanisms for the improvement of those outcomes.

RECOMMENDATION TWELVE

It is recommended that schools enter into partnerships with business committed to the quality ideals. This will facilitate the exchange of ideas and greatly reduce the complexities of training. David Langford of Mount Edgecumbe High attended sessions with an executive in a company involved in the quality movement. Langford felt renewed by the encounter with Jim Martin of Mc Douglas Corporation, and began studying and contacting corporate people nationwide who were active in the quality movement.

RECOMMENDATION THIRTEEN

Central to the application of the principles of Total Quality Management is the use of quality tools. Educators and school managers must be taught the basic tools for attaining quality. The use of statistical techniques and quality improvement tools must form a core module of all pre-service and in-service training.
RECOMMENDATION FOURTEEN

Teamwork was cited as an important ingredient for the success of Total Quality Management. Cases studied revealed that the greatest success was achieved by institutions actively promoting teamwork. It is recommended that institutions embarking upon TQM organise themselves into teams in order to attain maximum improvement.

RECOMMENDATION FIFTEEN

Schools wanting to implement TQM must be made to understand that it not an easy process that can be undertaken in any haphazard manner. It takes time to secure the basics of TQM and even more time to experience any gains. A recommended implementation plan, is that utilised by Westinghouse, involving the seven essential steps:

- Making an administrative commitment.
- Selecting a quality coordinator.
- Writing a mission statement.
- Identifying customers and suppliers.
- Involving internal and external customers.
- Finding out more about the process.
- Institutionalising the process.

Everybody needs to be made aware that the process is time consuming and frustrating, if not cynicism may set in. All role-players have to be educated not to expect instant results. There must be perseverance to wear down resistance. The end result of implementing Total Quality Management is worth the effort.
7.3 SUMMARY

The study concludes that Total Quality Management, although an industrial or manufacturing theory, can be adapted to the public schooling system. The experience in industry, properly interpreted, will allow very effective application of TQM in education. Further, the obstacles or problems in education provision do not preclude the introduction of quality initiatives. There is adequate scope for the philosophy, principles and practices of Total Quality Management to be applied to the South African public schooling system.
BIBLIOGRAPHY

1. PUBLISHED SOURCES

1.1 BOOKS:


1.2 PERIODICALS


1.3 DICTIONARIES


1.4 GOVERNMENT PUBLICATIONS


National Policy on Whole School Evaluation.

School Assessment Policy, 1998.


1.5 NEWSPAPERS


2. UNPUBLISHED SOURCES

2.1 DOCUMENTS:


Delivery to the people – A guide to implementing Batho Pele. KwaZulu-Natal Provincial Administration.

Department of education report. 1996.

Developmental Appraisal for Educators. Education Labour Relations Council (Employer Fund).


Post Provisioning Committee Report to the ELRC Meeting. 15 November 2002.
2.2 DISSENTATION:


3. INTERNET


Improving our education system through total quality management. http://huskyl_stmarys.ca/~hmillar/tqmedu.htm
Dear Respondent

I am aware that the task of questionnaire completion is an arduous one. However, your input is vital to enable me to conduct research in a critical area of public schooling. It would therefore be appreciated if you could kindly complete the attached questionnaire and forward it in the self-addressed envelope. Permission from the Department of Education has been obtained.

Of late the National Department of Education has introduced many initiatives aimed at assuring quality in schools. The purpose of this research is to establish “The Scope and Applicability of Total Quality Management (TQM) to the Public Schooling System”.

Total Quality Management (TQM) refers to a management process and set of disciplines that are co-ordinated to ensure that the organization consistently meets and exceeds customer requirements. The TQM approach has assisted business organizations compete globally. This study hopes to investigate whether Total Quality Management (TQM), the synchronization of quality principles across an organization, holds any answers for the challenges facing public schools.

All respondents are assured of the strictest degree of confidentiality. It would therefore be appreciated if you could respond candidly to the questionnaire.

Many thanks

SATHIS GOVENDER

TEL.: (H) 031 – 7075912
       (W) 031 – 7110874/7110401
       (C) 0823757722

NOTE: 1. It would be appreciated if you could respond promptly – if possible, within 7 days of receipt of this questionnaire. This would greatly facilitate the arduous process of data collection and analysis.

2. If for some reason you are not in a position to complete the questionnaire, kindly return it to the sender.
SECTION A: BIOGRAPHICAL AND GENERAL INFORMATION

WHERE BLOCKS ARE PROVIDED FOR YOUR RESPONSE, PLACE A TICK ✓ IN THE APPROPRIATE BLOCK.

1. What is your experience as an educator?
   - 0 - 5 years
   - 6 - 10 years
   - 11 - 15 years
   - 16 - 20 years
   - 21 years and over

2. What is your professional rank?
   - Level 1 educator
   - Head of Learning Area/Department
   - Deputy Principal
   - Principal

3. In what type of school are you employed?
   - Primary
   - Secondary
   - Combined
   - LSEN (Special)

4. How would you classify the geographic location of your school?
   - Remote Rural
   - Semi Rural
   - Urban

5. In terms of the Norms and Standards for Funding and the deciles of poverty, how is your school classified?
   - Advantaged
   - Disadvantaged

6. What is the annual school fee payable per learner?
   - R1 to R200
   - Between R201 to R500
   - Between R501 to R1000
   - Between R1001 to R3000
   - Between R3001 to R5000
   - Above R5000
6.1 Taking into account exemptions granted in terms of the South African School's Act, what percentage of parents of learners at your school actually pay fees?

- 90% - 100% 1
- 70% - 89% 2
- 50% - 69% 3
- 40% - 49% 4
- Below 40% 5

7. Your highest academic qualification is:

- Lower than Grade 12 1
- Grade 12 (matric) 2
- Undergraduate Diploma or Degree 3
- Honours Degree 4
- Masters Degree 5
- Doctoral Degree 6

8. Do you believe that you are adequately trained in your subject/learning area/phase to ensure quality teaching and learning?

- YES 1
- NO 2

8.1 If YES, state your qualifications.

8.2 If NO, briefly state what you propose to do to improve your qualification.

SECTION B: THE CONSTITUTION AND PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION

9. In terms of the Bill of Rights, Chapter 2 of the South African Constitution (108 of 1996), 29(1) “Everyone has the right to a basic education.”

In terms of your particular environment, to what extent do you believe the State is meeting this obligation?

- NOT AT ALL 1 2 3 4 5
- EXCEPTIONALLY WELL

10. In terms of the basic values and principles governing public administration, indicate the extent to which you believe they are being observed in the administration of education. Let 1 represent the position that these principles are not at all being observed, and 5 that they are being strongly adhered to.
10.1 A high standard of professional ethics is being promoted and maintained.

| NOT AT ALL | 1 2 3 4 5 | STRONGLY ADHERED TO |

10.2 Efficient, economic and effective use of resources is being promoted.

| NOT AT ALL | 1 2 3 4 5 | STRONGLY ADHERED TO |

10.3 Services are being provided impartially, fairly, equitably and without bias.

| NOT AT ALL | 1 2 3 4 5 | STRONGLY ADHERED TO |

10.4 Peoples needs are being responded to and the public are encouraged to participate in policy making.

| NOT AT ALL | 1 2 3 4 5 | STRONGLY ADHERED TO |

10.5 Administration is transparent and accountable.

| NOT AT ALL | 1 2 3 4 5 | STRONGLY ADHERED TO |

10.6 Good human-resource management and career-development practices, to maximise human potential are being cultivated.

| NOT AT ALL | 1 2 3 4 5 | STRONGLY ADHERED TO |

SECTION C: OBSTACLES TO QUALITY

11. The following are some of the obstacles to implementing a quality assurance programme, such as Total Quality Management. Rank them from 1 to 10, with 1 representing the most serious problem:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Description</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>School lacks vision and mission</td>
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<td>2</td>
<td>Poor physical environment</td>
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<td>3</td>
<td>Inadequate learning resources</td>
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<td>4</td>
<td>Poorly qualified/trained educators</td>
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<td>5</td>
<td>Learner attitude</td>
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<td>6</td>
<td>Lack of parental support</td>
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<td>7</td>
<td>Poor leadership &amp; communication – Principal/SMT</td>
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<td>8</td>
<td>Teacher Union activity</td>
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<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>Lack of support from Education Department – poor/vague policies, resources</td>
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<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>Poor monitoring and evaluation of learner performance</td>
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</tbody>
</table>
12. Does your school have a Mission Statement?

YES [ ]
NO [ ]

12.1 Does the Mission Statement make any reference to the delivery of quality education?

YES [ ]
NO [ ]

12.2 If YES, please quote the direct reference to quality learning, teaching and/or management.

________________________________________________________________________________

________________________________________________________________________________

and

________________________________________________________________________________

12.3 Indicate some recent plans which have flowed from the Mission Statement.

________________________________________________________________________________

________________________________________________________________________________

________________________________________________________________________________

12.4 If NO, do you think your school requires assistance in drawing up a Mission Statement?

YES [ ]
NO [ ]

13. Do you believe that the physical environment at your school favours the introduction of quality initiatives such as TQM?

YES [ ]
NO [ ]

13.1 Provide some details to substantiate your answer.

________________________________________________________________________________

________________________________________________________________________________

________________________________________________________________________________
14. Are there adequate learning resources at your school?

YES [ ]

NO [ ]

14.1 Provide details in support of your answer.

________________________________________________________________________

________________________________________________________________________

________________________________________________________________________

15. Does your school have a properly constituted Staff Development Team (SDT)?

YES [ ]

NO [ ]

15.1 Does your school have a staff development plan?

YES [ ]

NO [ ]

15.2 Do you believe that enough is being done to develop staff professionally?

YES [ ]

NO [ ]

15.3 How many workshops did you attend during the course of 2001?

________________________________________________________________________

15.4 Provide details of workshops you attended, organised by the Department of Education/Teacher Organisations/NGO’s.

________________________________________________________________________

________________________________________________________________________

15.5 On a scale of 1 to 5, 1 being very poor and 5 excellent, how would you describe staff commitment to team work?

POOR [ ]

EXCELLENT [ ]
16. Overall, in your school, how would you describe learner commitment to quality learning?

Totally disinterested
Partially Interested
Sometimes very keen
Always very keen
Exceptionally pleasing

16.1 Are there any specific reasons for the particular attitude of learners at your school?

_____________________________________________________________________

_____________________________________________________________________

17. In general, how would you describe parental support?

Totally disinterested
Partially Interested
Sometimes very keen
Always very keen
Exceptionally pleasing

17.1 Are there any peculiar reasons for parental attitude?

_____________________________________________________________________

_____________________________________________________________________

18. Leadership style of the School Management Team (SMT). TICK 1 for poor performance and 5 for excellence.

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<th>4</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>SMT has vision and shares it</td>
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<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>SMT walks the job</td>
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<td>3</td>
<td>SMT knows the staff</td>
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<td>4</td>
<td>SMT knows the learners</td>
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<td>5</td>
<td>SMT provides strategic leadership</td>
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<td>6</td>
<td>SMT gives quality top priority</td>
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19. How would you describe teacher union activity at your school?

Contributes to quality learning and teaching
Disrupts learning and teaching
Has no impact
19.1 Provide some details in support of your answer.


20. Recently, the Department implemented two main quality initiatives:

20.1 Developmental Appraisal of Educators (DAS)

20.1.1 How successfully is DAS being implemented at your school and does it contribute to staff development and an improvement in the quality of teaching and learning?

________________________________________________________________________

________________________________________________________________________

20.2 Whole School Evaluation (WSE)

20.2.1 How successfully is WSE being implemented at your school and does it contribute to staff development and an improvement in the quality of teaching and learning?

________________________________________________________________________

________________________________________________________________________

21. With regard to monitoring and evaluation of learner performance, there is:

Little or no feedback
Adequate feedback
Prompt and regular feedback

21.1 Is learner feedback used in policy making?

YES
NO

Provide details.

________________________________________________________________________

________________________________________________________________________
SECTION D: THE PRINCIPLES OF TQM

22. The following are the main principles of TOTAL QUALITY MANAGEMENT (adapted). On a scale of 1 to 5 indicate to what extent you believe these principles can be applied to your school, with 1 representing the position that there is no scope at all, and 5 representing the position that there is great scope for the implementation of TQM in your school.

22.1 Create constancy of purpose. There is a clear vision and all stakeholders work full time to create quality.

22.2 Adopt a new philosophy. Learner centred success is the focus.

22.3 Cease dependence on mass inspection to achieve quality. There is a shift to self-evaluation and self-pacing of learning based upon an overall goal of success in and beyond school.

22.4 End the practice of rewarding individual learner classroom performance alone. Instead, reward total understanding and overall accomplishments with others.

22.5 Constantly improve the system of teaching, learning, educational support and service.

22.6 Institute training on the job. Provide in-service experiences with topics and areas that contribute to competence, empowerment, growth and self-development.

22.7 Institute leadership – substitute it for hierarchical levels of reporting and supervision by defining and moving constantly towards partnership and derived shared destinations.

22.8 Drive out fear. Reasonable risks are to be rewarded if they were taken to achieve organizational objectives. Failure is for learning and fixing, not for blaming.
22.9 Break down barriers between classes, levels, specialities, schools, departments and administration levels.

22.10 Eliminate slogans, exhortations and numerical targets.

22.11 Eliminate work standards (quotas) and management by objective. Mastery and competence are more important than learning (a process), and learning is more important than attendance or compliance.

22.12 Remove barriers that rob educators, administrators, learners and parents of their right to take pride in their accomplishments and contributions to self and others.

22.13 Institute a vigorous process of results – referenced in-service education and self-improvement of all staff members. Collect and use valid data. Use evaluation for improving, not for blaming.

22.14 Enroll everyone in the system to work to accomplish the transformation: everyone makes their unique contributions to the shared vision and mission.

SECTION E: QUALITY AND EDUCATION POLICY

23. In terms of the *South African School's Act (84 of 1996)* the Governing Body of a public school must promote the best interests of the school and strive to ensure its development through the provision of quality education for all learners at the school.

23.1 In general, how would you rate the work of the Governing Body at your school?

- Totally ineffective
- Performs certain functions only
- Satisfactorily performs all functions
- Efficient and Effective
- Exceptionally pleasing in performing all duties

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23.2 Tick to indicate which stakeholders are active participants on the Governing Body.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Stakeholders</th>
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<td>Parents</td>
<td>1</td>
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<tr>
<td>Educators</td>
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<td>Principal</td>
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<td>Co-opted members</td>
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<td>Learners (secondary schools only)</td>
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<tr>
<td>Non-educators</td>
<td>6</td>
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<tr>
<td>Community Organisations</td>
<td>7</td>
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23.3 With specific reference to its task to **provide quality in education** (Clause 20(1)(a), how would you rate your Governing Body, with 1 representing the position that the Governing Body is doing little or nothing and 5 representing exceptional work in achieving quality.

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24. In terms of education policy and the legislative context for quality in education, indicate the extent to which you believe they are being complied with.


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24.2 According to the *National Education Policy Act (27 of 1996)*, the Minister is mandated to direct that standards of education provision, delivery and performance are monitored. Evaluation needs to be carried out under the aegis of the National Department annually or at specified intervals, with the object of assessing progress in complying with the provisions of the constitution and with national education policy. To what extent is this being complied with?

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24.3 The Assessment Policy, gazetted in December 1998, provides for the conducting of systemic evaluation at the key transitional stages, viz, Grades 3, 6 and 9. The main objective is to assess the effectiveness of the entire system and the extent to which the vision and goals of the education system are being achieved. To what extent are the provisions of the Assessment Policy being complied with?

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**THANK YOU**
INTERVIEW SCHEDULE

Questions to be put to members of school governing bodies.

THE SCOPE AND APPLICABILITY OF TOTAL QUALITY MANAGEMENT (TQM) TO THE PUBLIC SCHOOLING SYSTEM.

1. Is the Governing Body properly constituted in terms of the South African Schools Act (84 of 1996)?

2. Which stakeholders are active participants on the Governing Body?
   - parents
   - educators
   - principal
   - co-opted members
   - learners (secondary schools only)
   - non-educators
   - community leaders

3. Are you aware that in terms of the South African Schools Act (84 of 1996) the Governing Body is responsible for the provision of quality education for all learners at the school?

4. Is the Governing Body, as a whole, contributing to the provision of quality education to all learners?

5. How would you rate the contributions of the different stakeholders to attaining quality education?

6. What, in your view, are the main obstacles to quality initiatives being implemented in schools?
INTERVIEW SCHEDULE

Questions to be put to Department Officials involved with quality initiatives.

THE SCOPE AND APPLICABILITY OF TOTAL QUALITY MANAGEMENT (TQM) TO THE PUBLIC SCHOOLING SYSTEM

1. Briefly describe your role in the quality initiatives undertaken by the Department of Education.

2. Evaluate the following initiatives – Developmental Appraisal of Educators (DAS) and Whole School Evaluation (WSE) in terms of :-

   2.1 policy formulation
      2.1.1 was a needs survey conducted?
      2.1.2 were all stakeholders consulted?

   2.2 policy implementation
      2.2.1 was the ground adequately prepared for implementation?
      2.2.2 was there adequate training?
      2.2.3 what is your assessment of the resources committed to these initiatives – financial resources, human resource and logistical support.

3. Was policy evaluation/review conducted?

4. What were the main obstacles/challenges in implementing DAS and WSE?

5. What, in your view, are the prospects for a quality initiative such as Total Quality Management (TQM) being implemented in the South African public schooling system?