AN EVALUATIVE ANALYSIS OF EDUCATIONAL ADMINISTRATION IN KWAZULU

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ABSTRACT

The study deals with administration of education in KwaZulu where the concern is for efficient and effective use of limited financial, human and material resources. The purpose of this evaluative analysis of educational administration is to determine the degrees of efficiency and effectiveness with which the system of education functions. Therefore, the aims of the study were the following:

* To describe the KwaZulu educational system: its origin, character, socio-political context and constraints;

* To identify the generic functions of educational administration on the basis of which criteria were formulated for evaluation;

* To analyse educational administration in KwaZulu and to evaluate it by means of formulated criteria, and

* To formulate recommendations regarding the improvement of educational administration in the area.

The conceptual framework of the study derived from the development of administrative theories through time and their implication for, and impact on educational administration. This analysis enabled the investigator to extract criteria for evaluating administration of education in KwaZulu. The evaluative analysis had to be carried out in terms of the organisation of education from the school level to the head office. To deal adequately with the problem being examined, detailed discussion was given of the KwaZulu system of education and the broader context in which it functions.

The population of the study comprised three categories of education officers, namely, school principals, circuit inspectors and selected administrators from the head office. The instruments for data collection were questionnaires for school principals and circuit inspectors and interviews for the head office administrators. The study identified the following problem areas: preparation for administrative roles, perceptions of work-related skills, work performance in terms of tasks, the process of administration and

related problems, and collaboration among education officers as well as with interested parties. The analysis of data was both quantitative and qualitative. In the light of the findings of the study the investigator offered several recommendations.

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R.V. GABELA

KWA-DLANGEZWA

DEDICATION

This work is dedicated to my father, Titus, and my mother, Gastina (MaMbuyisa), who have been called to eternal peace. Their love and sacrifices provided me with the vital resource for self-fulfilment.

DECLARATION

I hereby declare that AN EVALUATIVE ANALYSIS OF EDUCATIONAL ADMINISTRATION IN KWAZULU is my work and that all the sources I have used or quoted have been indicated and acknowledged by means of complete references.

R.V. GABELA

KWA-DLANGEZWA

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CHAPTER ONE

1. ORIENTATION TO THE PROBLEM

1.1 Introduction

One of the most pressing needs facing every nation today is education. Accordingly each nation has developed or inherited some kind of a system of education. The extent to which educational systems are similar or different is determined by a number of factors. About fifty years ago Kandel (1938:7) made the following observation:

> The character of the education offered varies from state to state in accordance with its political, social and economic ideals and purposes. The type of administrative principles and organisation adopted is in the main determined by these ideals and purposes, and in turn determines the spirit of the education that is given.

The differences which exist among the systems of education do not legitimate varying degrees of efficiency. Every system of education regardless of its origin or nature has in modern times a task which is tremendous in scope and significance, namely, to foster development and progress of mankind. Every educational system is regarded by Thembela (1980:2) as

> ... an interwoven structure in which various societal groups have a role to play with regard to public education and which is organised with a view to promoting efficiency.

The rendering of educational services in a country is, as a rule, preceeded by an elaborate process of educational planning. This process involves various activities which emanate from the need to render the service; the means and material to be identified and procured to provide the service; the manner and procedure to be designed to facilitate the rendering of the service, and the aims to be achieved. In order to cause the educational services to be rendered in an effective and co-ordinated manner there must be efficient administration. O'Connor (1961:7) points out that ultimately all questions that can be asked about a given educational system can be reduced to two, namely, the value as an end of education and the means to be effectively used to realise this end. Because administration is related to the "means", it is central to the health and well-being of an educational system. It, therefore makes sense for one to speak of evaluation of educational administration.

1.2 Statement of the Problem

Developing countries, in general, believe tha education is a key to social and economic development The birth of KwaZulu is of recent origin. The self governing territory exists with its departments set u in accordance with the stipulations of the Nationa States Constitution Act of 1971. The KwaZul Department of Education and Culture has, therefore emerged as part of a political machinery designed fo Black participation. The concept of geographica separation of political rights, formed the essentia part of the Nationalist Government policy, and th self-governing territories called "national states were meant to demonstrate the feasibility of thi geographical separation.

A look at the Blacks in South Africa shows considerable interest among them in formal education It is expected that this interest will call fo considerable responsibility and a sense of purpose o the part of those who administer education. KwaZulu i the biggest of all South African self-governin territories. Its needs and challenges are greater an more complex than those of other territories. KwaZul is undergoing transformation from a traditiona

community to a modern one. The growth of the population and changes in social life-style give rise to demand for greater educational opportunities. This demand coincides with over-crowded classrooms, employment of unqualified teaching personnel, high pupil-teacher ratio and high rates of failure and drop-out among pupils and students. To make matters worse many KwaZulu schools lack the most basic furniture and the few that have laboratories and libraries have virtually no stocks. Thembela (1980:5) writes about this state of affairs,

> Educational development faces financial constraints where the problem is that of getting greater and better educational facilities out of meagre available resources. Education is competing with other important demands by sectors such as housing, health, industry and agriculture.

The shortcomings referred to above emphasise the need for efficient and effective administration to ensure the optimal use of limited financial, human and material resources. Whatever improvements are needed in education; the kind of adaptation sought; the quality of education needed, and the best and most effective manner in which it could be provided, all have major implications for educational administration.

(1968:119) is emphatic on this point:

> Any productive system whatever its aims and technology requires management. It must have leadership and direction, supervision and co-ordination, constant evaluation and adjustment.

It is the investigator's submission that improvement i a system of education cannot be brought about only b increased per capita spending, a favourable change i pupil-teacher ratio, curricular innovation, or didacti insights and technological devices to implement them The administrative aspects of education merit attentio as well. An evaluative analysis of administration i one of the means of determining the level of efficienc and effectiveness at which education is caused t function by a host of organisations and people who hav a hand in administering the system or some aspect o it.

Administration is a process which applies to all form of organised activities. These activities are found i business, religious, charitable, governmental, medical military and educational organisations. In the KwaZul educational system, as well as in many other systems, teacher who was trained to teach either a language o

mathematics is often promoted to administer a school.

He may be promoted further to administer a schoo system and end up administering the whole educationa system. Walker (1970:7) argues that we delud ourselves by referring to several years of clas teaching, which may or may not provide some vicariou experiences in administration, as training. Sinc administrative decisions have a significant impact upo the members of an educational organisation, and sinc schools and educational systems are the bigges organisations in any country, it is important for on to pay attention to educational administration. Th study of KwaZulu was undertaken against thi background.

1.3 Definition of Terms

1.3.1 Educational Administration

The word "administer" is derived from the Latin ter "administrare", which means "to assist" as well as "t direct." In its Latin origin the term was used in th sense of "perform", "take charge of" or "accomplish often with overtones of doing so in the spirit of ai on guidance (Campbell and Gregg,1957:85 Baker,1972:13). Administration in current usag carries the meaning of the art of getting thing

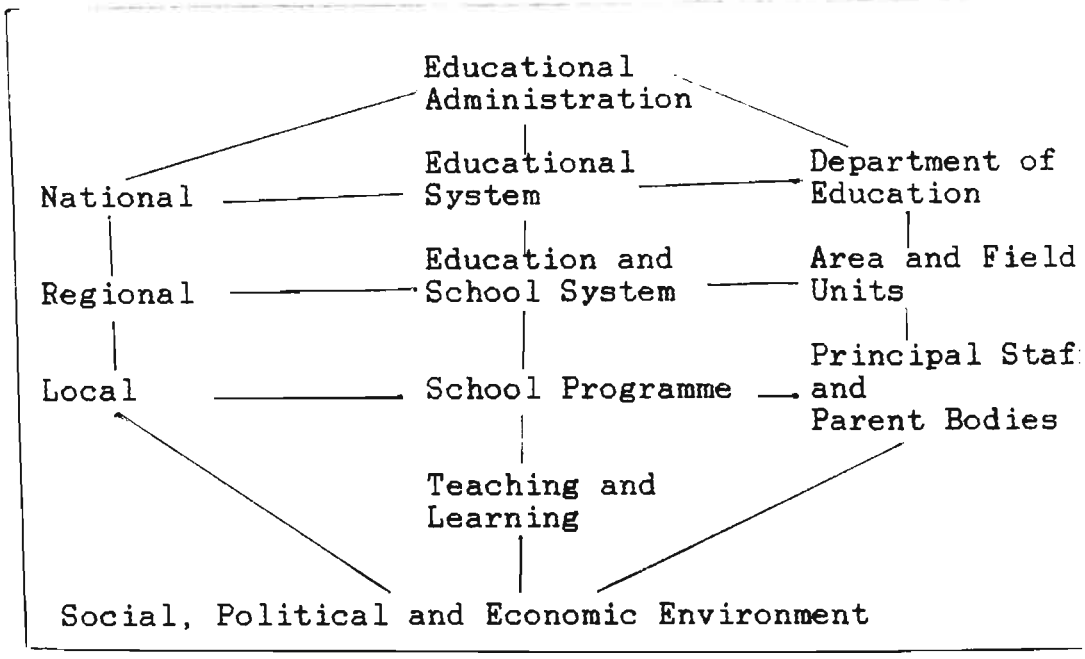
efficiently done with and through other people" (Simon,1976:1; Robbins,1980:6); Sergiovanni et. al. 1980:5). Emphasis is placed upon the enabling process or activity. As far as educational administration is concerned the emphasis is not on performance. Administration is used as a collective noun often to refer to a certain group of persons and their functions within an organisation. Tead (Walker,1970:3) defines administration as

> the process and agency which is responsible for the determination of the aims for which an organisation and its management are to strive, which establishes the broad policies under which they are to operate and which gives general oversight to the continuing effectiveness of the total operation in reaching the objectives sought.

Administration as defined by Tead implies that there is an organisation on whose behalf the process is carried on. Secondly, the definition implies the existence of an enabling mechanism which is primarily concerned with the determination and implementation of the policies and aims of the organisation. Thirdly, administration is regarded as the specialised work of maintaining the organisation in operation. With respect to education Nell (Undated:5) considers that educational

administration can be carried out at three structural levels, namely, the macro-, the meso- and the micro-levels. These elements or levels relate to the national, regional and local strata of education within a given social, economic and political environment (See Figure 1). The macro-structure refers to the structuring and functioning of the national system of education. The meso-structure involves, amongst other things, the influence of the views and the functioning of the regional administrative agencies in relation to the government institutions and the broad community. The micro-structure refers to the functioning of the school and its local administration. At each level there will be found persons who have sorted themselves out organisationally to achieve commonly sought aims, or are functioning administratively to attend to the performance of certain functions, or are doing both. The administration of education at different levels may, therefore, be illustrated by means of the following figure based on the observation of the investigator:

Figure 1: Stylised Representation of Educationa Administration



An educational system, therefore, is a larg organisation which is divided into certain levels fo purposes of effective administration by designate administrative agencies. But in practice the cut-of point between administration and an organisation is no always readily discernible because administration i carried on by people who are members of organisation for which administration exists. According t Castetter (1981:10) educational administration shoul be viewed as a social process:

> This process may be examined from three points of view. Structurally, administration is

> seen as the hierarchy of superordinate-subordinate relationships within the social system. Functionally, this hierarchy of relationships is the locus for allocating and integrating roles and functions in order to achieve the goals of the system. Operationally, the administration takes effect in situations involving person-to-person interaction.

This definition emphasises the view that administratio is the process of working with and through other peopl to accomplish organisational goals.

The term "management" is often used as a synonym fo administration although some authors do not refer t this synonymity. In certain usage, managemen identifies a special group of people whose job is t direct efforts towards common objectives through th activities of other people (Massie,1964:4; Douglass an Bevis,1979:2; Anderson,1988:8). In this sens management is synonymous with administration. I industrial establishments reference is made t production management, personnel management, sale management and so on. In another sense educationa management is that aspect of educational administratio which has to do with immediate execution of tasks suc as taking stock, caring for equipment, checkin accounts and attending to records (Nell,Undated:13)

In Tead's definition - given earlier on, management is subsumed under administration. In yet another sense management is associated with the initiation of policy decisions whilst administration has to do with interpretation, detailed specification and implementation of such decisions (Katz and Katz,1978:479; Anderson,1988:8). It, therefore, seems as Robbins (1980:6) argues, that the perceived differences between these terms are neither constant nor significant. For purposes of this study these terms are regarded as synonyms.

A review of administrative literature points to four elements that are common to any comprehensive definition of educational administration. These are the process, comprising certain functions; the human organisation or people with and through whom administrators perform their work; resources which are utilised, and the objectives to be achieved. If any one of these elements is missing there cannot be administration.

In this study educational administration is, therefore, understood as the process of making an educational organisation perform well through setting objectives, making decisions and taking actions about the efficient

and effective use of organisational efforts an resources.

Educational administration, which also refers to field of study in education, is a theoretica reflection on the issues, theories, procedures an practices of administration of education. The study o education reveals the essences of education in so fa as what administration does to it. The functions o administration with respect to education are examine more closely in Chapter Two. Suffice it to say that a analysis of the functions of administration is th first step in the development of a precise definitio of the concept of educational administration.

1.3.2 The Difference between Administration of Education an Administration of an Educational System

The difference between administering education an administering an educational system has already bee alluded to by the definitions of the concept o administration and the illustration of its applicatio (See Figure 1). Administration in relation to teachin and learning is what school administrators, educatio officers and all who work directly with them do to mak the efforts of teachers and learners easier, mor effective and more efficient. In this sens

administration is concerned with stimulating co-ordinating and giving direction to teaching and learning, and therefore education. In this connection Thembela,1978:27) avers,

> The concept of educational administration can be summarised as the bringing of pupils and teachers together under such conditions as will nost successfully promote the ends of education.

The difference between administration of education and administration of an educational system is that the former may refer to the creation and maintenance of an educational environment within the school or school system, whereas the latter is concerned with the development of goals, policies and procedures to provide general guidance and direction to the entire system of education. The concept of an educational system with reference to KwaZulu is dealt with in Chapter Four.

1.4 Aims of the Study

Some research has been done regarding instruction-related issues and strategies to deal with them in KwaZulu (Thembela,1975; Ndaba,1975; Mdluli,1980). An evaluative study had to be undertaken on the administrative dimension, which is not only related to

the above-mentioned functional areas but actually gives unity and direction to the entire system of education.

Section 1.2 has indicated, at least in part, what the purpose of this study is. The investigation focuses attention on the KwaZulu territory. The study seeks to provide an understanding of education as it is administered in KwaZulu, so as to determine the extent to which the various administrative components of the system perform their functions successfully and contribute to the achievement of educational aims. On the basis of the analysis, recommendations are made. The aims of this study are thus three-fold:

* To identify the generic functions of educational administration on which are based the criteria for evaluating instances of educational administration;
* To examine educational administration in KwaZulu and to evaluate it by means of established criteria, and
* To formulate recommendations concerning the improvement of educational administration in the area concerned.

1.5 Motivation for the Study

There was justification for a study of this nature From a scientific point of view the concept o educational administration refers to an academic study based on concepts to be understood and a body o knowledge to be studied and researched. Educationa administration as dealt with in South Africa seems t be largely a conceptually and methodologically under developed field. South African literatur (Ruperti,1976; Behr,1984; Van Wyk,1986; Va Schalkwyk,1988) refers to educational administration i terms of structures which, with their powers and tasks form an integral part of an educational system. Bu the dynamic process of interaction which results i decisions and actions of these administrativ structures is left out of account. Hayward (1969:34) more than two decades ago, made the following remark about educational administration based on South Africa literature:

> It has been mainly descriptive, the aim being to indicate to students, teachers or teachers-to-be, the detailed structure of their own or another educational organisation.

The investigation has found this indictment to be vali even today.

In the opinion of the investigator no research similar to this study has been undertaken in the South African context. Exceptions could be made of related contributions of Vos (1976) and Thembela (1980) to the elucidation of the concept of planning an educational system. This study was prompted by the need to relate to South African practice, educational administration insights and theoretical formulations by way of making the subject a legitimate component of educational studies on the one hand, and to determine the present extent of the application of these insights and theoretical formulations to the administration of education in KwaZulu on the other hand.

The repeal of apartheid laws such as the Group Areas Act, the Population Registration Act and so on, have opened the way for a negotiated political settlement in South Africa. This development anticipates a new educational dispensation which, regardless of its pattern of organisation, is bound to use the existing categories of personnel from the current sub-systems of education.

1.6 Delimitation of the Study

The study was carried out at three levels of educational administration in KwaZulu, namely, central

regional and local levels. Central administration is exercised from the headquarters at Ulundi. The KwaZulu education territory is divided into twenty-five inspection circuits which are demarcated into four regions for regional management. Each inspection circuit has a number of primary and secondary schools where local administration is exercised.

In undertaking this study it was necessary for the investigator to review the broad South African educational scene, as a framework within which the KwaZulu educational system is given a place, in terms of the latter's political and legislative bases and functional relationship with the former. This review was meant to provide the necessary understanding of the constraints, problems and challenges confronting the area under study.

1.7 Method of Investigation

An in-depth literature review was undertaken with a view to deriving a conceptual framework within which the problem could be investigated. Literature provided understanding of the processes, theories and purposes of administration which, when weighed up against the concept of an educational system, provided the basis for establishing criteria for evaluating educational

administration.

The basic research design selected for this study is the survey. Questionnaires and interview schedules were constructed. Questionnaires were completed by headmasters and circuit inspectors. In-depth interviews were conducted among assistant directors, directors and the secretary for education. Analyses were both qualitative and quantitative. It was envisaged that these forms of analysis would yield information on the mode of current administration as well as on the needed improvements and adjustments.

CHAPTER TWO

2. A REVIEW OF THE ORIGIN AND DEVELOPMENT OF ADMINISTRATIVE THEORIES AND THEIR APPLICATION TO EDUCATIONAL ADMINISTRATION

2.1 Introduction

Education is a process and activity in relation to human beings. To educate is to engage in a process and to have an education is to be someone who has undergone that process. Educational administration as means sets norms in respect of which educational activities will be directed and co-ordinated. Both education and administration are human activities which raise questions and problems, which in turn arouse curiosity and a desire to know. The need for study becomes clear, for example, when the people concerned with these activities begin to disagree. Educators may disagree about who should be educated, who should educate, how much education should be given, how it should be given, and why it should be given. Furthermore, there may be differences on the type and amount of resources and facilities which will ensure the best conditions for education. In the process of disagreement anyone who makes a choice and judgment implies a theory in the sense that there is a rationale for, as well as a guide to, his actions.

For a given educational system there is a central tasl to be discharged, namely, education. Secondly, there is administration of education which implies initiation, direction and co-ordination of educationa activities. Working from these practical bases the scientist can arrive at a theory which provides a basis for sound educational administration and research. In this chapter of the study a review of administrative theories and their relevance to educationa administration is made. On the basis of this review the criteria for evaluating educational administration are formulated. The first part of the chapter takes a look at the concept of theory in relation to educational administration.

2.2 The Concept of Theory in Relation to Educationa Administration

The Greek word "theoros" is translated as "spectator" the word "theory" then has a link with this meaning as a way of looking at or surveying a field of evidence with a view to extracting principles from it (Sutton,1979:2). A theory is a mental conception which underlies practice. A theory of administration enables us to understand and to predict administrative behaviour. When the administrator's experiences have led him to believe that certain kinds of acts wil

result in certain other events or acts, he is using a theory. Hughes (1974:20) states,

> We may regard administrative theory as a mapping of the territory within which the administrator is operating. If one has no map a set of detailed itineraries can be useful, but as with all empirical prescriptions, the instructions become dated if conditions change. If a road is blocked or a bridge is swept away, the itinerary taken by itself may be useless.

There is a general agreement that a theory is a set of related statements explaining some series of events. Rooted in the world of experience, a theory acts as a guide not only to action but to the discovery of facts. In this connection Rummel (1964:16) says,

> Basic to good scientific research is a theory which serves as a point of departure for the scientific investigation of a problem.

According to Beauchamp (1981) the most simple function of a theory is to provide a system for classifying the knowledge of a theoretical field. Theories can help those who are engaged in educational administration as an academic study to discover more facts and to map out the territory in which the educational administrators

can operate. They may also enable the practisin administrators to make decisions and take actions wit a good chance of being correct.

Hoy and Miskel (1982:25) identify three ways in whic theory is related to practice:

> First, theory provides a frame of reference for the practitioner. Second, the process of theorizing provides a general mode of analysis of practical events and third, theory guides practical rational decision making.

What the study of educational administration provide: for the administrator is not mere factual informatio: about day-to-day tasks of educational administrators but an understanding of the kinds of ideas that ar relevant to his tasks. How these ideas have evolve through time should be clear from the followin discussion.

2.3 The Origin and Development of Administrative Theorie:

There is sufficient evidence to show that administration of complex organisations has existed fo thousands of years. Sisk (1973) argues that the earl civilisations of Egyptians, the Greeks and the Roma Empire could not have existed for centuries had there

not been well-developed administrative organisations and procedures. But according to Owens (1970) the study of Cameralism is a reasonable starting point in the search for a systematic definition of administration. The Cameralist movement flourished in Germany and Austria in the 1700's. To the Cameralists, administration was the process of studying, organising, inventing, developing, systematising, ordering and relating the activities of the state (Campbell and Gregg,1957:86; Koontz and O'Donnell,1964:15).

In the United States of America in the 19th century the term "administration", too, was used in the context of government and the ideas it represented gave rise to the growth of public administration. In that century the emergence of the field of administration was first crystallised by the publication in 1887 of Woodrow Wilson's "Study of Administration." In this article Wilson felt that the improvement of administrative techniques depended on scholarly study and learning in the specialised field of administration itself. He argued that the search for principles was essential in the development of administrative science (Wilson,1887; Self,1972). Both the Cameralists and Wilson stressed the importance of the professionalisation of administration and the study related thereto.

The systematic study and the development of formal literature on administration appeared at a later date and came to be divided into four separate but related approaches. The first of these approaches emphasised management and its relationship to the production process. The second approach relating to the problems of management consists of those writings that emphasised the administration of the entire organisation. The third approach emphasised the importance of establishing sound practices of human relations as a means of improving the management process. Finally, there are several contemporary approaches to the study of management that emphasise either social system, decision making and the application of quantitative methods or the systems approach to the study of management. Common to these approaches is a consistent search for general principles which apply with the necessary changes to all forms of administration.

2.3.1 Emphasis Upon Production

This approach was occasioned by the Industrial Revolution and the need for knowledge about management of the new organisations to accelerate production. The exponents of this approach believed that "managers should direct their attention and energy to increasing

the efficiency of the production process (Sisk,1973:31). The approach was concerned with the study of the work process with a view to increasing the efficiency of the individual operative and the work force as a whole. The name of Frederick Taylor, an engineer, is most commonly associated with the movement.

From about 1900 to 1915 Frederick Taylor worked primarily at the operative level to solve the practical production problems in factories in the U.S.A. Taylor (1911) stressed that increased efficiency would be achieved in the management of all kinds of organisation by means of extreme specialisation and tight control of tasks, including the managers' as well as workers' tasks. The main emphasis of his school and its followers was on production efficiency and division of labour. He accordingly arrived at the following four principles:

(a) Gathering, analysing and codifying of data existing in the business;

(b) Careful selection and a thorough study of the workman so that he may be developed to his maximum capabilities;

(c) Inspiring men to use scientific principles derived

from careful analysis of data and method used in the job, and

(d) Management to organise in such a manner that it could properly manage and carry out its duties (Taylor,1911; Sisk,1973.)

The concept of administration as perceived by Taylor was rigid, mechanistic and authoritarian. The implications of his work for education meant that schools should not be seen just as educational institutions, but as industrial plants where pupils represented the raw products to be processed, teachers were the workers, and school administrators served as the industrial managers who monitored the flow of the educational assembly line (Campbell, et.al.,1987:37). Musaazi (1982:28) observes,

> Taylor's idea of rigid control could hinder initiative and lead to much bureaucracy or `group think', especially in the headquarters of the ministries of education.

Furthermore Taylor's emphasis on productivity is closely related to the number of passes in examinations and the volume of written work given to pupils as the measures of educational productivity. In spite of the limitations of Taylor's idea of management, some of his

ideas could be helpful when applied to the educationa system. His ideas which are very relevant t educational administration are division of work and co ordination, staff selection and development, jo definition and control of work, planning and goa setting, team work, order and discipline.

2.3.2 Emphasis upon Administration

Whilst Taylor worked in the U.S.A., Henri Fayol, French engineer and geologist, was working out som important ideas of his own. In contrast to Taylor' study of management through a detailed analysis of th individual work, Fayol analysed the problems o management. Fayol believed that the success of th manager was not due to his personal characteristics o leadership but was the result of applying a set o general administrative principles that could be isolated and taught to others. In his view a trainec administrative group was essential for improving the operations of organisations which were becoming complex. Fayol advanced the search for the general principles of administration which Wilson had callec for, when he defined administration as consisting of five elements: planning, organising, commanding, co-ordinating and controlling (Fayol,1949; Owens,1970; Spiers,1975).

Fayol recommended rational selection of, and trainin for, workmen together with professional education o managers. Unlike Taylor who tended to view men a extensions of factory machinery, Fayol emphasise broader preparation of administrators so that the would be better prepared to perform their functions i the organisation. He further emphasised the importanc in administration of division of work, authority discipline, unity of command, unity of direction subordination of individual interest to the genera interest, remuneration, centralisation, scalar chai (line of authority), order, equity, stability of tenur of personnel, initiative and esprit de corp (Fayol,1949; Sisk,1973; Hicks and Gullett,1975.) These issues came to be identified as Fayol's fourtee principles of management which "go far toward capturin the entire flavour of the administrative theor movement" (Hicks and Gullett,1975:164.) I categorising these precepts Sisk (1973) considers that five of Fayol's principles emphasise productior efficiency; five are concerned primarily with the improvement of human relations, and the remaining eight are directed towards administration of the organisation.

Fayol emphasised that flexibility and a sense o: proportion were essential for managers to adap principles and definitions to particular situations This was a notable departure from Taylor who hel firmly to uniform application of principles. Th contributions of these men belong to the period o 1910-1935 which is generally thought of as the era o scientific management. For the administration o education the scientific management approach place emphasis on the development of skills needed to run th schools in a business-oriented society (Handy an Hussain,1962.)

Fayol's conception of administration placed th administrator of any establishment in a position where he must perform certain functions, thereby increasing the efficiency and effectiveness of an organisation. Later (in 1937) Gulick coined POSDCoRB as an acronym to describe his list of important functions of administration (Hicks and Gullet,1975; Hoy and Miskel,1982; Musaazi,1982.) The letters stand for: planning, organising, staffing, directing, co-ordinating, reporting and budgeting. The list attempted to synthesise what was known to be the formulation of management functions by both Taylor and Fayol.

In this phase of administrative thought the approach consisted largely in summing up of organisational activities and the search for principles which should guide administration as a process. Administration viewed from the perspective could be studied as a dynamic process of developing and blending various activities to attain a high degree of administrative training and insight.

2.3.3 Emphasis Upon Human Relations

Although Fayol recognised the need for sound human relations, it was the human relations movement (1935-1950) which provided a way of looking at the effect of human factors on production efficiency more precisely. The human relations movement, therefore, constituted the third major approach to administration. The work of Mary Parker Follet and Elton Mayo made a significant contribution to this approach. Follet contended that the fundamental task of any enterprise, whether it be government, business organisation or an educational system "is the building and maintenance of dynamic yet harmonious, human relationships" (Campbell, et.al.,1971:107; Musaazi,1982:35). It remained for Elton Mayo and his colleagues to supply empirical data in support of such a view. Mayo and his co-worker, all Americans, collected a large body of data that made it

clear that productivity is likely to be increased whe emphasis is put on such factors as worke participation, satisfaction, motivation, co-operation morale and cohesiveness of the group (Owens,1970; Hick and Gullett,1975; Musaazi,1982.)

Human relations in administration placed great emphasi on leadership. For example, the success of th educational system as a human enterprise depends to a large extent on the ability of the educationa administrators to plan, organise, direct and co-ordinate the educational activities. The huma relations approach paid even greater attention to participation as the facilitative process in organisation. Owens (1970:28-29) emphasises this point:

> Whereas at one time schools were looked upon as production facilities in which students are raw materials to be processed by workers (i.e. teachers) at the lowest per-unit cost, later - in the human relations era - emphasis was placed on the pay-off of personnel policies that recognized morale problems and the wisdom of involving a wide spectrum of the staff in decision-making.

The human relations approach to administration saw individuals as active human beings in the organisations

so that their co-operation should be sought for effectiveness of their work. This approach to administration was based on the central idea that since administration involves getting things done with and through people, administration must be centred on inter-personal or human relations (Morgan,1973:5). Let us now look at the modern approach to administration.

2.3.4 Modern Approach to Administration

Sisk (1973:50) refers to the divergent opinions concerning the entire issue of management prior to the 1950's as comparable to the story of the three blind men,

> ... each of whom described in turn an elephant as a rope (the one who touched the tail), a snake (the one who found the trunk), and a tree stump (the one who touched a leg).

From the 1950's further attempts were made to develop a scientific basis for administration. The modern approach to administration is multi-dimensional and multi-disciplinary, drawing ideas from sociology, psychology, economics, political science, ecology and other behavioural sciences. The functions of administration are viewed in relation to the nature of organisations, role systems, types and levels of

interaction and the surrounding environment. Cheste Barnard, an American industrialist, is reported to b the first person to study administration with a view t relating it to behavioural sciences (Owens,1970 Musaazi,1982). He spent time consulting wit clergymen, military men, government officials university officials, leaders of businesses and othe organisations.

Barnard (1968:235) gave the following characterisatio of the functions of administration:

> The executive functions which have been distinguished for purposes of exposition and which are the basis for much functional specialization in organizations have no separate concrete existence. They are parts or aspects of a process of organizations as a whole.

One of Barnard's major contributions was the concept of efficiency and effectiveness. Effectiveness is system-oriented and has to do with the achievement of organisational goals:

> It relates exclusively to the appropriateness of the means selected under the conditions as a whole for the accomplishment of the final objective. (Barnard,1968:236).

Efficiency, on the other hand, is person-oriented an has to do with the feelings of satisfaction a worke derives from membership in an organisation.

> The meaning of efficiency as applied to organization is the maintenance of an equilibrium of organization activities through the satisfaction of the motives of the individuals sufficient to induce these activities (Barnard,1968:240).

Barnard's approach did much to put the work of Taylo and Fayol, who had concentrated on organisationa achievement, and Follet and Mayo, who have tended t emphasise organisational humanisation, in appropriat perspective. The educational implications of thi approach are that the educational administrator wil perform the functions necessary to facilitate educatio (effectiveness) and to hold the educationa organisation together (efficiency). In addition, th performance of these functions entails the ability fo the administrator to use his knowledge about huma behaviour.

One of the ideas attributed to Barnard and othe behaviourists is the view of an organisation primarily as a social system existing in an environment (supra-system) and having within it a sub-system (the

administrative apparatus). The school as a organisation as well as the entire system of educatio in a country fits in with this description. Th interdependence of the organisation and its environmen is well explained by the concept of an organisation "a a system consisting generally of inputs, processes outputs, feedback and environment" (Hicks an Gullett,1975:211).

Until the 1950's educational administration wa affected very little by the evolution of administratio as a field of study. This state of affairs was largel due to the fact that the teaching of educationa administration was not part of the mainstream o scholarly thought and research in which the evolutio was taking place. However, by 1950, Sears (1950) ha adapted Fayol's and Gulick's ideas to education b suggesting that administrative activity comprise planning, organisation, direction, co-ordination an control. By 1955 the American Association of Schoo Administrators had enumerated the following as th significant activities for the administrator: planning, allocation, stimulation, co-ordination and evaluatio (Owens,1970). By the same date the students of behavioural sciences were exploring new vistas by wa of expanding on Barnard's work.

Herbert Simon (1950) viewed administration fundamentally as a process of decision making and the organisation as a decision making device. He pointed out that all people in an organisation make decisions but they specialise in the kinds of decisions they make and the amount of time devoted to decision making. In this respect teachers, for example, make decisions which determine to a great extent the impact of their teaching on the learner. Other education officers who have less teaching responsibilities spend more time on making decisions of a different kind as principals, inspectors, educational planners, curriculum planners, directors or secretaries. Indeed, a large body of literature both within and out of education, focuses on decision making as a vital element which pervades the entire process of administration, as the process of decision and action.

2.4 Administrative Theory and the Process of Educational Administration

It is now recognised that what is "new" in the modern approach to administration should at best be viewed as a combination of classical concepts which emphasised the structure of organisations, the human relations concepts which emphasised the psycho-social factors, and the behavioural concepts which lay emphasis upon

administration as a dynamic process which involves th behaviour and interaction of people withi organisational settings.

What is called "administrative theory" involves th search for principles which are applicable t educational administration as well as other types o administration. These principles would provide conceptual framework through which knowledge of th various types of administration may be systematised an integrated. This is the first dimension o administrative theory. The second dimension o administrative theory is the organisational theor which has to do with the structure and functions of and interaction in, organisations which are administered. Organisational theory views organisations as they are, and points out that there is structure as well as function to the organisation on the one hand, and there is human involvement, both group and individual, in the structure and functions, on the other hand. The third dimension of administrative theory is administrative behaviour, which is also referred to as the process or functions of administration. Cloete (1978) refers to these functions as the "generic" or "enabling" administrative processes.

The first dimension of administrative theory, als known as the principles of management, is a set o ideas generally concerned with the structure o: organisations, including a system of education. Som ideas prescribe certain actions or conditions, fo: example, Fayol's principles of unity of command, unit: of direction and equity. Other ideas are essentiall; descriptions or definitions of actions or conditions The principles of authority and centralisation are examples of these. The influence of some of these ideas on educational administration is shown ir Chapter Three of this study.

What needs to be said at this point is that the significance of the principles of administration lies in the extent to which they influence the administrative process in their negative and positive aspects. The general criticism of these principles is that they lack scientific derivation and sophistication (Hicks and Gullett,1975). Because of this lack, these principles are regarded as "proverbs" (Simon,1950; Lorch,1978). The principle of unity of command is that no member of the organisation should receive orders from more than one superior. This principle clashes with the principle of specialisation of task, which says that specialists should be assigned

to separate task-specialised agencies. If, fo example, an educational planner is going to take order from the secretary for education under the principle o unity of command, he cannot, under the principle o specialisation of task, also be assigned to a plannin division, taking orders from the director of th section. Expressing disenchantment with this situatio Simon, (1950:20) wrote,

> It is a fatal defect of current principles of administration that, like proverbs they occur in pairs. For almost every principle one can find an equally plausible and acceptable contradictory principle. Although the two principles of the pair will lead to exactly opposite recommendations, there is nothing in the theory to indicate which is the proper to apply.

The same problem of contradiction is found with th principles of centralisation and decentralisation Centralisation holds that the effectiveness of a organisation is enhanced by consolidating decisio making at one centre. On the contrary decentralisation suggests that the organisation wil benefit from delegating decision making to subordinat units or levels. However, in spite of the apparen confusion and misunderstanding regarding the principle of administration, such principles remain legitimat

components of the administrative theory. Contemporary texts on administration are generally organised around these management principles as prescriptions and descriptions, as well as around the process of administration and ideas on organisations.

The status of the administrative principles is a questionable one. Because a number of authorities on administration have insisted that most if not all of the currently accepted principles are unscientific, such principles cannot serve as an adequate basis for the formulation of criteria for evaluating educational or other administration. Morphet, et. al. (1974:87), remark as follows concerning the characteristics of the principles of administration:

> These cannot be considered as scientifically determined but rather as operating rules of thumb which have been developed largely from experience. They constitute a part of the 'folklore' of administration and should be studied because they point to the areas in which principles of administration are needed.

It is, therefore, appropriate to regard these principles as concepts of administration which are valid within certain limits. But the absence of universally accepted principles of administration does

not mean that precepts cannot be formulated to evaluate educational administration wherever it is found. These precepts would have to be derived from the theory and practice of administration.

In spite of differences of opinion in regard to the identification of the principles of administration, there are areas of agreement as far as the nature of administration is concerned. One area of agreement is that there must be an organisation. This organisation must consciously seek to achieve clearly defined goals Certain resources must be organised and utilised efficiently, effectively and economically to achieve these goals. The main resource is human beings. The process, procedures and techniques of working with and through people to achieve the goals is known as administration. Arising from the consensus which first manifested itself in industrial organisations, is the universally accepted idea of administration as a process of related activities.

The central purpose of the practice of educational administration is the facilitation of teaching and learning and, therefore, education. As has been noted conceptualisation of the process of administration in the field of educational administration was influenced

by the theoretical developments in business and public administration. Gulick and Urwick (1937) acknowledged that the POSDCoRB functions which applied to public administration were an adaptation of the functional analysis of the business previously elaborated upon by Fayol. Sears (1950), the first writer to apply the administrative process to educational administration in a comprehensive manner, acknowledged his indebtedness to the students of administration, including Fayol and Gulick. Since the contributions of these scholars much has been written to highlight the process of administration as part of the administrative theory to be understood and applied. Simon (1950) suggested that the understanding of the application of the administrative principles is to be obtained by analysing the administrative process in terms of decisions. He argued that there was correlation between the rationality of organisational decisions and their effectiveness.

Following the work of Simon, Griffiths (1959:91) asserted that the central process of administration is decision making which includes the following steps:

(a) Recognise, define and limit the problem;

(b) Analyse and evaluate the problem;

(c) Establish criteria or standards by which the solution will be evaluated or judged as acceptable and adequate to the need;

(d) Collect data;

(e) Formulate and select the preferred solution or solutions, and

(f) Put into effect the preferred solution:

  (i) Programme the solution;

  (ii) Control the activities in the programme, and

  (iii) Evaluate the results and the process.

A close examination of the views of administrative theorists in regard to the administrative process shows that the differences were more a matter of approaches and terminological preferences than the assumption of opposite viewpoints. For example, Simon, like Fayol and Gulick, was concerned with such issues as planning, co-ordinating and review. His approach differed from that of his predecessors in that he examined these issues in decisional terms.

According to Campbell, et. al. (1971:185) Simon's emphasis on decision making "gave his analysis of the administrative process a unity and coherence which earlier formulations lacked." Litchfield

(Campbell,et.al.1971:188) drawing upon the work of Fayol, Gulick and Simon, formulated a conception of the administrative process which stressed its cyclical nature. He viewed the process of administration as decision making, programming, communicating, controlling and reappraising. A further elaboration on his ideas gave indications that the process of decision making impinged on other steps in so far as it had to do with implementation and monitoring of decisions as well as evaluation of results. At a later stage Griffiths' (1959) conception of the centrality of the decision making process in administration embraced such activities as directing, programming, controlling and evaluating.

The formulation of the administrative process in terms of the functions of administration, is, therefore, not out of step with the analyses of these administrative theorists. Through the use of varied terminology, current literature lists the functions of administration as planning, organising, leading, staffing, co-ordinating, controlling and evaluating. Hicks and Gullett (1975) consider the identification of the functions of administration to be one of the most durable contributions to administrative theory.

The universality of the functions of administration a acknowledged, lends to them a claim to being a basi for the formulation of criteria by which effective an efficient administration could be evaluated. Th universality of the functions of administration flow from the fact that these functions are ideologicall neutral. In other words it does not matter wha culture one comes from, or what organisation one work in, or what level one operates at. Secondly, th universality of the functions of administratio manifests itself in the fact that these functions ar transferable among organisations and levels. Thes functions are found among religious, health, business charitable, governmental, military and educationa organisations. Halpin (Campbell and Gregg,1957:195 stresses the importance of understanding th administrative process as a conceptualisation an analysis of a sequence of behaviour:

> Unless one is extremely careful, one can easily be tempted into talking about the `process´ as if it were a free-floating affair, detached from the behavior of individuals.... An outside observer can never observe `process´ qua `process´; he can observe only a sequence of behaviors or behavior-products from which he may infer `process´

Let us take a close look at each one of the functions of administration in order to arrive at the criteria for evaluating educational administration in practice.

2.5 Functions of Administration

For Fayol (1949) the administrative functions were clearly distinguishable from the technical, commercial, financial, security and accounting activities. The functions of administration were identified as the means by which administrators carry out their duties. Campbell, et. al. (1971) distinguish between the functions of adminitration on the one hand and the tasks or operational areas of administration on the other hand. The tasks are identified for the school principal, for example, as the establishment of school-community relationships, providing for curriculum and instruction, attention to staff and pupils, and minding physical facilities, finance and business. Cloete (1978) refers to the generic administrative processes carried out by administrators, functional processes which belong to the domain of professionals and specialists, auxiliary processes at the hands of technical staff, and operational work performed by aides, very junior staff and routine workers.

Typical definitions of administration suggest that it is a process of planning, organising, leading, staffing, co-ordinating, controlling and evaluating activities (Dale,1973:4; Sergiovanni, et. al.,1980:14; Robbins,1980:7). Some definitions increase the number of sub-processes to include motivating, communicating, problem-solving and goal setting (Douglass and Bevis,1979:3; Kast and Rosenzweig,1985:8). Still others cover the entire process with the concept of decision-making, thereby suggesting that decisions are the key output of administrators (Newman and Summer Jr.,1965:10; Luthans,1973:176; Kreitner,1986:13). In this study decision-making is regarded as a basic administration skill which pervades the whole process of administration. The seven functions enumerated above are both encompassing and representative of the process.

2.5.1 Planning

Planning refers to "the activity involved in foretelling the future and preparing for it" (Campbell, et.al., 1971:182). Planning is performed by all levels of administration. Sisk (1973:100) has the following to say in this connection:

> Differences in the complexity of the planning process and the resultant plans are, to a large measure, determined by the organizational level of the person who initiates the planning process.

In planning people work out an outline of the things that need to be done and the means and methods of doing them to accomplish the purpose set. Planning is concerned primarily with the questions of what objectives are to be achieved, the kinds of activities which must occur to achieve the objectives, the kinds of resources to be used to achieve objectives, the manner in which the activities should be sequenced to achieve the objectives, and the time schedule to be followed in implementing the plan of action (Gorton,1977).

Because of the cyclic nature of educational activities, planning in educational administration takes into account the end or beginning of a time period in which activities occur. An important feature of planning is the concern with the future, the present and the past. To plan, it is necessary to review the past and evaluate information relevant to the present and the future. Analysis of factors of the present - both internal and external to the educational organisation

calling for planning - is part of the planning process Planning amounts to mapping out the direction in whic other functions of administration and the activities o the educational organisation must move. Withou adequate planning the performance of educationa administrators will be impaired and the implementatio of educational activities will be hampered.

In short the educational administrator in engaging i planning attempts to answer the questions: Who doe what, with whom, by what means, over what period and i order to accomplish what purpose? Planning, lik decision making and problem-solving, involves a for of analysis and reasoning which requires th collection, evaluation and selection of data. A pla of action, therefore, is just as good as a decision o solution to be implemented. Planning provides a educational administrator, be it a school principal inspector of education, director or secretary, wit reference points upon which to fix the course o organisational behaviour. Cunningham (1982:7) point this out,

> In general planning compels the administrator to visualise the whole operation and enables those in the organization to see important relationships, gain a fuller understanding of tasks and

> activities, prepare for needed future activities, make needed adjustments, and appreciate the basis upon which organizational activities are supported.

Fayol (1949) argued that the principles of administration which he identified serve to guide the process of administration in which planning is a function. A case in point is the principle of unity of direction with its reference to a clear definition of goals as well as the principle of initiative, with its emphasis on the need to inspire members of the organisation to propose and implement plans.

2.5.2 Organising

Organising is the establishment of relationships between the activities to be performed on the one hand and the personnel to perform them and the facilities that are needed on the other hand (Robbins,1980). It is the process of fitting together people and activities to see that the work is done. Gulick and Urwick (1937:13) defined organising as,

> The establishment of the formal structure of authority through which work sub-divisions are arranged, defined and co-ordinated for the defined objective.

When an educational administrator performs the function of organising he is typically concerned with defining and arranging in some systematic way people's activities, time and resources. In practice organising is a component of planning but it has something extra to it. The function involves the definition, grouping and assignment of work, the definition of facilities needed, the conferment of supervisory authority, the equalisation of authority and responsibility, and the establishment and definition of communication relationships (Fayol,1949; Robbins,1980).

Although this aspect of administration is generally called "organising" by numerous authors, the word "programming" (Campbell, et.al.,1971) is also used to describe the activity. Cloete (1978) uses the word "programming" to refer to the act of breaking down the plan into units of work and refers to organising as an act of relating people to the activities to be performed. The American Association of School Administrators (Campbell, et.al.,1971:187) employed the term "allocation" to refer to the act of "procurement and allotment of human and material resources in accordance with the operating plan." The function as described involves Fayol's principles of division of work, authority and responsibility, order and espirit

de corps as the guiding philosophy.

2.5.3 Leading

Leading is an act of guiding, supervising, motivatin and communicating. Each one of these sub-function calls for a good deal of attention on the part of th educational administrator. Guiding refers to th activity of directing individuals or groups in th performance of tasks. Fayol (1949) emphasised the nee to inform the organisation and to get it going; to hav adequate knowledge of the personnel and to aim a making unity, energy, initiative and loyalty prevai among the personnel. Robbins (1980:10) gives th following definition of the act of supervising:

> Supervision refers to the observation of work the worker and working conditions to ensure that the objectives are achieved.

The leading function also includes the responsibilit of motivating personnel. This can be achieved by th satisfaction of their physiological, security, socia and self-actualisation needs through fair pay, fring benefits, promotion and satisfactory workin conditions. Effective communication facilitate initiation of work and keeps subordinates informed a to how they are performing.

Concepts such as "stimulating" (Campbell, et.al.,1971) "commanding" (Fayol,1949) "directing" (Gulick and Urwick,1937; Sears,1950) and "unfluencing" (Campbell and Gregg,1957) all refer to the function of leading. Gulick and Urwick (1937:13) defined direction as,

> the continuous task of making decisions and embodying them in specific and general orders and instructions and serving as the leader of the enterprise.

Campbell, et.al. (1971) are of the opinion that the educational administrator may on occasion need to command and at other times direct. But they use the word "stimulating" to describe what is involved in drawing out individual efforts and contributions in implementing decisions. In another instance educational administrators stimulate by creating a set of conditions which will motivate people to act in the situation, or by building attitude to acquire skill. The educational administrators at different levels will engage in communication in order to persuade, direct, interest, influence, stimulate or develop understanding which will facilitate the execution of tasks.

2.5.4 Staffing

Gulick and Urwick (1937:13) defined staffing as "the whole personnel function of bringing and training the staff and maintaining favourable conditions." This definition is to a great extent at variance with the practice in the public service particularly education, where pre-service education of staff is largely taken for granted. In general staffing has to do with selection, utilisation and development of personnel in a given type of service. Lorch (1978:129) distinguishes between recruitment and selection of staff:

> Recruitment is the process of attracting a pool of qualified applicants for a vacant position; selection is the process of choosing from among that pool the individual for the job.

As a rule public institutions do recruitment by advertising, while selection of staff is done according to an established administrative procedure based on educational qualifications, experience and related criteria. In the case where the state is the only legal authority for entering into a contract with an education officer, the role of the educational administrator in staff selection will depend on employment procedures set for different levels.

Cloete (1978) refers to personnel provision and personnel utilisation as aspects of personnel administration. Under personnel provision the author includes the creation of posts, determining conditions of service, recruiting, training and development, appraisal of personnel and promotion. Personnel utilisation includes leading, inducting new employees, training and development, and appraisal. Cloete observes that the activities in question have implications for the functions of administration in general. In other words these activities entail planning, organising, leading, co-ordinating and so on.

Whatever selection procedure is in vogue, personnel development is an important function for educational administrators at different levels. The dynamism of knowledge relating to education and other areas of human activity, and the changing social, political and economic character of various countries make it necessary for education officers to regard the acquiring of knowledge as a life time endeavour. Pre-service education for education officers provides basic knowledge and skill. The role of the educational administrator is one of creating an appropriate climate for growth. According to Cawood and Gibbon (1981) staff development includes attempts made by educational

administrators to promote personal and professional growth of staff. This growth entails improvement of competence, effectiveness in one's work, improvement of attitudes towards education, keeping pace with change and innovation and acquisition of knowledge and skill for the serving personnel, including prospective educational administrators.

2.5.5 Co-ordinating

Fayol (1949:45) defined co-ordinating in the following manner:

> To co-ordinate is to harmonize all the activities of a concern so as to facilitate its successful functioning.

Co-ordinating is the process of meshing various individuals, groups and activities in such a way that they become mutually supplementary and complementary (Barnard, 1968; Campbell, et.al., 1971; Gorton,1977). A need for co-ordination exists when two or more people are either involved in similar activities, and use the same resources and time, or should operate as such. This need is particularly evident when two education officers with different specialisms work towards the same or similar objectives. The educational administrator may need to re-define roles and

restructure tasks so that they do not compete or overlap, but complement one another. A well-co-ordinated organisation is evidenced by such conditions as a comprehensive programme of work and exact directives about how the various units and sub-units are to combine their efforts so that they can work easily and smoothly.

2.5.6 Controlling

Control is the act of checking the activity of each person or group in an organisation against the activities envisaged in planning. Although much of current literature on administration equates controlling with evaluating in educational administration these functions are clearly distinguishable from each other. Control has much to do with monitoring progress, whereas evaluating has to do with a review and assessment of the activities, outcomes and the application of other functions of administration. Control consists of verifying whether activities occur in compliance with the plan adopted, the instructions issued and the guidelines established, and then correcting errors.

For the controlling function to be operative in administration, therefore, there will have been a plan

that exists and has been put into operation. The organising, leading, staffing and co-ordinating functions will have been attended to. Control will be undertaken to ensure that desired results are attained. According to Cloete (1978) control measures in administration take the form of written reports given by subordinates to superiors according to a prescribed format, inspection carried out by following prescribed procedures, and returns. Cloete argues that formal measures of control which are supported and supplemented by informal control can serve to motivate subordinates to work satisfactorily.

What can be concluded from this analysis is that inspection in education is part of control and as such it is a technical operation which occurs somewhere between the establishment of standards of performance and the determination of corrective action. Alternatively inspection may take the form of supervising which is an aspect of leading concerned with the observation of the education officer, his work and the working conditions, rather than a fault-finding mission.

2.5.7 Evaluating

Evaluating is regarded as an act of examining individual activities, group activities, programme or results in order to ascertain strengths and weaknesses, successes and failures. An educational administrator engages in the evaluative process in relation to the following areas: evaluation of activities of education officers, the educational programme, process and results. What distinguishes evaluating from controlling is the timing of each activity. Secondly, evaluating lays stress on effectiveness, whereas controlling puts emphasis on efficiency. Evaluating merges with planning, organising, leading, co-ordinating, staffing and controlling when action is initiated to review performances, to correct deviant performance, to compensate for previous errors, or to prevent deviations from recurring (Robbins,1980).

Appraisal is necessary in educational administration to determine the extent to which the goals have been achieved, whether any conflicts or disharmony have been encountered and so forth, in order to provide a basis for needed revision (Morphet, et.al.,1974). If performance is found unsatisfactory, one option is to alter the plans, to re-organise, to alter co-ordination strategies, to alter staff assignment, and to adjust

control measures. Finally, correction or prevention of a deviation can be achieved through an adjustment in the leading function by increasing or decreasing the amount of supervision, by altering motivational tools or by changing communication patterns.

These functions of administrators do not only distinguish educational administrators from non-administrators, but they explain why administration is described as "an art of getting things done." They are the methods which the administrator uses to attend to the performance of tasks and achievement of objectives They are not a set of behavioural prescriptions Rather they are description of what administrators do to promote organisational achievement and maintenance Although they can be conceptualised as distinct functions, in practice they are a process of intermeshing activities. The following criteria for evaluating educational administration are based on the functions of administration.

2.6 A Brief Statement of Criteria for Evaluating Educational Administration in KwaZulu

In looking at the development of administrative theory given account of in this chapter, three requirements can be postulated as criteria for evaluating

educational administration. These criteria are applicable to the educational system as described in Chapter Four.

2.6.1 <u>There Must be an Organisation to be Administered</u>

For a realistic implementation of an educational programme there must be an educational organisation. This organisation must consciously seek to achieve clearly defined goals. Certain resources must be organised and utilised efficiently and effectively to achieve the goals. The main resource is human beings. The processes, procedures and techniques of working with, and through people, is known as administration.

2.6.2 <u>The Various Functions of Administration must be Considered</u>

Arising from the consensus which first manifested itself in industrial organisations and later in public and educational administration, the following functions of administration are accepted as universal: planning, organising, leading, co-ordinating, staffing, controlling and evaluating activities. These functions have to be performed by every educational administrator.

2.6.3 The Practice of Administration Must Heed Ideas on Educational Administration

Educational administration practice, to be effective must be based on an on-going programme of professional development for practising and prospective educational administrators. Educational administrators need to know what it means to administer. And because they work in educational organisations they need to acquire a conceptual understanding of organisations, people, their characteristics, dispositions and motivations.

2.7 Conclusion

In this review the development of administrative theories through time has been discussed with reference to their implications for, and impact on, educational administration. The modern theory of administration has emerged as a synthesis which applies to education as well as to other areas of human existence. The new administrative theories highlight the contributions of the behavioural scientists whose point of focus is the organisation. They have researched the development-agent role of the specialists in administration whose emphasis is on the integration of behavioural insights, the findings on the process of administration and the search for administrative principles for the practising administrator whose main interest is in the

understanding of the theory and its application t practical situations. Against this background criteri have been formulated for evaluating educationa administration practice in KwaZulu. The focal point around which the criteria have been developed ar administration as a process, organisation as peopl working in inter-dependent relationships, and knowledg and understanding of administration.

CHAPTER THREE

3. THE SOUTH AFRICAN MODEL OF AN EDUCATIONAL SYSTEM

3.1 Introduction

The South African population is divided into four mai: groups, namely, the Blacks, the Indians, the Coloured: and the Whites. Although this division is a historica: one, it only provides a partial explanation for th type of educational system in existence in Sout Africa. Another source of explanation is to be foun in the South African government's decisions regardin the ordering of socio-political affairs of the countr from the time of the establishment of the Union o South Africa in 1910 to the present.

Although the Whites are regarded as one of the fou major groups there are actually two major Whit communities. One is the Afrikaans-speaking communit whose members refer to themselves, and are referred t by others, as Afrikaners. These people are, for the most part, descendants of the Dutch who first came t settle at the Western Cape as servants of the Dutc East India Company in 1652. Among these early Europea settlers were also a small number of German, French, British and other European citizens. Towards the end of the 1680's the Dutch and German settlers were joined

by a new group of immigrants called the Frenc Huguenots, who had fled from France to escape religiou persecution under Louis XIV. Together these group developed a hybrid language called Afrikaans, whos root is Dutch. Thus an Afrikaner is not necessarily person who is a descendant of Dutch parentage but on who identifies with the Afrikaners and speaks Afrikaan as his first language.

The second White community is the English-speakin South Africans. They are mainly descendants of th 1820 British settlers who used their mother tongue. I subsequent years this group was augmented by a variet of new European immigrants who, upon arriving in Sout Africa, chose mainly English as their first language These immigrants consisted of Jews from France, Italy Greece and Poland. Like the Afrikaners, the English speaking South Africans are not necessarily of Britis descent but those who identify with the Englis speakers and speak English as their first language.

To maintain their identities, the two White communitie have evolved Afrikaans and English "school systems respectively. This division of schooling continues u to universities, although there are certain instance where the language barrier is crossed. Historica

divisions between the two White communities have obviously been of less significance than their need to bury their differences and to unite to keep both political and economic power in their own hands. Although a certain measure of political power sharing has been extended to Indian and Coloured groups by the South Africa Constitution Act of 1983 (Act 110 of 1983), Section 14 of the very Constitution Act provides for separate educational facilities for different population groups.

The history of Indian settlement in South Africa dates from the beginning of the 1860's when large groups of indentured labourers were imported for the plantation economy, particularly sugar cane farming in Natal. Many other Indians subsequently arrived at their own expense and established themselves mainly as traders. The latter, together with those who opted to settle in South Africa at the expiry of indenture, became known as free Indians. As small landowners, traders and labourers they encountered problems of competition with Whites, opposition, pressures and restrictions especially with regard to settlement in certain areas. On the other hand the Indian community grew to become an important sector of the South African population, with entitlement to civil and political liberties.

The Coloured community is generally regarded as th product of racial inter-mixture particularly betwee the Blacks and Whites in South Africa. Although th concept of "coloured" has in certain historica contexts been used to refer to indigenes and othe people, to distinguish them from European descendants the Coloureds emerged in the course of time as distinct group, albeit without clarity as to th realisation of their political ambitions. Government and opinion makers have at different times debated th desirability or otherwise of the political and socia integration of Whites and Coloureds. Except for thei distribution in all provinces of the Republic of Sout Africa, the political position of the Coloureds doe not differ significantly from that of the Indians They have their respective chambers in the Sout African Parliament.

The term "black" with reference to the people is take to symbolise dark skin colour for an aborigine o Africa. The word "African", which means a native o Africa, is also an accepted description to distinguis the darker skinned people of the continent from Asian or Europeans. In the 1970's, during the era of th Black Consciousness Movement, blackness took on a overtly ideological meaning. The term "black" was use

not only as a collective term for Africans, Indians and Coloureds, but referred specifically to people who identify themselves with a particular set of aspirations and who occupy a particular legal position in the South African society (Kotze,1975:89). In 1977 the Black Consciousness Movement was banned, and the following year (1978) the term "Black" was adopted to replace "Bantu" in the official South African terminology. For the last forty years since the accession to power of the National Party, a lot of financial resources, time and energy have been expended by the South African government in defining the Black people, in setting them apart as Zulu, Sotho, Venda, Tswana, Ndebele, Tsonga and Swazi ethnic groups or in putting them together as a cultural group, race or community, depending on what was intended. Alongside provision for separate education through legislation and other measures, the South African Government legislated for the creation of the homeland system based on the ethno-political definition of the Black people.

The division of the South African population into four main groups, namely, the Blacks, the Indians, the Coloureds and the Whites, goes along with the provision of separate educational facilities. Whilst the concept

of separate development, autogenous development or multi-national development (UG 53/1956:3; Rogerson and Pirie,1979:323) has often been used to describe this provision, the problem of segregation or integration has been a recurrent theme throughout South African history. McCarthy and Smit (1984:180) portray the dynamics of this South African problem as follows:

> South Africa, possibly more than any other contemporary society is ridden with conflict and there is anything but consensus on the nature, legitimacy and desirability of the social order.

Behr (1984:165-166) is of the opinion that the core of the problem concerns the relationship between different ethnic groups in the various fields of human intercourse: domestic, economic, educational, religious and social. But there is sufficient evidence to show that official policy and the aims of governments have through time served to entrench certain practices and attitudes. In a publication of the Department of Information of the South African Government entitled the "Integration Model (1974)" the following statement is made:

> The South African Government and its supporters are committed to a model based on the separate

> political development of the country's disparate population groups. It concedes, however, the other model, a closely integrated model is advanced as a clear-cut radical alternative and, therefore, also requires in-depth consideration. Apart from the mandate it has received from the electorate to pursue a policy of separate development the Government has in fact evaluated and rejected this alternative not for emotional or racialistic reasons but on practical grounds and because of major flaws in the integrated model.

While the process of negotiation which is about to begin, is expected to initiate a new public policy in South Africa, the framework within which educational services are rendered is one of separation.

The purpose of this chapter, therefore, is to take a look at the South African system of education as a framework within which the KwaZulu educational system is given a place in terms of the former's historical, political and juridical bases and the latter's bureaucratic apparatus and functional relationsip with the former system. Let us first consider the concept of an educational system.

3.2 The Idea of an Educational System

Modern societies consider education as the key instrument to progress. Accordingly a large number of organisations and people may have a hand in administering at least some aspect of it. They include government agencies at various levels, church organisations and other private bodies, politicians, civil servants, administrative heads of universities, colleges and schools, professors, lecturers, teachers and community representatives. These agencies take part in building the country's or nation's system of education. Van Schalkwyk (1988:6) refers to an educational system in the following way:

> An education system is a means or instrument created by a community (state, parents, private sector, church, etc.) to provide education for its members in a purposeful, planned and systematic way.

Griessel, et.al. (1978:411) characterise educational systems as "interwoven structures, being a combination of educational institutions (schools) with other social structures." The other social structures like the state agencies, church organisations, families, community structures, teachers' associations, universities and economic institutions occur in a given combination to make a country's education possible.

When the various structures function together it is necessary to systematise them by imposing certain restrictions and compulsions in respect of the establishment, maintenance and direction of public education. In order to make sure that all the elements of the educational systems are brought into a harmonious relationship with one another it is necessary to have an administering authority. The administering authority will derive its function and power from enabling legislation or decision in terms of which such an authority will establish control agencies, research units, co-ordinating bodies, advisory committees, planning agencies, educational institutions, auxiliary services and so on. In a national system of education the state, through government, functions as a juridical body which by legislative, constitutional or other means ascribes to every component of the educational system a special place in an interwoven whole. In addition the state takes interest in the standard and content of education so that the country's resources are not wasted on mediocre standards.

A more comprehensive way of describing a system is what is referred to as an "input-output" model. In terms of this model all human systems whether their goal is the

production of material goods such as cars, houses or chairs or non-material goods such as knowledge, recreation, welfare or spiritual salvation, must interact with their environment to procure resources and dispose of their products. As Milstein and Belasco (1973:79) observe, it matters little whether the system in question is privately financed or governmentally sponsored, service-oriented or profit-making. To achieve its objectives it must receive support from its environment. For the educational system, environments are composed of those organisations, groups and individuals from the system's surroundings that are meaningful to the formation, maintenance and direction of the system.

Human systems vary from almost complete dependency on their environment to almost complete dominance over it. Milstein and Belasco (1973:83) refer to economic monopolies as examples which may achieve virtual monopolies on products deemed essential and thus demonstrate relatively little dependency on their environments. But service systems such as educational systems are highly dependent on environmental resource inputs and environmental acceptance of system outputs for continued survival. Systems that are characterised by such an input-output relationship with their

environments are regarded as open systems (Owens,1970:52; Morphet, et.al.,1974:60).

Inputs into the educational system can be further differentiated as human and natural resources. The energy resources constitute the core of the environmental inputs which are essential to the survival of a human system. In the educational system human resources include full-time employees such as professional and non-professional staff, other education-oriented persons such as departmental officers and agencies, pre-primary, primary, secondary and tertiary audiences such as pupil and student clientele, parents and community groups. Milstein and Belasco (1973:80) emphasise the importance of the human resources:

> Although not quantifiable, human resources constitute a major energy input into the system. Their attitudes, sentiments, skills and aptitudes set parameters for the system's ability to attain goals.

Natural resources include such items as rands and cents, buildings, supplies and equipment. Long recognised as necessary inputs to the educational system natural resources have been the subject of much discussion in South Africa. Deficiencies with which

Black education is associated relate to inadequate allocation of financial resources, unqualified teachers, understaffing, crowded classrooms, high pupil-teacher ratio, poor educational facilities, high rate of failure and drop-out (Gabela,1986:7). In contrast with this state of affairs the Department of Education and Culture, House of Assembly (RP 58/1988:1) has the following to say in its 1987 Annual Report:

> The provision of education for Whites, a service that has been continuously extended since the establishment of the Union, has now entered a phase of static or declining student number, a quantitative decrease in educational needs, more stringent financial discipline and an accentuation of more sophisticated teaching techniques to ensure educational service of increasing quality within this milieu.

It is also possible for educational administrators to spend much of their time and energy acquiring material resources without concerning themselves extensively with human resource inputs, for example, by giving people a say in running their system of education. In its 1987 Annual Report the Department of Education and Training (RP 65/1988:194-195) reports extensively on its provision for Black education in areas under its jurisdiction by creating new schools and colleges, by

providing additional classrooms to some existing schools, and by providing library, laboratory, sporting and toilet facilities. The same department is manned in all its sections at the central level by White policy makers, executive officers and planners. While material resources are necessary factors, they are not sufficient factors for the system maintenance. Both human and material resources are essential.

The educational system is dependent upon environmental acceptance of output which includes such measurable outcomes as students graduating with specific skills and percentages of students going to higher education or entering skilled trades, and such immeasurable outcomes as staff morale and organisational health (Milstein and Belasco,1973:81). Organisational health of the educational system is taken to depend on its ability to accomplish three essentials, namely, to achieve goals, to maintain itself internally and to adapt to its environment (Owens,1970:152).

For the educational system to maintain itself it must be capable of procuring information concerning how well it is meeting objectives. This has to do with the development of feedback mechanisms to discover the adequacy (positive feedback) and inadequacy (negative

feedback) of its performance. In this connection Milstein and Belasco (1973:82) aver,

> To know when and how to change, the system must evolve structures and mechanisms for maintaining the demands and needs of environmental groups and organizations upon which it is dependent.

Because educational systems are highly dependent upon community support for resource inputs and acceptance of outputs, they must constantly respond to community needs, establish new priorities for decision making, and seek new ways in which changing priorities might best be served.

Educational systems, like other open systems, display a tendency towards what Milstein and Belasco (1973:163) call, progressive segregation. This process occurs when the system arranges itself into a hierarchical order of subordinate systems which gain a certain degree of independence of one another (Milstein and Belasco,1973:163; Paisey,1981:60). The order makes it possible for the change to occur from the top down but virtually impossible for it to occur from the bottom up. The use of advisory bodies, consultations, evaluation agencies and professional organisations to bring changes to a system is indicative of a clear

recognition on the part of administrators of the importance of the system's exchange of information with its environment.

3.3 The General Structure of the South African Educational System

3.3.1 Historical Background

A look at the history of South Africa from colonial times shows that there has developed over the years a kind of authoritarianism which has evolved from blatant to subtle forms in its application to politics and education. As early as the 1850's Sir George Grey, the Cape Governor is reported to have said'

> Natives are to be useful servants, consumers of our goods, contributors to our revenue, in short, a source of wealth to this Colony such as Providence designed them to be (Majeke,1952:66; De Kiewiet,1960:85).

That the treatment of aborigines in a despotic way did not occur fortuitously is also clear from what Cecil John Rhodes, the founder of Rhodesia-Zimbabwe had to say,

> My idea is that the native should be kept in native reserves and not to be mixed with the white man at all. Now I say, the natives are

> children..... they have human minds. I would like them to devote themselves fully to the local matters that surround them (Pillay,1982:3).

The utterances of these famous figures show that apartheid had many roots some of which lay in the mentality of the colonisers.

Hartshorne (1982:6) characterises South Africa as,

> A country divided against itself in which goodwill and trust are rapidly being dissipated, in which fear, hatred and bitterness are in danger of taking over.

The division to which the author refers has its background in a series of wars of conquest, domination and subjugation and grave debates on the socio-political ordering of the affairs of the country. The major warn which ended in the Nguni- and Sotho-speaking people of South Africa being dispossessed of land in the Cape, Natal, the Orange Free State and the Transvaal, were waged roughly over the century between 1799 and 1879. During the same period missionary organisations set up schools for the Blacks, particularly on the fringes of the White settler penetration. According to Molteno (1984:50), if

schooling did not play a significant role in the process of conquest, it nonetheless, contributed to the social consolidation of conquest and the control of the conquered.

On the White side, the Anglo-Boer War (1899-1902) brought an end to the two Boer republics, the Orange Free State and the Transvaal, which were converted into British colonies. The British administration took over education in the two new colonies. Lord Alfred Milner, the British Lieutenant-Governor, aimed at increasing the British by immigration and at anglicising South Africa by force, primarily through education (Louw and Kendall,1987:32; Muller,1986:365). In his education ordinance of 1903 Milner made English the sole medium of instruction in state schools. He imported English teachers and introduced free but voluntary primary education for children whose parents were of European descent. This was indeed a period of important developments for education. Christie (1986:48) remarks,

> In this period we see the foundations of the present racially differentiated system of education. We see the introduction of compulsory education for Whites but not for Blacks.

Although after the Anglo-Boer War the British government concentrated its efforts on developing a system of free compulsory education for Whites, the Dutch Reformed Church was hostile to Milner's anglicising policy. The church launched the Christian National Education Movement which gave primacy to the Dutch language (Louw and Kendall,1987:33).

Lord Milner was decidedly against granting political power to Blacks. He is quoted to have contended,

> One of the strongest arguments why the White man must rule is because that is the only possible means of raising the Black man, not to our level of civilisation - which is doubtful whether he would ever attain - but to a much higher level than that which he at present occupies (Walker,1959:199).

Milner further argued that the Blacks should not be enfranchised but should rather be represented in the legislature by Whites nominated for the purpose (Louw and Kendall,1987:33). Article 8 of the Treaty of Vereeniging, a document that brought an end to the Anglo-Boer War, made enfranchisement of other groups such as the Blacks, Asiatics and Coloureds, dependent on the consent of a White majority.

The Union of South Africa Act of 1909 converted the four colonies into provinces which were given a measure of control in educational matters. The provincial councils were entrusted with certain levels of White education. The central government through its designated department also shared the responsibility for the education of this group. On the other hand the Union government placed the control of matters affecting Blacks, except for education, in the hands of a Minister of Native Affairs. Black education, being treated as education, was, under Section 85(3) of the Union Constitution Act, left under the control of the Provincial Councils. Pells (1970:136) writes,

> Thus did Pontius Pilate in the person of the Union Government once more wash his hands of Native education. Heretofore the responsibility had been the churches'; now it was to be shared with the provincial administration.

Pells (1970) further states that this sub-division was nonetheless a blessing in disguise as opposition to the provision of education for Blacks was strong in the Transvaal and the Orange Free State. As Dube (1985:87) observes, inspite of their historical division it was possible for the two White communities to de-emphasise their differences and to unite to keep political and

economic power in their own hands.

Another origin of authoritarianism which had an impact on the education of the Blacks is what Louw and Kendall (1987:36) refer to as militant unionism dating from the 1890's when branches of British labour unions were opened in South Africa. One of the problems which the White trade unionists wanted to eliminate was competition, particularly from Black unskilled and skilled labour. Liebenberg (Muller,1986:410) gives an account of the strike on the mines and railways and the subsequent loss of support for Smuts' government between 1919 and 1922. This event paved the way for co-operation between Hertzog's National Party and Creswell's Labour Party. Louw and Kendall (1987:37) describe this collaboration as "an unholy alliance between apartheid and socialism", when the Nationalists and the Labourites formed the Pact Government after the 1924 election. Hertzog, the new Prime Minister, formulated his labour policy in terms of which all state departments had to give preference to White workers when employing people (Muller,1986:415-16). Hertzog's labour policy and subsequent pieces of legislation helped to lay the foundation for South Africa's race policy which embraced social, cultural, economic and political realms of South African life.

Various governments openly spelt out their aims to entrench White privileges. But it was not until the late 1940's when Dr H.F. Verwoerd and his co-workers refined and systematised the racial policy, that an attempt was made to justify racial segregation on an ideological basis and to maintain that it served the interests of Whites as well as other groups.

Alongside the development and consolidation of race policy from the time of the establishment of the Union, sporadic attempts were made to revive the ideals of Christian National Education which had strong support among the Afrikaner section of the population during the Anglo-Boer War. However, there was no clear formulation of objectives until 1930 (Behr,1984:29). In that year Prof J.C. Coetzee of Potchefstroom University published a document entitled "Problems of Educational Politics", which launched the subject at an academic level of discussion. Another significant development of the 1930's was the emergence of Dr D.F. Malan's "Purified" National Party whose achievement was to rally most of the Afrikaner intellectual elite behind its cause. The leaders of the National Party were according to Price and Rosberg (1983:17), cultural entrepreneurs who made extensive use of the Afrikaner Broederbond to ideologise Afrikaner identity and

history. The Broederbond, founded in 1918 to promote Afrikaner interests and language, was a secret organisation with extensive influence in Afrikaner educational institutions. Its membership was restricted to male Afrikaners who strove for the ideal of an everlasting and separate Afrikaner nation. It also gave preference to approved, sympathetic and trustworthy persons (Price and Rosberg,1983:38).

The Broederbond's view was that only by inspiring the Afrikaners with the sense that they were members of an exclusive volk could they be mobilised to preserve the National Party goals aimed at safeguarding the future of Afrikanerdom. On the other hand, politically the National Party hoped to mobilise the Afrikaners by staking the group's claims based on the notion that Afrikaners occupied a special place in South African society. In the economic realm the Afrikaners were urged to unite to close the gap between Afrikaner and English wealth and to protect the poor Whites from competition with Blacks. In the cultural sphere the party recommended a two-stream policy involving mother-tongue education and separate educational, cultural and religious societies (Price and Rosberg,1983:16; Louw and Kendall,1987:40).

In 1939, following upon the holding of a national congress of Afrikaners, an institute to further Christian National Education was formed. In 1948 the Cape Synod of the Dutch Reformed Church made a plea for the three main Afrikaner Church denominations to meet and decide on a joint policy. In the same year the Federation of Afrikaner Cultural Societies founded the Institute of Christian National Education which published a document setting out its theory and policy (Behr,1984:28; Christie,1985:160). Behr (1984:28) gives the following summary of Christian National Education as a particular world-view, as well as part of a nationalist struggle:

> The exponents of CNE believed that God ordained that there should be an Afrikaner nation with a land and language of its own and a religion based on orthodox Protestant-Calvinist principles. Furthermore, education must ensure that every individual is moulded in the image of God, so that he can become `fully equipped for every good.´ Hence the need for a Christian education. `National´ was seen as a love for one´s own culture and heritage.

There are therefore, a number of historical events which explain the origin of the South African model of an educational system. These events include the race question and authoritarian responses thereto; the

Christian National Education movement; the origin, development and disposition of the National Party and the origin, development and the role of the Broederbond. The CNE movement, originally launched to counteract the anglicisation of White education, indeed contributed to the liberation of the Afrikaners and their ascendancy to political power. But as will be seen later, its implementation as a national educational philosophy laid the foundation of education that is fundamentally ideological in orientation, insular in character and with built-in inadequacies based on differential provision. The segregationist attitude which developed to become the policy of apartheid adopted by the National Party from the time of its accession to power in 1948, was initially directed to the protection of Whites. Under the new government the ideal took on new dimensions as a comprehensive safeguard for all racial groups. Keet (1956:20) in explaining this dramatic change averred,

> We are the guardians of the non-whites. We must protect them against dangers..... The fulfilment of our calling is therefore dependent on survival as a white nation in this country and for that Apartheid or development along one's own lines is necessary.

Let us now look closely at the ideological basis of the educational system in question and its implications for administration.

3.3.2 The Ideological Basis of the Educational System

South Africa is regarded as a heterogeneous country. The South African Government, in its official pronouncements, acknowledges the reality and legitimacy of group identity. But most of the discussion which takes place about politics as well as education in South Africa, is concerned with the policy which has been generically referred to as apartheid. Apartheid, which means "apartness", has been used to refer to the enforced separation on an ethnic or colour basis, of groups of white, black, brown and coloured (Harris,1983:134). According to Kotze (1983:128), the policy is based on the belief that only through separation can the interests of each group remain paramount within its own delimited area of jurisdiction. That discussion as to the morality of apartheid is often bitter, is clear from the following definition:

> Apartheid as a policy of racial containment involves racial prejudice and segregation, economic exploitation of natural and human resources, and legal administrative and police terror, all functioning

> via laws and custom to ensure economic, political and social domination by Whites (Randolph-Robinson,1988:40).

The policy of apartheid has made South Africa an attractive subject of interest group study both locally and internationally. Price and Rosberg (1983:vii) look upon the country as presenting the analyst with what is the world's most fully-developed racially-dominated state wherein the values of the White minority define the character and dynamics of political life. Leadership of the more powerful groups in the state tends to be almost exclusively by Afrikaners. Smit (1985:4) stresses that the Afrikaner occupies a vantage as he looks at the educational matters. He argues,

> The Afrikaner believes in a common universal philosophy for all cultural groups, but alternatively in a specific and separate education or pedagogy for each particular practice based on and in line with the life-view or philosophy of life of the relevant cultural group.

The present political situation in South Arrica is clearly dominated by a strong unified National Party with a disciplined, ethnic, religious, cultural, intellectual and business power base and backed by a loyal military, police and security force, and a

sizable governing bureaucracy (Price an Rosberg,1983:4). The Conservative Party, the officia opposition, essentially belongs to the same side of th political spectrum, and has as one of its mai concerns, the restoration of separate development wher it has been partly eroded (Louw and Kendall,1987:79).

Schlemmer (1988:9) points out that a number of polic reforms and adaptations introduced particularly sinc 1978, when taken together, leave no doubt that a departure from traditional policy commitments of the National Party has occurred. He refers to such shifts away from separation as the Joint Executive Authorit for KwaZulu and Natal, multiracial Regional Service Councils, the granting of permanent status to the Blac dwellers in South African urban areas, and the repeal of influx control and other restrictive pieces of legislation. But the maintenance and protection of group identity, especially with respect to educational provision, has remained paramount in government legislation and other official pronouncements.
Secondly, the Joint Executive Authority for KwaZulu and Natal Act (Act 80 of 1986) makes it incumbent upon the State President to assign duties, functions and authorisation to the regional body. Although education, as perhaps the most needy and sensitive

area, is not specifically excluded from the matters of common interest, the constitutional safeguard represented by Section 14 of the South Africa Constitution Act and supportive legislation and bureaucratisation, provide effectively for this exclusion.

In public utterances and official decisions, the South African Government no longer refers to apartheid as its policy. Reference is made to the government policy which ensures racial harmony, self-determination and progress. In regard to education the White Paper on the provision of Education in the RSA has the following to say,

> The Government reaffirms that, in terms of its policy that each population should have its own schools, it is essential that each population should have its own education authority or department (1983:4).

Until very recently the policy of the Government has remained a non-negotiable and virtually non-discussable political framework within which education must be carried and life lived in South Africa. Aside from its comprehensive coverage, the policy rests on three pillars. Firstly, it is dictated by the need to

maintain white political dominance, values and identity. Secondly, it is historically rooted in the religious convictions of the Afrikaner. Thirdly, it finds rational justification in educational literature in South Africa. In the preamble to the Republic of South Africa Constitution Act (Act 110 of 1983) the State President and the House of Assembly declare their consciousness of the sacred responsibility, amongst other things,

> to respect, to further and to protect the self-determination of population groups and peoples.

Smit (1985:4) stresses that the Afrikaner's belief in each particular educational practice for a population group is based on Calvinist principles, which in the views of Kruger and Whittle (1983:3) harmonise with the fundamental thinking and scientific analysis of education. These views on education agree with what Du Plessis (1957:76) stated some thirty years ago:

> De Pegagogiek, die gegrond is op die Heilige Schrift, gaat uit van den souvereinen wil van God, die alleen goed is.

The defence of the Afrikaner's belief in South African literature on education is, therefore, based on its

acknowledgement of variety, self-determination and God's ordination of cultural differences (Barnard and Vos,1980:45; Van Schalkwyk,1988:16). But this belief is a particular interpretation of what is Christian, and is embodied as a national imperative in Section 2 of the National Education Policy Act (Act 39 of 1967) for Whites, Section 3 of the Education and Training Act (Act 90 of 1979) for Blacks and by implication in Section 2 of the National Policy for General Education Affairs Act (Act 76 of 1984). The education policy of the RSA Government, carrying the imputations of this belief, has come to be neatly described as the Christian National Education policy. As the White Paper (1983:4) states,

> The Government reaffirms that it stands by the principles of the Christian character and the broad national character of education as formulated in Section 2(1)(a) and (b) of the National Policy Act 1967 (Act 39 of 1967), in regard to White education and as applied in practice or laid down in legislation in regard to the other population groups.

The policy as described fits in with the description of an ideology. The definition of an ideology by Banks and Lynch (1986:102) may be used to illustrate this point:

> It is a pattern of beliefs and concepts both factual and normative which purport to explain complex social phenomena with a view to directing and simplifying socio-political choices facing individuals and groups.

The authors go on to say that the distinction between the factual and the normative nature of an ideology highlights how it is used. Factually an ideology makes a substantive or descriptive statement of beliefs and values that it refers to. Normatively an ideology makes prescriptive assertions of beliefs and values about what should or ought to be the case. Meighan (1986:174) observes,

> These systems of beliefs are usually seen as the way things really are by the groups holding them and they become the taken-for-granted way of making sense of the world.

Unlike a policy, an ideology is not readily open to discussion, debate or negotiation, since its rationality is assumed by those who advocate it. But what makes the ideology synonymous with policy is that the former usually serves as a frame of reference for the latter.

In a multi-racial society, a dominant group may use ideology to legitimate its control over life chances of subordinate groups. Control of the educational system may be one method by which the dominant group perpetuates its hegemony (Banks and Lynch,1986:103). With reference to South Africa, Enslin (1984:140) highlights the contradiction between the relativistic view which regards each group as having its own beliefs about education and the arguments about the character which education for all should assume. She concludes,

> This apparent contradiction reflects an essential of the ideology of which the policy is an expression - the racial superiority of Whites.

The educational policy of the Republic of South Africa accounts for the multiplicity of educational bureaucracies, all concerned with education as a culturally private affair for each population group. With regard to the Blacks, the Government policy has over the last twenty five years issued in the creation of more than ten departments of education, euro-centric learning content, and serving the needs of an integrated economy. What is referred to as Black education is represented by the Department of Education and Training and a number of education departments

called Departments of Education and Culture with administrative, planning and advisory agencies, colleges and schools, teachers, students, pupil statistics and other components of the sub-system designed for the Black people in South Africa. The South African system of education as a whole may further be explained in terms of the new political dispensation embodied in the Republic of South African Constitution Act (Act 110 of 1983).

3.3.3 The Republic of South Africa Constitution Act,1983

The South African Constitution Act opens with a dramatic statement, acknowledging the sovereignty and guidance of God in the pursuit of national goals by the groups designated by the Constitution Act. Section 1 of the Constitution Act defines the Republic of South Africa as consisting of four provinces, namely, the Cape of Good Hope, Natal, the Transvaal and the Orange Free State. In terms of the Constitution Act and supportive legislation, therefore, the South African Government is empowered to render educational services within the delineated area of jurisdiction. Outside the borders, namely, in the national states, the Blacks are reported to have "reached an advanced stage of self-government with full autonomy in all matters of immediate concern to their citizens" (Bureau for

Information,1986:17). Section 14 of the Constitutional Act gives expression to the Government policy by providing for "matters which specially or differentially affect a population group", and as such are classified as own affairs for Indians, Coloureds and Whites. Education is listed in Schedule 1 to the Constitution Act as one of the concerns in the "own affairs" category.

A striking feature of education in South Africa is the existence of a cluster of administratively autonomous sub-systems within one fiscal area. Both administratively and functionally, the sub-systems depend on a good deal of cultural and intellectual "blood" transfusion represented by the curricula, exchange of work forces and the concept of White trusteeship, particularly for Black education. For the Blacks the present constitutional arrangement presents at least two major problems: one political and one administrative. Politically the Blacks are structurally excluded from the central decision making process regarding the very matter which the Constitution Act endorses as intimate for each population group. The problem of exclusion is compounded by the use of a White central bureaucracy for Black education in the Republic. For the National

States the political problem is one of being removed from central decision making which accounts for the financing and improvement of the quality of education generally. This removal gives rise to the second problem, namely, one of administration. For the Blacks, the Republic of South Africa, as defined in the Constitution Act, and the National States, are but one geographical area wherein educational services are to be enjoyed without discrimination on the grounds of residence. Whereas the National States cannot afford this discrimination, central financing procedures for Black education takes account of the territorial divisions.

The Department of Education and Training is part of the South African Cabinet and the Parliament. Accordingly it has a direct link with the Department of Finance for its budgetary requirements. On the other hand each National State has to submit its budget estimates to the Central Government through the Department of Development Aid for all its needs, including education. But the final allocation among these territories is made without further consultation with them. The Constitution Act, as a juridical framework for the provision of education, excludes the National States. Consequently, the latter are equally

excluded from the South African National Education Policy formula, which amongst other things "eliminate(s) the lack of synchronisation that exists between the provision for staff and the provision for buildings and financing" (RP 65/1988:193). The Constitution Act, as the country's most basic act with regard to education (Van Wyk,1987:17), does not provide for self-determination in respect of the Black people in the Republic of South Africa. The exclusion of Blacks from participating in the central government machinery is very significant for education, for South Africa is a unitary state with a centralised system of education. Black education has been a focal point of political unrest and boycotts because of the manner in which it is provided by central government. It is also common knowledge that the non-independent national states have taken the position of belief in the indivisibility of South Africa.

3.3.4 The Sub-systems of Education

The most recent statement of policy on South African education is set out and explained in the White Paper on the Provision of Education in the Republic of South Africa (1983). The Government formulated its policy on its involvement in the provision of education as well as in other matters as follows:

> It is generally accepted that it is the task of the central government to promote the interests of the State and of all its inhabitants. The Government's chief aim is, therefore, to ensure the highest degree of spiritual and material well-being for all its people (White Paper,1983:1).

The document continues to outline the Government's responsibility to set up systems for the provision of education by creating educational bodies and institutions, by determining their objectives, by demarcating their fields of authority and by creating organisational structures within which educational bodies and institutions (that may be grouped together in different sub-systems) can be accommodated (White Paper,1983:2). In the preamble to the Constitution Act the Government also states as one of its national goals, "to further the contentment and the spiritual and material welfare of all." There is another responsibility which the Government has set for itself in terms of the White Paper (1983:2), namely, to "make resources available in a co-ordinated manner to the systems for the provision of education."

With regard to the administration of education at the Government level the White Paper anticipated the promulgation of the Constitution Act in terms of which

different executive departments would be responsible for the education of Whites, Coloureds, Indians and Blacks, respectively. Accordingly, Section 14 of the Constitution Act provides for the conferment by Central Government of executive authority on three departments respectively for White, Coloured and Indian education. Corresponding legislative power is vested in the three chambers of Parliament. In terms of this constitutional arrangement Black education enjoys a Cinderella status as a general matter of Parliament as far as legislation is concerned, and a special responsibility of a government department in the Cabinet, as far as administration is concerned.

For the sake of co-ordination of educational services in South Africa, Parliament passed the National Policy for General Education Affairs Act (Act 76 of 1984). This act provides for the establishment of the Department of National Education with the Minister who is responsible for general education matters provided for in Section 15 of the Constitution Act and described in Schedule 1 thereof. Section 2 of the General Education Affairs Act authorises the Minister as follows:

> The Minister may determine the general policy to be applied with

> regard to formal, informal and non-formal education in the Republic in respect of -
>
> (a) norms and standards for the financing of running and capital costs of education for all population groups; (sic);
>
> (b) salaries and conditions of employment of staff;
>
> (c) the professional registration of teachers;
>
> (d) norms and standards for syllabuses and examination (sic), and for certification of qualifications.

The Minister is to discharge this responsibility within the parameters set out as eleven principles in the enabling act. Principles 2 and 3 safeguard the Government's stated policy against what the Minister or the individual communities and organisations may choose to do to the contrary by stating,

> that recognition shall be granted both to that which is common and to that which is diverse in the religious and cultural way of life of the inhabitants of the Republic, and to their languages;
>
> that, subject to the provision of any law regarding the attending of a school for a particular population group by a pupil from another population group (sic), recognition shall be granted to the freedom of

> choice of the individual, parents and organizations.

The law makes it obligatory for the Minister of National Education to liaise with other ministers of education departments in the execution of his tasks. It also provides for the establishment of various advisory councils and committees for general education matters. For other departments of education, provision has been made for the establishment of advisory structures for each department. In addition, the White Paper (1983:6) states in regard to the General Act, and general policy in terms of such Act,

> It is the intention of the Government to negotiate with the national and independent states with a view to the coordination of the above-mentioned general policy.

In this connection the Department of Education and Training, in its Annual Report for 1987 (RP 65/1988:25), refers to the Conference of Ministers of Education representing the Department of Education and Training and six departments in the self-governing territories. The Conference is reported to have,

> pursued its aim of achieving equality in the provision of education for all the participating education departments and in taking policy decisions where joint policy and strategies were required.

The report lists other important matters attended to by the conference, such as career education, management of colleges of education, selection of education students and allocation of bursaries to them, the fostering of financial expertise and the laying down of budgeting procedures in the education departments of the self-governing territories. It would seem this collaboration focuses mainly on college or further education, whilst lower levels of education progressively portray a monumental gap between the provision of education within the Republic of South Africa as defined in the Constitution Act, and the National States.

The collaboration between the Department of Education and Training (DET) and education departments in the national states accentuates the traditional professional guidance role of the former, whilst material assistance remains the responsibility of the RSA Treasury. As far as the development of administrative skills is concerned, the dichotomy in respect of the provision for Blacks, explains why it

has been possible for DET to contract with the Afrox company, for the Management and Performance Improvement course for field and school personnel, whilst the national state departments, especially KwaZulu, could not afford the cost involved. DET (RP 65/1988:194) reports on a comprehensive formula which has been designed for financing RSA departments of education, stating that this formula is in line with budgeting by the objective system of the Department of Finance. The report goes on to detail the following progress achieved in 1987 (Table 1):

Table 1: Progress Achieved in Black Education,1987

FACILITIES	New classrooms (Primary and Secondary)	Renovation and upgrading (primary and secondary)	New primary schools	New secondary schools	Technical colleges	Colleges of education	Private schools	School laboratories	School libraries	School security fences
Units planned	–	–	58	45	4	2	–	–	–	–
Units under construction	–	–	–	30		1	23	–	–	–
Units completed	23774	–	28	24	2	–		88	15	27
Renovated/Upgraded	–	88	–			5		–	–	–
TOTAL	23774	88	86	99	6	8	23	88	15	27

Source: Department of Education and Training: Annual Report, 1987. Government Printer, Pretoria, 1987:193-197

The 1987 achievement represented by Table 1 is an indication of the quantitative expansion which the Department of Education and Training can afford against the background of the Budgeting by Objective System of the Department of Finance (RP 65/1988:193). This development, together with other on-going education development services, shows a remarkable difference between what the Department of Education and Training is able to do and what its National State counterparts can afford, given the political and resultant financial and human resource constraints, as shown in Table 1. This difference encompasses such areas as curricular directions, teacher preparation, physical facilities, educational support services, social services, educational auxiliaries, subject advisory services, special education, liaison services and overall staffing. The DET quantitative expansion of Black education shows a significant thrust on technical education. The growth rate as well as the department's conceptualisation of educational development seems to reflect the degree of DET's responsiveness to the recommendations of the HSRC investigation (1981) and the Central Government's detailed statement of policy called the White Paper (1983) in response to the investigation. The significance of this educational provision lies in the

creation of more educational opportunities for learners in different categories, as shown in Table 1. On the other hand this development may not escape the criticism of the manpower consideration with which the HSRC's investigation is associated (Kallaway,1984). The unexplained discrepancy between primary and secondary schools should perhaps be viewed against the aim of the former institutions as defined in the Report of the Main Committee of the HSRC (1981:110):

> The aim of basic education is to provide that range of education which, on the one hand, will ensure basic literacy and some understanding of life, so that should the learner leave formal education at this stage he will be capable of benefitting from training in his occupation or from career-oriented non-formal education; on the other hand continuation in post-basic formal education must be possible for those who have the ability and choose to take this path.

	REGIONS UNDER THE DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION AND TRAINING									THE NATIONAL STATES				
	Orange Free State	High Veld	Orange-Vaal	Northern Trans-vaal	Natal	Cape	Johannes-burg	Kwa-Zulu	Gaza-nkulu	Lebowa	Ka-Ngwane	Kwa-Ndebele	Qwaqwa	Total
Primary schools	1366	866	1483	1200	1022	1049	275	2155	321	1125	182	185	95	11326
Secondary schools	45	67	34	63	39	58	62	606	111	406	46	56	34	1627
Special schools	3	5	–	7	5	7	5	6	1	1	–	–	1	41
Colleges of Education	2	2	2	1	1	3	2	9	2	8	2	1	3	38
Adult centres	28	58	29	33	37	58	14	65	–	–	–	–	–	322
Technical centres	2	4	2	3	2	2	3	–	–	–	–	–	–	18
Technical colleges	3	5	1	2	2	3	2	9	1	5	1	1	1	36
Vocational colleges	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	1	–	–	–	–	–	1
In-service centres for teachers	–	–	–	1	–	–	–	1	–	–	–	–	1	3

Source: Department of Education and Training
Annual Report,1987. Government Printer, Pretoria, 1987, 123-185

Table 2 shows the extent to which education is under-provided in the National States in terms of physical and human resources as well as diverse needs of the learners. Dr M.G. Buthelezi (1986:5), the Chief Minister of KwaZulu, sums up this state of affairs:

> We in KwaZulu have struggled with everything we have got to provide the educational services which our people need. It has just not been possible. It has not been possible because we simply do not have the money to build enough classrooms. We do not have enough money to buy books. We do not have enough money to pay enough teachers. We do not have enough money to train the teachers we need today, let alone train teachers to meet tomorrow's requirements.

The lacks in physical and human resources to which the statement refers, are the problems at the input point of the educational sub-system. The Annual Report of the KwaZulu Department of Education and Culture (1983:7) summarises some of the problems at the process and output points:

> It should, however, be borne in mind that the high increase in pupil enrolment, lack of physical facilities, and the high percentage of unqualified and inadequately qualified teachers will always put severe strain on the Department's efforts to improve the performance of pupils.

The National States have at their disposal educational bureaucracies, each consisting of political office bearers and civil service personnel in administrative and professional divisions and sub-divisions. Theoretically the sky is the limit for these departments to expand educational services in quantitative and qualitative forms. However, the Central (Republican) Government holds the purse strings and, therefore, determines the pace of development. The National States do not enjoy the advantage of the official subsidy formula which "eliminates the lack of synchronisation that exists between the provision of staff and the provision for buildings and financing" (RP 65/1988:193). The position of the National States is also ironical to what the Central Government has stated in the White Paper (1983:2) with regard to administration and financing of education:

> The granting of autonomy or managerial independence to executive education departments and autonomous institutions is highly conducive to administrative efficiency. Such powers should naturally be backed by adequate finance from Government sources.

The four executive departments of education under the Central Government function in accordance with what is

laid down, as well as according to their perceptions of the requirements of the sub-systems of which they are in charge. The Department of Education and Culture, House of Assembly (RP 58/1988:1), sees the following as one of the needed developments:

> The switch from expansionist to rationalist provision and thus a shift in emphasis from quantitative expansion to qualitative improvement.

This department has acquired the old responsibilities for White education which are shared with the provincial departments of education and an elaborate committee system at central and provincial levels. The tasks and responsibilities of this central department include policy-making within the guidelines of the general educational policy; budgeting, allocation and control over finances; provision of specialised services and provision of co-ordinating bodies for White education (Van Wyk,1987:44; Van Schalkwyk,1988:77).

The functions of the other departments are essentially the same although their organisation and task definitions may differ. The two Departments of

Education and Culture in the House of Representatives and House of Delegates respectively, do not have provincial administrations but regional offices. The main activities undertaken at the head offices are educational planning services, control of educational standards, provision of educational administration and provision of special education services and extra-curricular services (RP 160/1986:1; RP 54/1988:1; Van Schalkwyk,1988:81). The Department of Education and Training (RP 65/1988:9) has identified its executive tasks as educational development services, out-of-school development services, educational administration, regional co-ordination and educational auxiliary services.

In terms of a resource matrix and functional adequacy there appears to be a marked difference between the central departments of education and their respective sub-systems on the one hand, and the corresponding departments in the National States on the other hand. In public platforms as well as in their deliberations in legislative assemblies, Black leaders constantly refer to problems attendant to the provision of education and other social services, and the need for power sharing which will help redress the problems. What all the sub-systems have in common is their

hierarchical structures based on the centralist model of educational administration. Let us look at this model briefly.

3.3.5 The Centralist Model of Educational Administration

The centralist model of educational administration in South Africa emanates from the "Union" concept which was promulgated by means of the South Africa Constitution Act in 1910. In terms of this model the state is responsible for legislating and for creating structures or institutions to render services of varied kinds in a country. In order to facilitate its functions, the state, through government, formulates a number of policies each relating to a particular service. The formulation of policy, the passing of legislation relating to it, and the creation of structures to implement legislation by way of providing a service like education, all imply an intervention role by the government in the provision of services and the improvement of the welfare of its citizens. The electoral process confers legitimacy on the government's power to make policy, pass laws and create service structures. Depending on the election mandate the government may centralise or decentralise decision making.

In a non-authoritarian state there will be found liberty in terms of which people may freely hold whatever political or religious views they like and they may freely criticise government or other action relating to education. In such a state what the government chooses to do or not to do, is likely to be influenced by public interests and concerns. Centralisation or decentralisation of administration will itself depend on what is considered to be a welcome mode of service delivery. In the Republic of South Africa the administration of education is centralised in so far as the Constitution Act provides for the different Government departments to be responsible for the education of Whites, Coloureds, Indians and Blacks respectively. For the Blacks centralisation raises concerns because there is yet no constitutional provision for the inclusion of this group in central decision making. The words of Peteni (Raine,1982:29) portray the Black man's attitude towards education:

> If the majority of officials holding top posts in the DET including those in the head office were Black, then there would be some validity to claims by the government that Blacks have the right of self determination as far as education is concerned.

The Constitution Act also provides that legislative authority for "general" educational matters be exercised by the tricameral Parliament whilst laws on "own" educational matters of a group should be dealt with only by the house that serves the group concerned. Each executive education department is authorised by enabling legislation to establish advisory and consultative bodies for the execution of its duties. It is at present only in this advisory capacity that Blacks have representation in central administration.

Nell (Undated:5) looks upon educational administration as occurring at three levels, namely, the macro-structural, meso-structural and micro-structural levels. The macro-structure refers to the structuring and functioning of the national system of education. The meso-structure refers to the functioning of subordinate agencies at regional, provincial or similar level in relation to the agencies at the national level on the one hand and the broader community on the other hand. The micro-structure refers to the functioning of the schools in relation to local agencies and the surrounding community on the one hand and the higher bodies on the other hand. The White Paper (1983) identifies three levels of the structuring of educational management, and makes it incumbent upon the

four executive departments to provide for regional and local administration of education. White education has since the beginning of the Union in 1910, had provincial administrations for primary and secondary education. Under the present constitutional arrangement a unified administration has been established under the Department of Education and Culture while a functional integration is enjoyed by the department's head office and the provincial education departments. The organisation of education for other executive state departments, including the National State departments, is essentially the same. These departments have subordinate regional units of varied sizes. Finally there is local or school administration which is linked with regional administration by various categories of field staff. Exception is made of autonomous tertiary education institutions which are partly administered by "own" statutory bodies.

The establishment of a central department of education in South Africa, therefore, provides for a hierarchical order of subordinate structures of administration which are calculated to foster administrative efficiency (White Paper,1983:2). On the other hand the order makes it possible for change to occur from the top down

but practically impossible for it to occur from the bottom up. According to Milstein and Belasco (1973:166), the use of consultants, evaluation teams, citizen's committees and professional organisations to bring change to an educational organisation, suggests a recognisation on the part of administrations that an organisation is more apt to change in response to an external force than to an internal one. Evaluation of education administration is, therefore, necessary to establish the nature, extent and direction of needed changes. It is against this background that the present study has been undertaken with respect to KwaZulu. And a brief history of the origin and development of National States in general and KwaZulu in particular will serve to give more information about the Black systems of education.

3.3.6 The National States in General

3.3.6.1 Origin and Development

As has been noted earlier, the Union Constitution Act of 1910 excluded the Black people from direct representation in central government of the Union. In terms of the Native Administration Act (Act 13 of 1927) with its subsequent amendments, the Governor-General, and later the State President, was the supreme chief of the Black population in all four provinces. Although

the tribal system was recognised and used to a great extent as the basis for administration, civil liberties for Blacks were drastically curtailed in favour of control by public servants (Brooks and de Webb,1979:293). In 1936 an attempt was made to accommodate the political aspirations of the Blacks when Hertzog's Government passed the Representation of Native Act (Act 12 of 1936). This Act led to the establishment of the Native Representative Council consisting of appointed members. (Note: Historically the term "Native" has been used to refer to the aborigines of Africa. After 1948 "Bantu" replaced "Native" in official terminology. Since 1978 "Black" has been used to replace "Bantu" as an official term.)

From 1946 onwards the Native Representative Council took a firm stand against all the discriminatory measures directed against the Blacks. The Secretary of the Native Affairs Department (UG 14/1948:14) reported in 1947 that the Native Representative Council, having thrown a gauntlet to the Government in a demand for political rights similar to those enjoyed by Europeans, had ceased to exist. The report depicted the situation as follows:

> The weaknesses of the system, however, has been the fact that the Council has little responsibility to carry. It has little or no executive function. In other words it has been an advisory body. As its requests, particularly in the political sphere, have not been acceded to, it not unnaturally became disgruntled and queried the reason for its existence (UG 14/1948:2).

Through this Report the Department of Native Affairs advocated the establishment of a fifty-member council, all elected with the power of subsidiary legislation for Black areas in matters approved by the Central Government, and the power to impose personal tax upon Blacks, and the establishment of tribal councils consisting of chiefs and a small number of additional members (UG 14/1948:15). The recommendations of the Department of Native Affairs were made at the time of a debate among the White people as to the future positions of Blacks, namely, whether the latter were to be part of a common integrated westernised society or were they to be segregated.

A second mention of tribal organisations, consisting of chiefs and elected and nominated members, was made in the report of an eight-man Commission on Native Education set up in 1949. This Commission had as its

main assignment "the formulation of the principles and aims of education for Natives as an independent race" (Proclamation No. 4116,1949; UG 53/1951:7). The investigation followed the National Party Government's decision to establish a separate educational system for the Blacks. The Report which was brought out in 1951 recommended amongst other things, that local and regional authorities be established for the Blacks to administer their services including primary and secondary education (UG 53/1951:159). While the Report was still in the hands of the Department of Native Affairs, the Union Parliament passed the Bantu Authorities Act (Act 68 of 1951). This Act provided for the establishment of tribal, regional and territorial authorities. The plan was that these bodies would gradually take over the local control of schools run by missionary societies, provincial administrations or Black communities. In the course of the same year, 1951, the Department of Native Affairs (UG 37/1955:13) reported,

> The Bantu Authorities Act is in no sense a return to primitive tribalism. On the contrary in devising a new system of local government the Department has drawn freely on the rich experience of the older organisation of councils and will continue to do so.

The subsequent report of the Department of Native Affairs (UG 53/1956:9) identified the following cultural groups on the basis of language (Table 3).

Table 3: Classification of Black Cultural Groups (1953-1954)

Name	Estimated Number
Xhosa	2486 163
Zulu	2205 756
Northern Sotho	941 297
Southern Sotho	917 030
Tswana	703 152
Tsonga	406 051
Swazi	292 511
Ndebele	211 985
Venda	146 317

Source: Department of Native Affairs: Report for the Years 1953-1954 (UG 53/1956). Government Printer, Pretoria, 1956:9.

Between 1952 and 1954 there was a series of campaigns launched by the African National Congress, the South African Indian Congress, the Congress of Democrats and the Coloured People's Congress against certain discrimatory acts including the Bantu Education Act (Act 47 of 1953), the Bantu Authorities Act (Act 68 of

1951) and the Group Areas Act (Act 41 of 1950). While the resistance campaign was going on the Government appointed a "Commission for the Socio-economic Development of the Bantu Areas within the Union of South Africa (1954)", otherwise known as the Tomlinson Commission. The Commission's Report, presented to the Government in 1955, recommended that the Black reserved areas be developed so that territorial segregation might be increased. The Report mentioned that on the one hand the Commission had listened to the evidence from the Blacks seeking their salvation in the ennoblement and enlargement of the traditional tribal structure. On the other hand, there was evidence which clearly pointed towards a desire for participation in the administration of the country by the representatives elected from their ranks to the Union Government (UG 61/1955:15).

The Tomlinson Commission created the concept that designated Native areas should be regarded as heartlands for the different language groups of Black South Africans and gave credence to the homeland concept. Although the Report did not elaborate on the distinctive characteristics that justified ethnic differentiation of the Blacks, the Commission nonetheless, emphasised the Government's measures to

create a national home for the Blacks, for at least each of the bigger ethnic cultural groups, while at the same time limiting their rights in the non-Black areas (UG 61/1955:101-106). The Buthelezi Commission (1980:60) makes the following assessment of what the Tomlinson Commission recommended:

> This concept of geographical separation of political rights formed the essential basis of the apartheid policy and it was hoped that the number of Black South African residents in the White areas of the Republic of South Africa could be significantly decreased.

In 1956 the Department of Native Affairs (UG 37/1958:4) reported that no less than thirty-three tribal authorities had been established in that year. In 1959 the policy of the Government was taken a step further with the passing of the Promotion of Bantu Self-Government Act (Act 46 of 1959). This Act laid down further guidelines for the development of governmental systems in the homelands. In 1963, with the passage of the Transkei Constitution Act (Act 48 of 1963) administration of education in the Transkei was transferred to the Transkeian Legislative Assembly. It was decided, however, that for a certain period White education officers seconded from the then Department of

Bantu Education would assist the Transkeian authorities where necessary.

The Black areas were considered true homelands of the Blacks where they had lived originally and where they acquired their rights to the exclusion of other races (RP 41/1965:11). In pursuit of this idea the Department of Native Affairs, which from 1958 was known as the Department of Bantu Administration and Development (RP 41/1965:11), gave the following list of Black Authorities established since 1953 (Table 4).

Table 4: Black Authorities in 1963

Description	No. at 31/12/62	Established during 1963	Total
Tribal Authorities	290	9	299
Regional Authorities	39	3	42
Territorial Authorities	5	-	5

Source: Department of Bantu Administration: Annual Report for the period 1st January 1963 to 31st December 1963. RP 41/1965 Government Printer, Pretoria,1965:11.

The five territorial authorities were Ciskei in the Cape, Bophuthatswana in the western areas of Transvaal and Orange Free State, Lebowa in the Northern

Transvaal, Gazankulu in the North Eastern Transvaal and Venda in the Northern Transvaal.

Elaborating on the government's policy, M.C. Botha, then Minister of Bantu education, stated the following:

> It is the intention of the government to place responsibility for the everyday administration of education increasingly in the hands of territorial authorities with the present school boards acting as their local agents. Central control will be maintained in such matters as professional policy, standards, courses, syllabuses, examinations and certification so that the quality of education for the Bantu throughout the Republic will be maintained at the highest possible level (Duminy,1967:xiii).

The Government decided to establish territorial departments of education. At the head of each department there would provisionally be a White director assisted by White senior inspectors. Black inspectors however, would be in charge of inspection (Horrel,1968:21-2). In 1968 the government's plans were taken a step further when proclamations were gazetted providing for the newly constituted territorial authority in the Ciskei for the Xhosa and Bophuthatswana for the Tswana people, each to have an executive council authority service. The latter would

be assisted for some time by officials seconded from the Republic's public service. Among the departments to be created in each territorial authority area would be a Department of Education and Culture. Other Black areas followed on the steps of Ciskei and Bophuthatswana. On 11 June 1970 the KwaZulu Territorial Authority was inaugurated at Nongoma.

3.3.6.2 National State Department of Education

In 1971 the South African Parliament passed the Homeland Constitution Act (Act 21 of 1971). This Act provided for the dissolution of territorial authority which was to be replaced by a legislative assembly and an executive council with limited power. After further experience in administration and government a request could be made for a self-governing state to be proclaimed, as provided in Section 26 of the Act. With the granting of internal self-government status to the national states, the legislative assemblies established Departments of Education and Culture. By 1973 there were eight self-governing national states each with a Department of Education. There are at present ten designated Black territories, four of which are treated as independent republics with their own systems of education as set out in table 5. From 1978 the term "homeland" was replaced by "national state" in South

African official terminology.

Table 5: Black National States in South Africa

Name	Ethnic Group	Seat of Govt.	Year of attaining independence	Self-Govt.
Bophuthatswana	Tswana	Mafikeng	1977	1971
Ciskei	Xhosa	Bisho	1981	1972
Transkei	Xhosa	Umtata	1976	1964
Venda	Venda	Thohoyandou	1979	1971
KaNgwane	Swazi	KaNyamazane	-	1975
KwaNdebele	South Ndebele	Siyabuswa	-	1981
KwaZulu	Zulu	Ulundi	-	1972
Lebowa	North Sotho	Lebowa-Kgomo	-	1972
Qwaqwa	South Sotho	Phuthaditjhaba	-	1974
Gazankulu	Tsonga	Giyani	-	1972

Sections 2 and 30 of the National States Constitution Act empowers the legislative assembly of the national state to make laws with regard to all matters referred to in Schedule 1 of the Act and to amend or repeal any

Act of Parliament in so far as it relates to any such matters as they apply to the self-governing territory.

In Section 5 of the Act provision is made for the executive council or cabinet to administer departments which are established in connection with the matters referred to in Schedule 1. Accordingly, national states have established departments to cater for health, welfare and pensions, education and culture, justice, finance, works, agriculture and forestry, economic affairs, police, and internal matters. A department of education in a self-governing national state is independent administratively with its own minister of education and culture but remains closely linked professionally to the central department. Administration of Black education, therefore, is vested in two authority structures.

(i) Those in the so-called White areas under the direct control of the Department of Education and Training, and

(ii) those in the National States under the control of the Department of Education and Culture.

That the National State governments exist with their departments of education set up in accordance with the stipulations of the National States Constitution Act

is, therefore, an accomplished fact. The annual reports of the departments give lists of office-bearers who serve in various capacities, for example, as ministers, secretaries, directors, assistant directors, chief inspectors, education planners, circuit inspectors, inspectors of schools, advisors and so on. The Department of Education and Training also reports annually on the collaboration that exists between the central department and the national states' departments. As far as legislation is concerned, in terms of section 38(1) of KwaZulu Education Act (Act 7 of 1978) the Bantu Education Act was repealed for KwaZulu in 1978. On the other hand the National States were devised as a political alternative for Black participation in running the affairs of South Africa generally. The national state policy is based on the belief that community development for the Blacks as well as their political aspirations can be realised within the framework of a tribal political system which can exist in a racially segregated social and political space.

3.4 Conclusion

The nature of an educational system is summarised in the following exhortative statements by Van Wyk (1987:29):

> As an organisation, the education system must be planned, administered and managed scientifically. It must also continuously be adapted to new educational requirements and educational circumstances.

Van Wyk (1987:28) notes that the present educational system in South Africa has a particularly complex structure. He however, does not highlight the politically contentious aspects of it. One of the special characteristics of the South African system is its multiplicity of racially and ethnically based educational bureacracies, established in accordance with public policy and correlative educational policy. With reference to the nature of educational policy Van Schalkwyk (1988:43) says,

> Policy is a matter which is formulated by people and for people as people's motives, desires, ideals, outlook and aims change, so their policy regarding a particular matter will change. For this reason policy will always be adaptable and subject to change. As long as people agree on a particular policy, however, it guides and directs their educational practice.

Van Schalkwyk's description of policy relates to a community wherein a policy is established as a universe

or framework in which actions are to be taken to gratify shared needs. In South Africa educational policy is bound up with joint decision making for different population groups which is fundamentally a political issue. Provision of educational services, financing, staffing, diversification of the curriculum and the extent to which the interests of the broader social environment are brought to bear on education, all largely depend on the balance of political power. It has been pointed out in the foregoing discussion that there are three levels of educational administration for each educational sub-system in South Africa. The levels mark the extent of centralisation and decentralisation of service delivery. Except for the national states, all legislation for education is enacted by the central legislature which also determines the powers of subordinate bodies. On a democratic principle the White voter has already had a share in the establishment of public policy for regulating the affairs of the country in general. The South Africa Constitution Act which provides for the tricameral legislature sets parameters for political and administrative competencies of the Indian and Coloured groups in respect of the affairs of the country, especially their education. The exclusion of the Blacks from representation in the political system

at the central level has for the last fifteen years kept their sub-system and the administration thereof on tenterhooks. Educational sub-system in the national states are characterised by structural imbalances attributable to the very structural exclusion of the Blacks from central decision making. An evaluative analysis of the educational administration in a national state like KwaZulu has to take these factors into account. The next chapter will focus on the educational system in KwaZulu.

CHAPTER FOUR

4. THE GENERAL STRUCTURE OF THE EDUCATIONAL SYSTEM IN KWAZULU

4.1 Introduction

The name "KwaZulu" in current official usage denotes a curious geopolitical construct. Originally, KwaZulu, translated as "Zululand" referred to the territory inhabited by the Zulu-speaking community under the Zulu dynasty. KwaZulu as it is known today is an area of 35 403 kilometers, situated between the Drakensberg and the Indian Ocean, scattered over 35 percent of the province of Natal, and consisting of 10 patches of land stretching from the Mozambique border in the north to as far south as the Mthavuna river (KwaZulu Government Diary,1988:53).

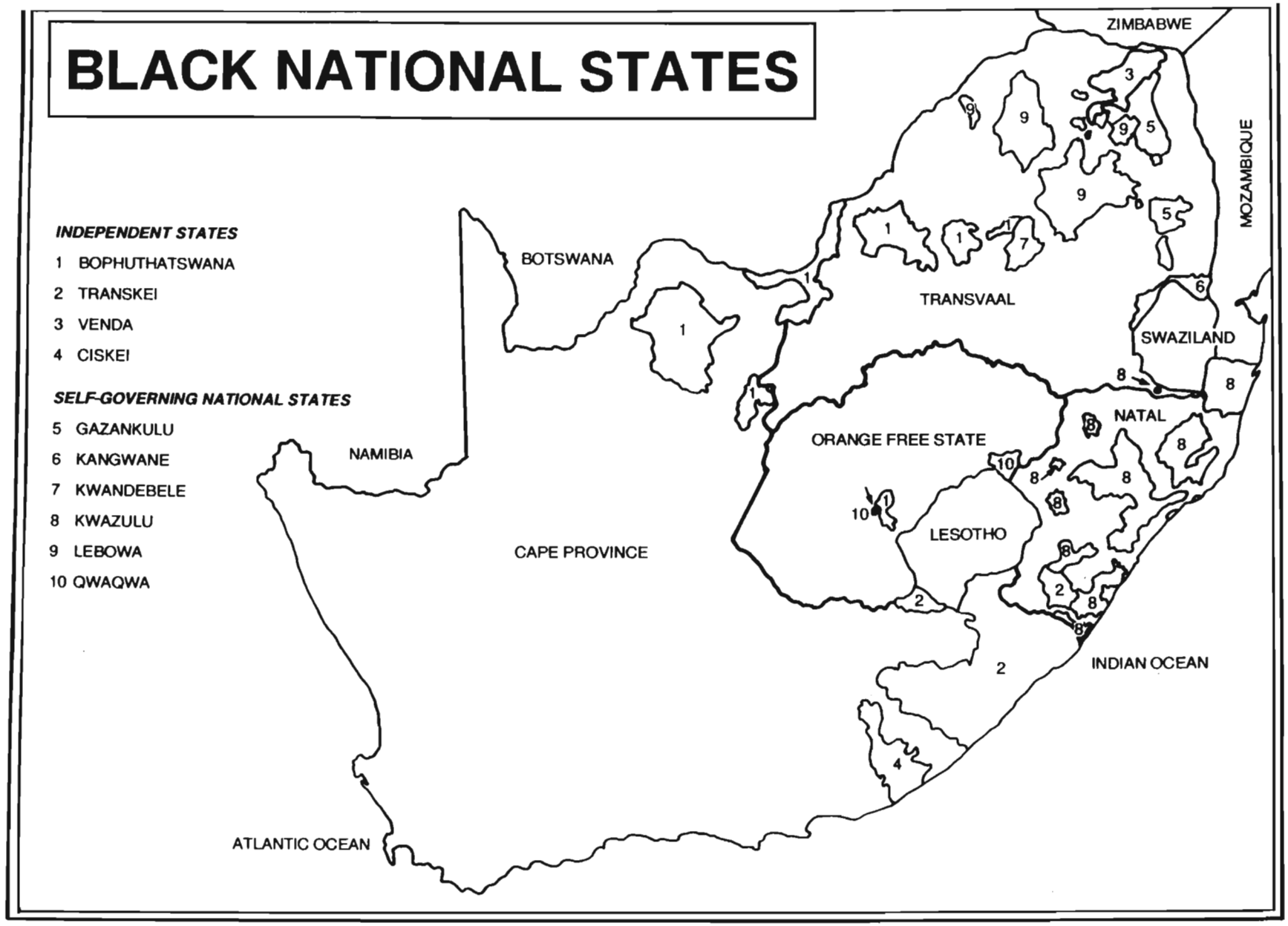
Zulu was originally the name of one of the sons of Malandela, the man who lived on Mandawe hill, some 14 kilometers north of Eshowe round about 1670. After the death of his father, Zulu moved to the White Umfolozi river where he and his mother settled in the hilly area about 95 kilometers inland from the Indian Ocean. Zulu subsequently got married and became the head of the household. His sons adopted the name Zulu as their family name. This led to the emergence of the Zulu

clan. Zulu was succeeded successively by Phunga, Mageba, Ndaba, Jama and Senzangakhona. It was Senzangakhona's son, Shaka, who established the Zulu kingdom, expanded the Zulu hegemony over a wide area, and extended his territorial base over practically the whole of Natal. After his death the power of the Zulu kingship was whittled away amidst encroaching White control. Although the pride of the Zulu people was temporarily restored by King Cetshwayo through a great victory in the Anglo-Zulu war of Isandlwana in 1879, a succession of events culminated in the annexation of the remainder of the Zulu territory by Natal in 1897. Thence Zululand was used as a geographical term for Natal north of the Tugela and east of the Buffalo rivers.

From the time of the establishment of the Union of South Africa in 1910 much government attention was directed at what was officially regarded as the "Native" problem. A number of laws were passed by successive governments to keep the Blacks in a situation where they could never be a threat to the political and economic power of the Whites. The Nationalist Party government policy of apartheid was a further attempt to eliminate this threat once and for all. One of the outcomes of this policy was the

conversion of some of the areas set aside for Blacks countrywide into "homelands" or "national states". During the last three decades this ethnopolitical definition of the Black people on which the South African Government insists, has served as the basis for the creation of numerous territorial units. Both theoretically and practically, as has been noted in Chapter Three, there is no genuine national system of education. By government decree each population group as well as each national state is entitled to its own system of education.

The implementation of the central government policy and legislation giving effect to it, brought about the KwaZulu territory with a political configuration of its own. Politically the territory is constituted of black spots dotting the whole of Natal and the small part of the Transvaal as shown by Figure 2. Geographically and economically the territory remains inextricably bound with the Natal province. By South African definition KwaZulu is a territory that has a potential for sovereign independence regardless of its disjointed character and economic impediments. Constitutionally the territory has passed through all the statutory phases of self-government.



Source: Research Institute for Educational Planning: **Education and Manpower Development, 1990**, Volume 11, August 1991. University of the Orange Free State

In accordance with the provision of the Black Authorities Act (Act 68 of 1951) and the Promotion of Black Self-Government Act (Act 46 of 1959) KwaZulu Government was given partial self-government by the establishment of the Zulu Territorial Authority (ZTA). The members of the ZTA took the oath on 1 June 1970 and started to function two days later in the recreation hall of Bhekuzulu College at Nongoma. The ZTA was formerly inaugurated on 11 June 1970. Work soon started on the drafting of the constitution of the KwaZulu Legislative Assembly (KLA). The KLA was constituted on 1 April 1972 by proclamation R70 dated 30 March 1970. This was the first phase of the constitutional development in terms of the National States Constitution Act (Act 21 of 1971). During this phase the powers of the KLA which consisted of 126 members were limited in that it had no right to amend or repeal an act of Parliament.

The KLA had an executive council headed by the Chief Executive Councillor, later to be known as Chief Minister. Chief Minister was responsible for the Department of Authority Affairs and Finance. Other Executive Councillors were each responsible for Agriculture and Forestry, Community Affairs, Justice, Education and Culture, and Works. The office of the

Chief Executive Councillor and the headquarters of the Department of Justice were set up at Nongoma while the rest were stationed at Pietermaritzburg. Physical developments started in 1974 and by the end of 1976 all six departments were housed at Ulundi in provisional buildings designed as school hostels.

In terms of the National States Constitution Act of 1971 areas for which the legislative assembly had been established could be declared self-governing territories with powers to make laws in respect of matters referred to in Schedule 1 of the Act. Paragraph 2 of this Schedule refers to education. The law made provision for the conferment of this status by presidential proclamation. Accordingly, the constitutional development of KwaZulu gained new impetus on 1 February 1977 when self-governing status was conferred upon the KLA through Proclamation R11 dated 28 January 1977. This was the second phase of constitutional development in terms of which the assembly was provided with greater legislative powers and responsibilities for more aspects of government.

As a result of this arrangement a cabinet or council of ministers was set up for the following portfolios: Chief Minister (formerly Authority Affairs), Finance,

Economic Affairs, Health and Welfare, Education and Culture, Agriculture and Forestry, Justice, Interior (formerly Community Affairs) and Works. Further consultation with the Central Goverment led to the addition of the Department of Police to the KwaZulu Government whilst the Department of Health and Welfare was split into two, namely, the Department of Health and the Department of Welfare and Pensions.

KwaZulu today has wider legislative authority, including the power to amend or repeal any Provincial Ordinance, Proclamation or Act of Parliament of the Republic of South Africa relating to KwaZulu or applying to any citizen of KwaZulu, whether he is resident within or outside the borders of the territory. Legislative responsibilities such as external affairs and defence still remain the prerogative of the South African Government and will remain so unless KwaZulu opts for an independent sovereign status, which it has vehemently rejected up to the present.

KwaZulu has for obvious reasons identified education as one of the most important areas of public service. The establishment of a system of education and the deployment of a significant amount of available

resources to it attest to the acceptance of this major responsibility. The present investigator seeks to evaluate the administration of the system. As a preliminary step to this evaluation, a description of the system in question is necessary. In this chapter therefore the investigator will focus attention on the idea of an educational system with reference to KwaZulu. In this connection the views of certain South African researchers will be examined. On the basis of this analysis the KwaZulu system of education and its administration will be described in some detail.

4.2 The Idea of an Educational System with Reference to KwaZulu

The views of the South African researchers referred to hereunder are more a thrust on the development and planning of educational systems than on their administration per se. However, the importance of educational administration is underscored by the need of the system to be directed and maintained. Secondly, in terms of international trends, the views of the selected researchers are germane to comparative education as well as to educational planning.

4.2.1 Ruperti's Contribution

Ruperti (1979:3) characterises the system of education as "a labyrinth of complicated divisions and relations". She elaborates on this statement by referring to several social structures working together in the interest of education, namely, organised bodies such as education departments, regional councils, school boards, schools, families, parent-teacher association, commerce, industry and so on (Ruperti,1976:4; Ruperti,1979:22). The author accordingly looks upon an educational system as an organised structure wherein the state should play a leading role. While describing the South African system of education as being essentially a state system, she commends it for being so on the grounds that,

> The state is the only social relationship with the comprehensive, juridical, co-ordinating, and compelling power especially necessary during a period of transition (1979:22).

Obviously the state intervention in education may take a different form from what Ruperti considers pertinent to the South African situation. It is also reasonable to suppose that the concept of centralising education

in state authority goes beyond the needs of transition. Central to Ruperti's thesis, therefore, is the duty of the state to provide the required educational opportunities if they should become necessary, and to co-ordinate them or to ensure their co-ordination (Ruperti,1976:4). The central government (RSA) and the national states through their education departments provide for the centralised administration in state authority.

Ruperti (1979:12) regards the six black self-governing territories as subordinate to the central government. Although she does not elaborate on this point it is clear that the ascription of this subordinate status is based on certain considerations. Constitutionally the national states have been established by means of legislation of the South African Parliament, coupled with presidential proclamations. Politically they are regional establishments and have chosen to remain an integral part of South Africa. Financially they depend on the South African Treasury for their budgetary requirements. Administratively and functionally the national states have similar, albeit smaller, institutional mechanisms for attending to public services including education.

Ruperti also refers to one of the well-documented sociological explanations of education, namely, that education has cultural foundations. In one of her works she opens with the following statement:

> The organised education of the youth of a community is part and parcel of the culture of the community. Without culture, no matter how primitive it may be there can be no education, and without education no matter how rudimentary, no culture and no community (1976:3).

The author explains briefly how a community sets up its own system of education through the instrumentality of various social structures. The argument about the sanctity of cultures has been used extensively in South Africa to provide the rationale for social engineering in terms of which the central government has set up national states and separate service structures. Needless to say the merits of the exercise have become a subject of great debate. The Black responses have been described by the present investigator as a case of "mixed reactions of the Black people to their official ethnocultural and ethnopolitical definition" (Gabela,1987:12). The very emergence of self-governing and independent states with their public service agencies and political offices may be regarded as a

positive response. Gubentombi (1977:156) avers,

> The Nationalist policy of separate development provided a favourable climate for the development of the spirit of nationalism among the people of Transkei.

An example of negative reaction is the following statement by Motlhabi (1987:4):

> The fear of being overwhelmed by a united Black majority, however, makes necessary the strategy of divide and rule. Thus the various Black ethnic groups which had already attained "national consciousness" are being forced back into individual group shells, thereto develop an exclusive self-consciousness and ethnocentrism. Consequently prejudice is encouraged among black groups. Whereas Blacks are to be separated both from one another and from Whites as a group, the Whites are to be united as a single group. The result is the subjugation of one divided "race" by another which is united.

The concept of relationship between education and culture is not a subject of controversy in educational thinking although the concept is open to abuse, imprecision and confusion. Although one could speak of a KwaZulu system of education it would be ridiculous to think of a typically Zulu department or college of education, or Zulu mathematics, or world history,

library, curriculum and so on. Ruperti (1976:7) refers to three important principles which play a role in the development of culture, namely, continuity, differentiation and integration. She has the following to say about the functioning of these principles:

> The principles of continuity and differentiation function strongly in a community living in complete isolation. Such a community is true to its historical customs and retains its own culture; but the equally important principle of integration fails to function as enrichment by contact with other cultures does not take place. Consequently there is little if any cultural development (1976:7-8).

The author goes on to say that normative cultural development, including that of an educational system is characterised by a balanced functioning of all three principles. She alludes, in her further discussion, to the desirability of the state enforcement of the principle of differentiation in South Africa:

> By this means each separate group is afforded the opportunity of developing into an independent nation and is encouraged and helped to make use of the opportunity (1976:29).

As part of this encouragement and help, national state systems of education have been set up. However, Ruperti does not touch on the politics of discontent which has long been in evidence among the Blacks, as well as the extent to which regulatory, restrictive and punitive measures have been instituted to promote the acceptance of differentiation. The views of Beckett (1988:166) on the Nationalists' disposition, point to the controversy surrounding this idea of differentiation in South Africa:

> Few in fact believe that the Blacks are divided into ten disparate groups - North and South Sotho, Transkei Xhosa and Ciskei Xhosa, etc. They perceive the Whites as one group, Coloureds and Indians as a buffer zone, and the Blacks as the rest. But they preserve the fiction because otherwise they would be forced to face up to one huge group and the three little ones. They can't drop the ten and keep the four, for then their logic falls away.

A further characterisation which Ruperti (1976) gives to educational systems has to do with the functional process and responsibilities associated with the elements. She identifies operational areas of an educational system as administration, legislation, school and college systems, auxiliary services, supplementary auxiliary services, planning and

inspection. In her discussion of each one of these areas she provides examples which are apposite to her analysis. In a later work, Organogram of the South African Education System Ruperti (1979) gives annotated sketches of each one of the functional areas and their application to the national states as well as the four sub-systems directly under the South African Government. In this description the educational system is seen to be emerging from networks of interacting processes within a political administrative structure and involving legislature, executive departments and planning divisions, collaborative agencies, interested professional associations, educational institutions and departmental units (Ruperti,1979:13).

4.2.2 Vos's Contribution

Vos (1987:34) like Ruperti, regards the educational system as an interwoven structure of social relationships. He refers to the social structures which undertake education like schools and colleges; those which have interests in education, namely, family, state, church, political party, trade union and so on, and those which provide links between educational institutions and social structures, namely, departments of education, school committees, parent-teacher associations and so on. He also

stresses the importance of the role of the state in the development of the educational system and the co-ordination and regulation of the interests of the various societal relationships (Vos,1987:35).

In his research Vos (1976:2) looks upon the educational system as a cultural phenomenon which befits both primitive and developed communities. In developing this theme he refers to the general characteristics of educational systems. Vos bases his analysis of the characteristics of educational systems on Stone´s application of the cosmonomic theory to the educational system. Stone´s central idea is that an educational system has both universal and particular characteristics (Stone,1974:172-174). Vos discusses both aspects of the proposition in some detail. He concludes that the universal characteristics could serve as the yardstick for planning an educational system wherever this becomes necessary and possible:

> Die betekenis van die universele struktuur van die onderwysstelsel vir hierdie studie lê na ons mening daarin dat dit ook as maatstaf vir onderwysstelselbeplanning kan dien om so verantwoorde onderwystelselbeplanning moontlik te maak. (Vos,1976:7)

According to Vos (1976:8) particular systems of education are established on the basis of the universal structure of education. It is the manner in which universal determining factors operate within a given community that accounts for the differences among educational systems. Vos refers to three categories of determinants of educational systems, namely, the ground motive, the natural factors and the cultural factors. The ground motive which is not a readily definable concept, is given the following description by Stone (1981:103):

> It is the spiritual root of community life. It expresses itself in the feelings, the manner of thinking, social customs and patterns, artistic expression, moral standards, the economic dispensation, legal reforms educational systems and last but not least, religion. In short, ground motives are the background and foundation of the spirit and direction of a given community, cultural group or cultural period.

Although Vos does not discuss the idea of a ground motive in detail as Stone does, he emphasises its importance as a distinguishing feature of an educational system and community life. Considering the provisions of the National States Constitution Act (Act 21 of 1971) he says of KwaZulu,

> Die regering van KwaZulu is gevolglik nou nie net in staat om self die nodige jurisdiese leiding aan die onderwys te verskaf nie maar die Zoeloes is ook nou in die posisie om hul eie onderwysstelsel volgens hul eie volkekultuur, lewensimperatiewe en grondmotiewe te beplan - sake wat voorheen hoofsaklik in die hande van Blankes was (1976:182).

Vos touches on the problems with which an exclusive Zulu ground motive is beset. He notes that the Zulu-speaking academics and leaders lay emphasis on African or Black identity and not Zuluness (Vos,1976:189-192). The absence of a Zulu ground motive to which Vos alludes should be viewed against the circumstances under which the Black self-governing territories were legislated for by the South African Parliament. The South African government's notion that the Blacks would be happier and better off governing themselves in their own areas and maintaining their ethnic identities has been countered by Blacks' insistence on common identity and common citizenship in South Africa. The KwaZulu leaders concede that the territory is geographically, economically, socially and politically an integral part of South Africa. Under such circumstances it is inconceivable to find an exclusively Zulu ground motive as a requirement for a veritable system of education. Vos does not treat this as an essential requirement but

a characteristic and a possibility for educational systems.

Vos (1976:9; 1987:44) refers to fifteen factors which are mentioned by Stone (1974:21; 1981:65-87) as determinants of the type and the nature of an educational system. These factors are classified as cultural factors such as logical-analytical, historical-cultural, linguistic, social, economic, aesthetic, juridical, ethical and pistical factors. The second category is referred to as natural factors such as numerical, spatial, kinematic, physical, biotic and physical factors. Whilst Vos (1976:9) lists these factors as significant and only briefly discusses instances of their application in South Africa it is Stone (1981) who analysis them quite extensively and shows his indebtedness to the contributions of various comparative educationists. There is a clear indication from the analysis that the factors referred to will be found operating in an established system of education.

It should, however, be borne in mind that the existence and operation of these factors within a self-governing territory like KwaZulu has to be viewed against the background of the manner in which such a territory has come into existence. As is well-known, KwaZulu as it

exists came about as a representation of the South African government's measures to create national homes for the Blacks, while at the same time limiting their rights in the designated non-Black areas. It would, therefore, not be correct to think that a geopolitical unit and social environment thus created should have particular factors which being the function of the said environment, are generally acknowledged as determining a particular system of education in KwaZulu.

Vos (1976:10; 1987:35-36) also refers to Ruperti's characterisation of the educational system in terms of the functional processes which have been referred to earlier on. On the basis of this typology Vos (1976:182-185) discusses the state of education in KwaZulu as it existed before 1977, and draws the following conclusion,

> Sentrale beheer van die onderwysstelsel deur die KwaZulu-onderwysdepartment en die bestaan van 'n beplanningseenheid maak veraantwoorde onderwysstelsel-beplanning 'n besliste moontlikheid.

Vos (1976:201) therefore, affirms the existence of a system of education in KwaZulu but considers that the restoration of Zulu as medium of instruction could

serve as a mark of national pride and identity.

4.2.3 Thembela's Contribution

Thembela's main thrust (1980) is on the evaluation of the process of educational system planning in KwaZulu and Swaziland, and his treatment of the concept of an educational system is incidental to this main exercise. Because Thembela was concerned with educational system planning in the territories referred to, he had to develop norms that could be used as criteria for evaluating the planning of educational systems. A synthesis of the views on an educational system, therefore, formed part of the groundwork for the evaluative tasks in his study.

Thembela (1980:2-38) endorses the view that an educational system is an interwoven structure but considers, in apparent reference to KwaZulu, that an educational system occurring within territorial boundaries may depend on outside help in such matters as examinations, bursaries, etc. from other countries. He commends Stone for making a distinction between educational institutions such as schools and colleges and non-educational structures such as state, church, home, commerce, industry, etc. Thembela further agrees with Stone (1974:188) that subordination of educational

institutions to the state, the church or the home is anti-normative and deprives the educational institutions of their freedom to function in accordance with their competence and the needs of education. Whilst this idea does not exclude a particular role which the state, for example, plays in the development of an educational system, it points to the problems of restricting decisional autonomy on the part of administrative structures operating at different levels of the state system of education.

Of course, a ticklish problem with which many educational systems may be beset is one of striking a proper balance between consolidating decision making in one co-ordinating body or head and delegating decision making to subordinate units or levels.

Thembela (1980:37) refers to the fifteen factors (see page 150) which determine the nature and type of an educational system. He remarks,

> When all these factors are considered, a comprehensive coverage is given to the milieu in which an educational system operates.

He goes on to examine the manner in which the said factors operate in the KwaZulu educational system. There is evidence of selective application of these factors in KwaZulu. As long as KwaZulu remains an integral part of South Africa, its educational system will continue to be related to, and intertwined with, other educational systems in South Africa. Consequently such a system cannot be seen to be operating within a distinctly separate geopolitical and social space (Thembela,1980:90-124). From the educational planning point of view, Thembela looks upon KwaZulu in its present phase as a less developed region of the developed Republic of South Africa. With regard to the constitutional status of KwaZulu the South African Government (SAIRR,1987:13) considers self-governing territories as regional authorities and an integral part of an undivided South Africa. There is obvious contradiction between the concept of "an integral part of South Africa" and the idea of a "less developed region". The developmental constraints with which a self-governing territory has to contend has implications for the functional and administrative adequacies of the system of education operating in such a region.

Thembela also pays attention to ground motives as determinants of a system of education. While conceding that a ground motive is not susceptible to easy scientific analysis he, nonetheless, regards it as fundamental to the entire culture of the community and the basis for school education (Thembela,1980:54-55). He, therefore, finds it understandable that the KwaZulu system of education should be based on specific ground motives, colouring and directing all human activities. He, however, refers to the historical discontinuities which render the formulation of, and adherence to, an explicitly Zulu ground motive a virtual impossibility. In another investigation the present investigator (Gabela,1983:156) refers to one of the outcomes of contact between Europeans and Africans, namely, a shift towards a new gestalt of the institutional life of the Africans. This change was characterised, inter alia, by adherence to some religious denomination; pecuniary value of time and labour; awareness of rights and obligations outside the narrow family circle; the demand for civil rights in a common South Africa, and the acceptance of the value of school education. The Education Manifesto of KwaZulu referred to under 4.4.1 clearly reflects this change.

With regard to the origin, development and maintenance of an educational system, Thembela (1980:58-74) focuses on Ruperti's functional processes which make up an educational system. The three generic processes which Thembela discusses with reference to planning a system of education, namely, legislation, implementation and planning, also form the framework within which the administration of a system could be viewed. A description of the KwaZulu educational system given under 4.3, therefore, takes account of this typology. Thembela shows how these processes, together with the determinants of educational systems and inter-related structures, operate in the planning and functioning of the two educational systems which he compares, namely, Swaziland and KwaZulu. He details limitations and imbalances with which KwaZulu education planners in particular, have to contend. He points out how important it is for KwaZulu, within the constraints imposed by the South African environment, to take a comprehensive view of the whole system and look at all the components of the educational system and their relationships (Thembela,1980:132).

The views of Ruperti, Vos and Thembela on the educational system take account of South Africa's unique situation where educational provision is tied up

with considerations of race and ethnicity. The concept of an educational system accordingly reflects the structural network based on these considerations. KwaZulu as part of South Africa, exists alongside other self-governing territories with its own educational system. In the next part of this chapter this sytem will be described in broad outline. Such description forms the background to the evaluation as to how the system is administered.

4.3 Origin of the KwaZulu System of Education

4.3.1 Legislation

There are two types of legislation which can be identified as relating to educational provision in KwaZulu. The first type is general legislation which provides the framework within which educational provision is possible. The second type of legislation is specific legislation which provides for the system of education or some aspect of it.

The first type of legislation has been enacted by the South African Parliament. As has been noted earlier on, the National States Constitutional Act (Act 21 of 1971) is one of the statutes of the Republic of South Africa. It provides for the creation of self-government in Black areas and the conferment of powers

which in terms of the Black Administration Act (Act 13 of 1927) as amended is done by the State President. The National States Constitutional Act provides in Section 3 and 4 for the creation of legislative assemblies to make laws in respect of matters that fall within the sphere of competence of such assemblies and as such are included in the schedule of the said Act. The second type of legislation is enacted by the KwaZulu Legislative Assembly. All acts of the Legislative Assembly require the approval of the State President who may return a bill for further consideration.

In 1972, when the Zulu Territorial Authority became the KwaZulu Legislative Assembly with partial self-government, it inherited an educational system within its territory, which had been planned and developed by Whites and firmly established in terms of the Bantu Education Act (Act 47 of 1953). One of the first changes to education in KwaZulu was brought about by the KwaZulu Medium of Instruction and Language Act (Act 5 of 1973). In introducing the bill to the Legislative Assembly, the then Councillor for Education Mr J.A.W. Nxumalo declared,

> The policy in which the KLA operates emphasises the phenomenon of self-determination. We, therefore, feel entitled to plan and pursue a course of development which we consider to be the best for ourselves (KwaZulu Legislative Assembly,1973:126).

The Councillor further pointed out how pointless it was for the mother tongue to be used beyond standard two for the Blacks since such mother tongue is not the language of high school and university education, of commerce, the civil service and all other institutions that are the economic and educational pillars of the society (KLA,1973:127). The Act provided for the use of English as medium of instruction from standard 3 onwards. The implementation of this act meant a great responsibility, particularly on the part of primary schools where most teachers had been trained to teach through the mother tongue. Additional impediments to the efficient implementation of the act were the problems of inadequate staffing and shortage of properly qualified teachers.

Notwithstanding the economic and political consideration on which the KwaZulu language act was based, this change of medium of instruction has remained a debatable issue in educational circles. Vos (1976:197) sees a paradox in such educational

development, since the language of a community is taken to encapsulate the latter's life - and world-view. Thembela (1988:5-11) refers to the issue of reconciling the problem of using a foreign language and the preference for such a language. He mentions such factors as incompetent teachers and the unfavourable learning environment where the foreign language is used as a medium of formal education, whilst informal education at home continues in the mother tongue. He concludes by giving a list of recommendations which show how, through proper administration, a school can create a congenial environment where the use of English as a medium of thought can be promoted.

The second piece of legislation passed by the KLA and relating to education, was the KwaZulu Education Act (Act 7 of 1978). Presenting the bill to the KLA the Minister of Education and Culture, Dr O.D. Dhlomo declared,

> At this stage of its constitutional development, KwaZulu needs to pass its own Education Act, so that educational services for the Territory can be adequately controlled, administered and supervised. Up to now our educational system has been circumscribed by the provisions and the implications of the Bantu Education Act, Act No. 47 of 1953 (KLA,1978:1044).

The Minister regarded the repeal of the Bantu Education Act as the first step in the task of devising an educational system that would meet the educational priorities for KwaZulu.

The KwaZulu Education Act repealed the Bantu Education Act of 1953 for the territory. Section 2 of the present legislation grants the Minister total control of all aspects of educaton by means of the following clause:

> It shall be the function of the department, under the direction and control of the Minister, to perform all the work necessary for or incidental to the control, administration and supervision of education.

Other provisions of the Act include the establishment and maintenance of a school system, consisting of Government, community and private schools; the establishment by ministerial decree of boards, committies or other bodies for participation in the administration of schools; the establishment of an education council to advise the minister, and the recognition of an association of teachers for purpose of consultation. In terms of Section 27 of the Act,

the Minister may exercise his powers in respect of the institution of education courses, conducting examinations and the issuing of diplomas or certificates. The rest of the Act deals with such details as the appointment, posting and discharge of staff at school, conditions of employment, school attendance, facilities and inspection.

Before the passing of the KwaZulu Education Act, the KLA had deliberated the assumption of control of the University of Zululand. In a motion tabled during the third session of the second KLA in 1977 the following was stated:

> That the advisability be considered that the Cabinet should begin negotiations now with the Central Government for KwaZulu to assume full control of the University of Zululand and that the first step should be the appointment of a Black Rector to succeed the present incumbent of that office (KLA,1977:235).

The request for KwaZulu to assume full control of the said University was flatly rejected by the Central Government until KwaZulu attained full independence (Daily News,25.4.78). The KwaZulu Government went further in the task of expanding its system of education. In 1981 the Legislative Assembly passed the

KwaZulu Technikons Act (Act 9 of 1981) to provide for the establishment of technikons, for their control, administration and regulation, and to provide for matters incidental thereto. The Mangosuthu College of Technology, opened on 19 February 1979, is, in terms of Section 4 (1) of the Act, deemed to be a technikon established under this Act. Although functionally a technikon is to operate as part of the school system under the Department of Education and Culture, it has an autonomous status with designated statutory bodies. It is, therefore, mentioned here not as part of the evaluative analysis in this study but as an indication of the extent to which KwaZulu has conceptualised its educational system.

4.3.2 Administration

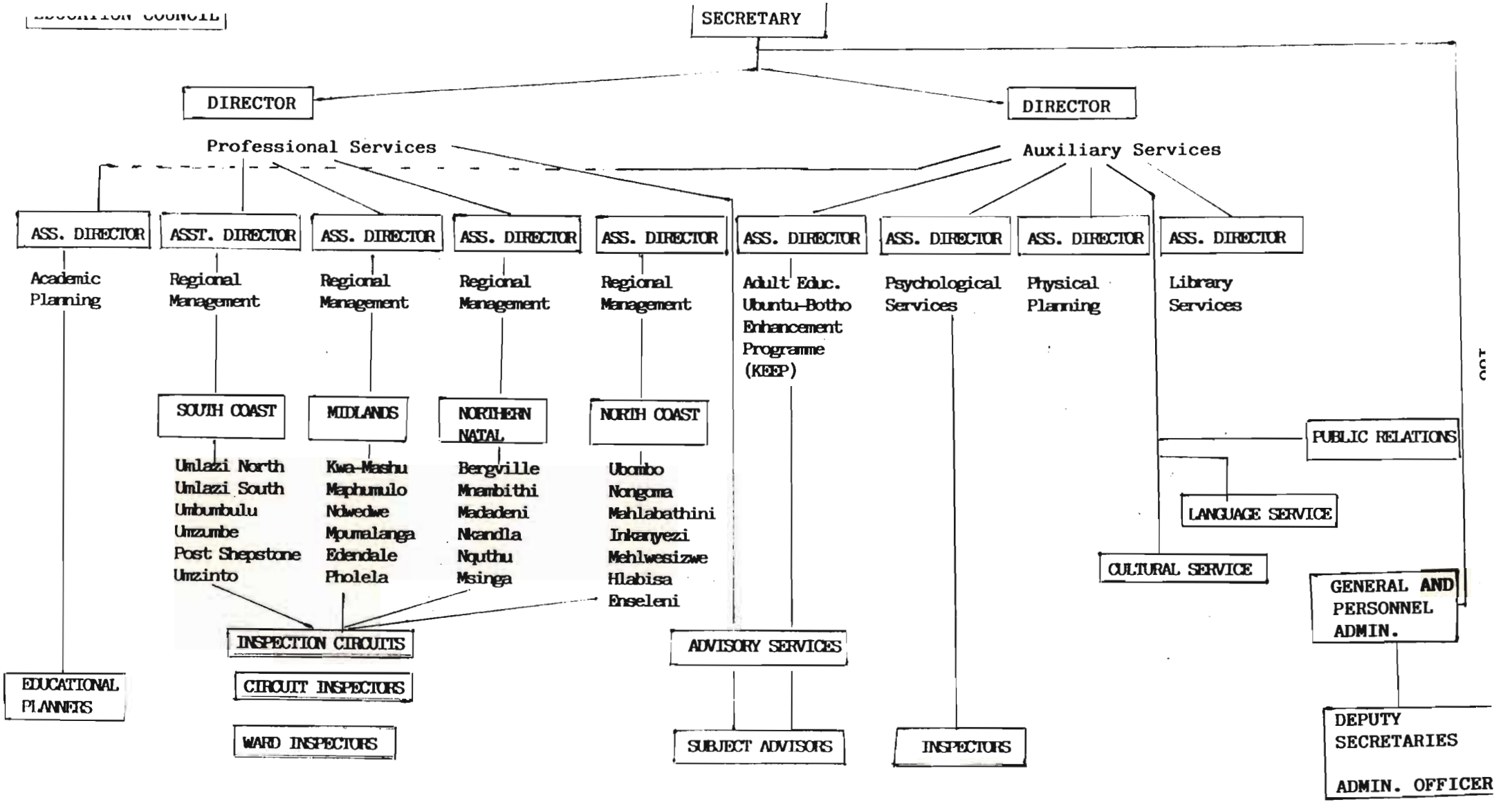
The Department of Education and Culture in KwaZulu is responsible for the execution or implementation of legislation. It performs this function through deliberation, decision and issuing of directives in order to provide educational practice with the useful and necessary guidelines. The planning division which is an integral part of the department has a particular task, the performance of which either flows from, or could lead to, legislation. Thembela (1980:68-77) describes the planning of education in KwaZulu and the

reader is referred to this work. The present investigator is concerned with administration of which planning is a function.

4.3.2.1 Central Organisation

The political head of the Department of Education in KwaZulu is the Minister of Education and Culture. The Minister is a member of the Legislative Assembly and, therefore, has the legislative function. In leading deliberations on educational matters at the Legislative Assembly is assisted by the Education Committee, a study group, consisting of members of the assembly. The Minister is also a member of the Executive Council or Cabinet of the Legislative Assembly. He, therefore, has the highest executive and policy determining authority over education.

The Minister is assisted in his task by the Deputy-Minister of Education and Culture. The administrative head of the department is the Secretary for Education and Culture. He is assisted by two Directors, one for professional services and another for auxiliary services (Figure 3). The section for professional services has four Assistant Directors for regional management of Inspection Circuits. The fifth Assistant Director in this section is in the process of being



ORGANIZATION OF KWAZULU DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION AND CULTURE

being appointed for subject advisory services. In the section for auxiliary services there are five sub-divisions each one of which is headed by an Assistant Director. These sub-divisions are academic planning services, library services, psychological services, physical planning and special projects such as adult education, good citizenship (ubuntu botho) and the KwaZulu Educational Enhancement Programme (KEEP).

Other sections of the Department of Education and Culture include the language service, cultural services, subject advisory services, the public relations section and the examination section. In addition, the Department has a section for general and personnel administration. From 1981 the Department has been enjoying the services of the Education Council which is appointed to advise the ministry.

4.3.2.2 Regional Organisation

KwaZulu, as already noted, is divided into four regions each one of which is monitored by an Assistant Director. However, there are no genuine regional structures. There are twenty-five inspection circuits which are grouped into units for purposes of regional co-ordination. But each Circuit, headed by a Circuit Inspector, assisted by two to four Inspectors of

schools and one Inspector of Psychological Services, is a virtually self-contained unit, which liaises directly with the regional office. Regional offices themselves are located at the head quarters and are, therefore, in essence part of central organisation. Other structures of the Department, such as academic planning and community representation through the Education Council, have no regional network. With regard to co-ordination of teaching activities, a start was made by one of the Assistant Directors (then Chief Inspector) towards the end of the 1970's to institute subject committees at circuit and regional levels, to enable teachers to discuss and share problems peculiar to their subject areas (KwaZulu Legislative Assembly,1979:344). It is worth noting that the form, which the regional administration takes, depends on what the Minister decides at a particular time in accordance with the needs of centralisation or decentralisation as he sees them.

4.3.2.3 Local Organisation

Local administration of education has to do with the Inspection Circuit in so far as the latter is a sub-division of regional organisation (See Figure 3). On the other hand local organisation belongs to the school

level. The Circuit Inspector and his assistants constitute local administrative agencies for the schools under their charge whilst each school has internal administration.

KwaZulu inherited a school system which consists of two main types of schools, namely, government or state or territorial schools and government-aided schools. The first type of schools is under the direct control of the Department of Education. At present government schools are established in terms of Section 3 of the KwaZulu Education Act (Act 7 of 1978). These schools include high schools, technical colleges and Colleges of Education. Apart from the headship (principal), local administration of the school is vested in the Governing Council which represents the interests of the school staff, local community and the inspectorate. For the colleges of education the interests of the organised teaching profession, commerce and industry and regional administration are to be represented on the governing council as well.

The second type of schools, namely, the government-aided schools, can be further divided into mission or "private" schools established by religious organisations and communities schools established by

the local community. In terms of Section 4 of the KwaZulu Education Act, a community school may be established and maintained by the Department of Education and Culture on behalf of the local community. All community schools have school committees consisting of elected parents' representatives. The operation of private schools is provided for by Section 7 of the KwaZulu Education Act. Section 8 of the Act provides for the award of grants-in-aid in respect of these schools under such conditions as the Minister may, in consultation with the Department of Finance, prescribe to the governing body.

There is a particular tripartite form of local administration for the government and community schools. The local governing bodies whose duties and powers are determined by the Minister do not constitute mechanisms for local educational administration as such. They are basically responsible for the administration of school funds, care of the physical facilities and school discipline (Government Notice R1755,1968). The administration of the school educational programme is, in the final analysis, the responsibility of the school head.

Staff appointments and administration, professional guidance, and co-ordination of school programmes are the responsibilities of the Department. The process of contracting for employment on the part of the school teacher entails the filling in of the prescribed application form by the applicant and endorsement of the application by the Chairman of the governing body, namely, the parent representative in the case of the community school, and the Circuit Inspector in the case of the government school. The application is forwarded to the Department, together with the assumption of duty form, filled in by the school principal and the Circuit Inspector in the case of the community school, or by one of these officers in the case of the government school. If the Department recommends the application the Cabinet normally finalises the appointment under specified conditions prescribed by the Department. In effect the contractual obligations of the teacher towards the parent community of his school exists by implication. A look at the social structures at work will further explain the nature of administration of education in KwaZulu.

4.4 Social Structures at Work

4.4.1 State

Thembela (1980:78) rightly points out that the KwaZulu system of education is a state system where the Department of Education and Culture administers education for the people within the area of jurisdiction of the KwaZulu Government. Decisions taken at the central level include pieces of enabling legislation by the Legislative Assembly and Cabinet resolutions and government notices issued by the Minister in respect of the educational programmes, professional and auxiliary services, personnel and general administration and community involvement. From the time of the establishment of the Department of Education and Culture in 1972 various important decisions have been taken alongside legislation. With regard to the educational programme the department set up an ad hoc committee in 1973 to draw up an education manifesto for the territory. The Ad hoc Committee arrived at the following aim of education for KwaZulu:

> The effective organisation of the African's experiences so that his tendencies and powers may develop in a manner satisfactory to himself and the nation, by the growth of requisite knowledge, attitudes and congenial skills required to face the demands of modern age (KwaZulu Dept. of Education and Culture,1973:2).

At the time of the passing of the KwaZulu Education Act, the Department envisaged the establishment of new curricula, examinations and other regulations by a commission of inquiry with help from local and overseas experts (Daily News,10.5.1978). There does not appear to be any definite step taken by the Department to bring this idea to fruition.

Deliberations on the educational programmes in KwaZulu have, for understandable reasons, gone beyond the parameters of the Department of Education and Culture. In 1975 the KwaZulu Executive Council (Cabinet) resolved that the preparation of the Development Plan for KwaZulu should be undertaken to achieve the following goals amongst others (Thorrington-Smith, et al,1978:1):

(i) promote the fullest potential of the people to help themselves,

(ii) promote the social security and health of the people,

(iii) promote the maximum inherent potential of the people, through training and education,

(iv) encourage the churches and other social institutions to assist in the promotion of the development of the

people.

The Cabinet's resolution led to a comprehensive study of the human and natural resources and the development potentialities of the KwaZulu territory. In the Preliminary Development Plan prepared by a team of three investigators the following statement is made about education (Thorrington-Smith et al,1978:85):

> The emphasis should be predominantly on literacy, numeracy and training, and only to a minor extent on general academic and university education. The latter should, moreover, be focussed largely on the fields of agriculture, engineering and the business sciences. After this period the order of priorities might be changed in favour of broader education.

The launching of this investigation by the KwaZulu Government dramatised the perceived need for overall planning in which education occupies a central place. In response to the Development Plan, the Minister of Education and Culture stated the following in his policy speech (KLA,1979:340):

> My Department has singled out technical education and teacher training as priorities. The economic and industrial growth of any country is dependent upon the

> availability of a well-trained technical labour force. Further in terms of the National Development Plan for KwaZulu, our institutions will be expected to produce enough graduates in the economic, technical and agricultural fields to meet envisaged developmental needs.

According to Thembela (1980:113) the KwaZulu system of education will find it very difficult to supply its economy with trained and developed human resources because "White" South African remains the core country while KwaZulu is on the periphery of an integrated economic system. In spite of these economic and demographic constraints confronting KwaZulu, provision has been made by the Government for more educational facilities in the trade and technical directions as reflected in the following table:

Table 6: Education Institutions in KwaZulu, 1988

Institutions	1979	1988
Primary schools	1858	2188
Intermediate schools	-	31
Secondary schools	350	650
Colleges of Education	7	9
Technical Colleges/Instit.		10
Vocational training		1
Technikon education	11	1
Centres for adult educ.		75
Schools for special educ.	2	8
In-service training teachers	-	1

Sources: Department of Education and Training: Annual Report, 1988. Government Printer Pretoria, p.224. KwaZulu Department of Education and Culture; Annual Report, 1979: 22, 23 and 25.

Another important decision which the KwaZulu Department of Education and Culture took with regard to the educational programme was the introduction of a new subject called "Good Citizenship" or "Ubuntu-botho" in all the schools under its jurisdiction from Sub-

standard A to standard 10. The subject was introduced in 1979 as a compulsory non-examinable subject.

Good citizenship, which has come to be regarded as the Inkatha (National Cultural Liberation Movement) educational programme, was originally designed by a branch of Natal African Teachers' Union as a programme of social and political education recommended for introduction to all Black schools in South Africa. Its adoption and adaptation by the Department of Education and Culture followed a land-slide victory of Inkatha in the 1977 KwaZulu general election. The government's felt need to infuse into school education the Inkatha-oriented perception of social and political realities in South Africa explains why Inkatha Movement became the over-riding unit of the syllabus. Centralised administration has facilitated another decision in respect of which branches of Inkatha Youth Brigade are to be established in all KwaZulu schools.

Since 1984 a pledge or loyalty oath has been required for all civil servants, including teachers to promise that they would never:

> In word or deed, directly or by implication, villify denigrate or in any way speak in contempt of the Inkatha Liberation Movement and its leadership and various levels in and outside KwaZulu schools, in public and in private.

The Government's right to a loyal civil servic particularly with regard to teachers, is entrenched b the KwaZulu Education Amendment Act (Act 10 of 1984) The Act provides for the insertion of the followin clause in Section 21 of Act 7 of 1978:

> The Minister may, with the prior approval of the Cabinet, discharge a teacher from the service of the Department with short notice and without advancement of reasons if in the opinion of the Cabinet the continued employment of the teacher is not in the interest of KwaZulu; provided that a teacher so discharged shall be paid his normal salary for a period of three months reckoned from the date of his discharge.

In a three-page memorandum the Natal African Teachers Union (Thembela and Gasa,1985) acknowledged the concer of the KwaZulu Government about the politicall motivated misconduct and the resultant disruption o educational services revolving around certain teachers The representatives of the Union, however, pointed ou that the KwaZulu Education Act (Act 7 of 1978) provide

adequately for the removal of disruptive elements from school. They accordingly made the following submission:

> We are saying this Amendment is dangerous to the KwaZulu Department itself in that it creates a sense of insecurity in its teachers, dampens their spirits without necessarily preventing what it purports to prevent. Even the Department of Education and Training that had the worse disturbances in its schools does not have this similar (sic) provision in its Education Act. Surely the KwaZulu Government does not want to be regarded as the worst educational authority in the treatment of its teachers (1985:3).

It is reasonable to suppose that this amendment, because of its delicate nature, would have to be used in extreme cases of proven intolerable behaviour.

From 1987, demand for an oath of loyalty became a law in KwaZulu. As a result of the passing of the KwaZulu Public Service Amendment Act (Act 20 of 1987), anybody who is to be permanently employed in the KwaZulu Service has first to "declare in writing his loyalty to the Government." The provision also made it obligatory for the employees already in service to pledge their loyalty.

4.4.2 The Family

The role of the family in education expresses itself in terms of parent participation. Gabela (1983:62) makes the following observation:

> No educational system can function effectively unless it operates by the consent of the community whom it serves. A functioning system derives its sustenance, amongst other things, from the contribution made by the parent and other community members.

Nowhere in South Africa is this statement as apposite as in Black education, for it is in this system that parents have for a long time been made to set up what are known as "community schools". From the time of the beginning of Bantu Education, schools established and maintained by Black communities and, therefore, called "community schools", were by far the largest category in Black education. In 1957 the Department of Native Affairs issued Government Notice R251 dated 22 February 1957, directing School Boards to raise the capital costs for higher primary and post primary schools and then apply for a one pound subsidy. The system later became known as "Rand for Rand subsidy" (Horrel,1968:44). The schools so established became known as aided community schools.

As has been noted earlier, KwaZulu inherited a typology of school system characterised by a preponderance of community schools. During the second reading of the KwaZulu Education Bill in 1978 a member of the Legislative Assembly made the following comment about the types of schools for KwaZulu:

> The last category will be tribal or community schools. These will be schools that will be established, maintained and run by communities, and the Government will only feature here and there (KwaZulu Legislative Assembly,1978:1045).

Accordingly, Section 4 of the KwaZulu Education Act provides for the following:

> The Minister may in consultation with the Treasury and out of monies appropriated by the Legislative Assembly for the purpose, establish and maintain schools in the area-
>
> where school buildings and sites have been or will be provided or maintained by a KwaZulu community or tribal authority it shall be known as community schools.

On the basis of legislation the authority of the parent is very limited since educational administration is centralised. In Section 33 (1) the Act further stipulates:

> For the purpose of enabling the parents of pupils at schools to participate in management of schools and hostels, the Minister may in the manner prescribed by regulation establish for any school or schools, hostel or hostels a board, committee or other body.

Government Notice No. 830 gazetted on 2 December 1988 provides for the establishment of a school committee at each community school for the collection and administration of funds to provide facilities and amenities at school and for promoting the interests of the school and pupils. The regulation also provides for consultation with and the consent of the parents prior to any collection. In addition prior approval has to be sought from the Circuit Inspector in charge.

The number of school committee members is not stipulated in the regulation. The current practice of having nine elected parent representatives on the school committee is in line with the stipulations by the then Department of Bantu Education in Government Notice R267 of 25 February 1977. In the light of this Government Notice, the Department of Education and Culture, it would appear, amended Regulation 27 of R1755 of 1968 which had been promulgated for the schools entrusted to the Territorial Authorities and

had provided for four members nominated by the Circuit Inspector and five members elected by parents.

According to Government Notice No. 830 (2 December 1988) the government or territorial schools should each have a school fund committee consisting of the principal, the vice-principal, one teacher designated by the Secretary and another person other than a service teacher designated by the Secretary. In addition to this provision there are indications of the existence of a governing body called "governing council" or "advisory council" for territorial schools and colleges of education in KwaZulu. Interviews held with officers at these institutions, established that the advisory Council or Board advises the principal or rector regarding the administration of the institution. The body also makes recommendations to the Secretary for Education and Culture on such matters as budget estimates for the institution and staff appointment. There does not appear to be a difference between the composition of the school fund committee and that of the governing council, or advisory council.

There is also a local arrangement in terms of which each school or college could have a parent committee to

advise the governing council. This informal network, as well as formal structures at government and community institutions, is not yet co-ordinated at circuit or regional level. In addition, the Education Council which advises the Minister and the Secretary does not have subordinate structures.

4.4.3 The Church

Black education still reflects the historic bond between education and evangelisation. Thembela (1980:79) identifies the role of the church as follows:

> Pupils still belong to various christian denominations and to that extent the church still has an educative influence on them apart from any role played by formal organised school education e.g. through private schools. And the denomination to which parents belong helps to form parent opinion which in turn is expressed in school committees and parents' meetings.

The fact that education was introduced as an evangelising instrument among the Africans is well-documented. What needs to be said here is that from 1835 various missionaries organisations and persons arrived in Natal to establish mission stations to propagate the Christian faith and introduce formal education (Emmanuelson,1927:9; Coetzee, et.al.,1963:15-

16; Gabela,1983:115-116). In 1954 when Bantu Education was implemented the ecclesiastical bodies which at that time controlled and administered Black schools, were given the option to transfer the control of their schools to the state or retain such control without any financial aid from the state. It is estimated that of some forty ecclesistical bodies, ten percent retained their institutions as private, non-subsidised schools (Behr and Macmillan,1966:353; Behr,1984:188). According to Christie (1986:84) the Catholic Church took a stand which separated it from other churches by deciding to keep control of its schools as aided schools. Since 1954, therefore, the church in general has had a diminishing authority in the administration of schools.

As far as KwaZulu is concerned, Section 7 of the KwaZulu Education Act provides for ministerial approval in respect of the establishment of private schools. According to Section 8 of the same act the Minister may, after consultation with the Treasury, award grants-in-aid to the governing body of any private school. KwaZulu, therefore, welcomes the participation of the church and other organisations in providing for education under the direction and control of the Minister of Education and Culture. The endorsement of

involvement of ecclesiastical bodies in education also came out clearly in the debate on an Educational Bill, in 1978, as the following words indicate:

> Now if you destroy the influence of missionaries, then you create a society that does not respect God. We are fully aware Mr Speaker of the damage that this has done to the morals of children in our schools. We are not surprised, therefore, that one of the manifestations is the destruction of property especially in our schools (KwaZulu Legislative Assembly,1978:1046).

Examples of mission schools still in existence include the Catholic institutions like Montobello High School near Dalton and Impumelelo High School at Mahlabathini. Inanda Girls' Seminary at Inanda is still regarded as an institution of the Congregationalists although it has a governing council which includes parent representatives. In all schools operating under KwaZulu the religious sentiment of the client community is taken to be represented by the subject called Religious Education and the subject advisory service relating to it. The Department of Education and Culture has the following to say in its Annual Report (1988:14):

> It is gratifying to note that there are some High Schools that are

> mindful of the fact that Religious Education is a compulsory subject in all schools. They offer the subject for non-examination purposes up to standard 10.

There are instances in KwaZulu where a church organisation provides hostel accommodation whilst the school functions as a community school.

4.4.4 Teachers In Organisation

Section 34 of the KwaZulu Education Act provides for the recognition of an association of teachers by the Minister for purpose of consultation. In effect this section provides for the recognition of the Natal African Teachers' Union and the Association of Inspectors in Natal and KwaZulu. In one of his policy speeches in 1979 the Minister of Education and Culture declared:

> It is also my Department's policy to consult with the Natal African Teachers' Union (NATU) on a regular basis. We want our teachers to be brought more into the picture with regard to matters that concern our education. We want to assist teachers to achieve their professional skills and to command the country's respect they deserve as custodians of our children's future. On the other hand we want the teachers themselves to be assured that my Department will always protect and promote their professional interests whenever

> this is necessary. A contented and confident teaching force is a prerequisite for a sound educational system (KwaZulu Legislative Assembly,1979:349).

The Association of Inspectors and the Natal African Teachers' Union are each represented in the KwaZulu Education Council.

The teachers' union is in constant consultation with the Department of Education and Culture on various matters pertaining to the teachers as individual as well as group matters, such as conditions of service, employment benefits, quality of education and innovations in teaching. But there is very little change, if any, that teachers have helped to bring about in the area of curriculum planning. In February 1977 the Mtunzini Branch of the Union initiated the syllabus of Good Citizenship which was recommended for adoption by the Department of Education and Culture and the Department of Education and Training. The syllabus was adopted, amended and implemented as Inkatha syllabus by the Department of Education and Culture with effect from 1979. In the earlier version the Inkatha Cultural Liberation Movement formed part of the African Liberation Movement, whereas in the latter version it constituted a separate unit of the syllabus.

Teachers have not as yet touched other areas of the school content to any significant extent. For example, the school subjects and syllabuses taught from sub-standard A to standard 8 are the same as those that are provided by the Department of Education and Training even though the Department of Education and Culture is in full control of standards and certification at these levels. The teachers as an organisation have an important role to play in influencing KwaZulu education policy, in in-service education of teachers in different ranks, and in bringing about changes in the content of education.

4.5 Conclusion

The educational system of KwaZulu has heretofore developed to assume such characteristics as are dictated by the South African Socio-political environment, namely, as a system which is functionally linked with the larger system. In this connection Mdluli (1980:1) writes,

> While it is true that the Education Department in KwaZulu in still in essence merely a micro-cosn of the Department of Education and Training and therefore possesses many of the features of the Department, it must be conceded that it has over the years, since 1972 evolved its own distinctive characteristics which distinguish

> it as a department in its own right.

The KwaZulu Government, while affirming its regional status in respect of the South African Government, has assumed responsibility to render educational services within its sphere of competence. The South African theory of an educational system expounded by researchers referred to in this chapter, supports the existence of an educational system in KwaZulu. The existence of a Department of Education and its supportive structures warrants an evaluative analysis of administration of the system.

CHAPTER FIVE

5. EMPIRICAL RESEARCH PROCEDURES AND TECHNIQUES

5.1 Introduction

In Chapter Four a description was given of the system of education in KwaZulu and the structures involved in its administration. This description forms part of the literature survey and lays the foundation for evaluative analysis of administration of the system in question. In this chapter attention is given to empirical research procedures and techniques used in the study. This chapter entails the restatement of the aims of the study, the discussion of data collecting instruments, the sampling of respondents for interview schedules and questionnaires, and the administration of data-collecting instruments.

5.2 Aims of the Study Restated

This evaluative analysis looks at the administration of education in KwaZulu to determine the manner in which the various components of the system perform their functions. To carry out the evaluation this study has been designed to identify the generic functions of administration and to examine their application to educational administration in KwaZulu. On the basis of

this analysis, recommendations are made concerning the improvement of administration in the area concerned. The main aims of the study are:

* to describe the KwaZulu educational system: its character, socio-political context and constraints;
* to identify the generic functions of educational administration on the basis of which criteria are formulated for evaluation;
* to examine educational administration in KwaZulu and to evaluate it by means of formulated criteria, and
* to formulate recommendations regarding the improvement of administration of education in the area concerned.

It should, however, be noted that the first two aims stated above have already been achieved. Through the use of data collecting instruments described in this chapter, the study seeks to examine preparation for administrative roles, work performance of education officers and their role perceptions. Accordingly specific questions were asked in respect of the need and means for preparation of education officers for their administrative roles, respondents' perceptions of work-related skills, their work performance in terms of tasks, process of administration and problems, and collaboration among education officers as well as with interested parties.

5.3 Selection and Description of Data Collecting Instruments

The basic research design for this study is the survey. According to Behr (1973:10-11) the survey is meant "to obtain information about prevailing conditions on a planned basis." Borg and Gall (1983:404) point out that studies involving surveys account for a substantial proportion of the research done in the field of education. In this study questionnaires were constructed for headmasters and circuit inspectors. In-depth interviews were conducted among such education officers as Assistant Directors, Directors, and the Secretary (See Figure 3).

The questionnaire was considered appropriate for school principals and circuit inspectors, since the study entails description of existing conditions and practices by way of collecting data from the subjects beyond the physical reach of the investigator. No other viable method of investigation would enable the investigator to reach twenty-five circuit offices and various schools in KwaZulu. In this study the interview technique was selected to serve the purpose for which it was considered appropriate. It allowed for direct interaction with senior education officers, as well as for greater depth than would have been the

case with an alternative method of investigation.

The questionnaire as a data-gathering device seems to have been subject to some caustic criticism. Yet as Mouly (1970:242) and Best (1977:157) note, this is the most widely used technique in normative research. Treece and Treece (1982:228) give a long list of its advantages. They consider that the questionnaire is a rapid efficient, inexpensive and simple method of gathering information. Best (1977:157) adds that the careful preparation of a good questionnaire takes a great deal of time, ingenuity and hard work. This view is shared by Gay (1987:195) who further argues that criticism of questionnaire is related not to their use but misuse. The questionnaire as used in this study was chosen with due consideration of the fore-going observations.

The interview, which is essentially an oral in-person administration of a questionnaire to each member of a sample (Gay,1987:202) is as much discredited and regularly used as the questionnaire. Burroughs (1975:103) attributes criticism of the interview to its loose use by people who have "only the haziest idea what it is they are looking for and who have given no prior thought as to their proposed procedure once they

are face-to-face with the interview".

The authors who compare the interview with the questionnaire argue that the former is more flexible. For example, the interview can adapt the situation to each subject, can explain and clarify both the purpose of the research and individual questions, and can follow up on incomplete or unclear responses by asking additional probing questions (Bailey,1978:157-158; Treece and Treece,1982:245; Gay,1987:203). The chief disadvantage of the interview is that it is costly, time-consuming and generally involves a smaller sample. That is why it could only be used with a smaller group of officers based at the KwaZulu headquarters.

5.3.1 Construction of Questionnaires

Two sets of questionnaires were constructed, one for school headmasters and another for circuit inspectors. The choice of the target population took into account the line organisation and corresponding role functions in the KwaZulu administration of education. Both sets of questionnaires are divided into sections. This division is based on the grouping of different items which could be answered in the same way. The items in the first section inquire into personal particulars of the respondents, namely, sex, age, educational

qualifications and work experience. Items in the subsequent sections inquire into the attitude of principals and circuit inspectors towards their knowledge and practice of, and preparation for educational administration, their role perceptions, their role performance in respect of the process of administration,the major tasks and problems they have identified with regard to their administrative work, and any further comments or recommendations regarding administration (See Appendixes C and D).

The questionnaires consisted of closed or restricted type and open or unrestricted type of items. The format of the questionnaires was such that closed items relating to the central theme were answerable on a two-point as well as a five-point scale: yes/no; strongly agree/agree/undecided/disagree/strongly disagree; extremely important/very important/somewhat important/of little importance/of no importance. The advantage cited by authors in favour of the closed-form items is that they do not only facilitate response but make data analysis very efficient and objective (Borg and Gall,1983:419; Gay,1987:196). However, Forcese and Richter (Undated:166) make the following observation:

> There is always the nagging doubt that perhaps the closed, structured questions are not really tapping the respondent's true feelings and that a more valid approach would be the open-ended device, allowing the respondent to respond in his fashion.

The nature of the study required that both restricted and unrestricted items be included. Unrestricted items took the form of follow-up probes immediately after the respondent's choice of an alternative. The recorded reasons for, or elaboration on, the chosen alternative, as well as comments, or occasionally, lack of comments were used by the researcher to compare the intended purpose of the question and the chosen alternative with its meaning perceived and acted upon by the respondent. Best (1977:159) and Gay (1987:196-197) point out that open-ended items are valuable in the research process.

5.3.1.1 Pilot Study

Both sets of questionnaires were tried out for possible deficiencies or inadequacies and for identifying needed improvements. This feedback from the research population and other persons included, was intended to establish if question items are clear and unambiguous, and to eliminate poor instructions and identify administration problems. For the questionnaire to

principals a pilot study was conducted through the use of a group of ten respondents who are part of the intended population but not part of the sample. For the questionnaire to circuit inspectors a pilot study was conducted on three respondents who are part of the intended population. Since the instrument was not meant for testing for achievement or related performance, it was considered that the inclusion of the three respondents in the final administration would in no way influence the nature and distribution of responses.

The responses received from the pilot study subjects did not reveal any significant charges to be effected on the questionnaire format and content. It was, however, observed that the substantial number of unrestricted items in each set of questionnaires would tax the patience and time of the respondents. In the interest of the research, however, this was unavoidable.

5.3.1.2 <u>The Target Population and Sampling for Questionnaires</u>

The pilot study and the resultant minor modifications to the questionnaires were followed by the administration of the finalised instruments (See Appendixes B, C and D). The first target population of

the study was made up of all circuit inspectors in the KwaZulu Department of Education and Culture. As the questionnaire was to be completed by all twenty-five circuit inspectors no sampling was required. The second target population for the study was made up of all school headmasters and headmistresses in KwaZulu. At the time of the study there were 2951 functioning schools. This number excludes special schools, skills or trade centres, technical colleges, colleges of education and technikons, all of which did not form part of the target population of the study. The total number of schools, that is, the second population, were broken down into the following categories:

Table 7: Number of Target Schools in KwaZulu, 1990

Category	Lower Primary	Combined Primary	Higher Primary	Junior Sec.	Senior Sec.	Total
Number	745	1295	225	355	331	2951
Percentage	25,3	43,9	7,6	12	11,2	100

The total number of schools was obtained from the statistical information of March 1990 (KwaZulu Department of Education and Culture Annual Returns,1990).

As can be observed, the bulk of the target population belonged to the primary categories. Whilst the researcher took into account this distribution, he considered as quite significant the anticipated returns from the secondary categories where the bulk of administrative challenges and problems pertinent to this study are likely to exist. As it is virtually impossible to study the target population in its entirety, attempts were made through sampling to make the best population as representative of the target population as possible (Burroughs,1975:56; Cohen and Manion,1989:101). Secondly, as the analysis had to be both qualitative and quantitative an adjustment was made regarding quota or proportionate sampling (Slavin,1984:100). Accordingly seventy percent of the sample was drawn from the primary schools and thirty percent was selected from the secondary schools (See Tables 7 and 8).

KwaZulu inspection circuits are homogenous in the sense that they have the same categories of schools. This homogeneity is important in controlling selection bias.

Burroughs (1975:57) stresses,

> If a sample is somehow to be drawn from a population, that population must be known both in its nature and membership. A population is not everybody, but everybody falling into the category whose characteristics have been defined.

In this study use was made of cluster sampling in which groups or clusters (inspection circuits) and not individual schools or persons (principals) had been initially selected. Eight out of twenty-five inspection circuits were chosen randomly, namely, Edendale, KwaMashu, Madadeni, Mehlwesizwe, Msinga, Umbumbulu, Umlazi South and Pholela. The eight circuits had a total number of 825 schools and this was 28% percent of the target population, namely, school principals.

To select the sample of school principals use was made of stratified sampling (Tuckman,1978:204; Cohen and Manion,1989:102). This sampling enabled the researcher to break up the population into various sub-groups or strata represented by five categories of schools, and to take a separate sample within each sub-group or stratum. The selection of specific respondents within each stratum was made on a random basis. Tuckman

(1978:278) remarks as follows:

> While randomness is the key to overcome selection bias in sampling, stratification adds precision in ensuring that the sample contains the same population distribution of respondents on skeletal parameters as the population.

With regard to the percentage distribution of respondents among different strata, proportionate or quota sampling was done with slight modification in view of expected returns as indicated earlier on. A sample of four hundred and fifty respondents was selected. This number represented fifteen percent of the target population. To facilitate collection, respondents were requested by means of a covering letter to return the completed questionnaires in the self-addressed, post-paid envelopes. The following distribution was arrived at with regard to proportionate representation of strata:

Table 8: Sample of Respondents by School Category

Stratum	Lower Primary	Combined Primary	Higher Primary	Junior Sec.	Senior Sec.	Total
No. of respondents	90	180	45	70	65	450
Percentage	20	40	10	16	14	100
Proportion		70%			30%	100%

5.3.2 Construction of Interview Schedule

In order to collect data regarding administration at regional and central levels, as well as to supplement the data obtained through the questionnaires, interviews were conducted with education officers in the KwaZulu Department of Education and Culture. Kerlinger (1981:479) regards the interview as the direct method of investigating in the sense that a great deal of information needed in social scientific research can be obtained from respondents by direct questions. In this study interviews were planned for tapping information from two important levels of decision making mentioned above. The interviews centred around issued like preparation for administrative roles, leadership roles, process of administration and matters of collaboration among different sections of the Department of Education and Culture (See Appendix E).

Various authors like Kerlinger (1981:484), Mason and Bramble (1978:278) and Measor (1985:67) classify interviews into two types, namely, structured interviews and unstructured interviews. In the structured interviews there are specific sets of questions which may be answered by means of yes/no response, or by scale items. The unstructured interview, like the questionnaire, allows the respondent to state his case freely and possibly to give reasons as well. Along the continuum of structured and unstructured interviews will be found a semi-structured interview which allows the interviewer to decide how best to secure the information. According to Measor (1985:67) structured interviews with fixed-alternative questions are to be avoided in qualitative research. However, in research that is both qualitative and quantitative there will be found a set of thematic areas which the researcher may want to cover by means of a given item scale.

The interview schedule which was used in this study is semi-structured in the sense that it has fixed-alternative items on one hand and probes which are open-ended on the other hand. One interview schedule was designed to be used with the necessary changes for different categories of senior education officers. The

instrument was divided into sections to cover the same area as the questionnaires, although there were differences of emphasis. The closed type of items were based on a two-point as well as a six-point scale: yes/no; very high/high/moderate/low/very low/none. The unrestricted items called for explanation, elaboration on chosen alternative answers, and comments.

5.3.3 The Target Population and Sampling for Interviews

The target population for the interviews was made up of nine Assistant Directors, two Directors and one Secretary for Education (See Figure 3). Four Assistant Directors are responsible for regional management. One Assistant Director heads the academic planning section, and the remaining four Assistant Directors are responsible for auxiliary and supplementary services such as youth, adult and enhancement programmes, psychological services, physical planning and library services. The first Director is responsible for professional services. Regional management and subject advisory services fall under this division. The second Director is responsible for co-ordinating academic planning and auxiliary services. In-depth interviews were held with two Assistant Directors for regional management selected at random, one Assistant Director for academic planning, two Directors, and the

Secretary. The selection of the test population for interviews took into account the organisational structure of the Department of Education and Culture from school to central levels.

5.4 Administration of Data Collecting Instruments

5.4.1 Interviews

In this research, arrangements for the interviews presented no problems. Appointments were made and honoured with a total of six officers. During an interview, desired information was jotted down. The rapport established between the interviewer and each respondent was of such a nature that it allowed free and honest discussion during which note-taking did not seem to arouse any apprehension. However, the procedure was found to be necessarily time-consuming when elaborate discussions were held on issues which both the interviewer and the respondents found to be of interest.

5.4.2 Questionnaire to Principals

Of the 450 questionnaires mailed to school principals only 56 were returned punctually. This was 12% of the sample. It was later established that for some inspection circuits, the dispatch of questionnaires coincided with social upheavals which had adverse

effects on the functioning of schools. Other non-returns could be attributed to the possibility that some recipients needed further urging, or that they had an unfavourable attitude towards the study. Reminders were sent for the return of outstanding questionnaires. Two hundred and seventy-six further questionnaires were subsequently received, bringing the total to 332, that is, seventy four percent of the sample.

5.4.3 Questionnaire to Circuit Inspectors

Out of twenty-five questionnaires mailed to circuit inspectors twelve were initially returned. This was forty-eight percent of the number. The non-returns could be attributed to the possibility that some recepients viewed the questionnaire as an additional burden to their work schedule. One additional questionnaire was received after the dispatch of reminders, bringing the number to thirteen, that is, 52% of the total number.

5.5 Treatment of Data

5.5.1 Questionnaires

The data were secured by grouping or tabulating responses to items for different sections of the questionnaires. For the closed items tables were constructed to indicate the respondents' attitudes or

preferred responses, their frequencies and their percentages in relation to the total responses to questionnaire items. Where applicable the responses were classified into supportive and opposing categories, or as patterns of related responses. The investigator then indicated what the responses meant in terms of the central theme for each set of items.

5.5.2 Interview

The data secured by means of the interview schedule were arranged into patterns of related responses for different sections of the data-gathering instrument. For open-ended items the paraphrasing technique was used. This enabled the interviewer to confirm the interviewees' expressed views. As almost all the respondents were drawn from different administrative portfolios, their responses to closed items were grouped according to similarity of content but not presented in tabular form for quantification. Through an integrative discussion the investigator indicated what the responses meant in terms of the central theme for each set of items.

5.6 Conclusion

In view of the breakdown of the social order in KwaZulu-Natal during the period when the questionnaires

and the interviews were administered, return rates of 74% for the questionnaire to principals and 52% for the questionnaire to circuit inspectors were regarded as satisfactory. Whereas the number of responses from the circuit inspectors constituted 52% of the target population, responses from the school principals constituted an effective 11,3% of the target population. As mentioned earlier, the procedure adopted in selecting the sample from school principals ensured an adequate representation in terms of quota and strata of the target population. A comparable sample size of 8,5% is also noted in the case of the study by Meyerowitz (1973:327). Slavin (1984:102) refers to a sample size of at least thirty respondents in each group as a rule of thumb. It was, therefore, felt for purposes of this investigation, that a sample of 332 for school principals as well as that 13 for circuit inspectors, was adequate Because of lack of any discernible characteristics associated with those education officers who did not return the questionnaires, the investigator considered that the self-selection factor would be of no significance for the results of this study.

CHAPTER SIX

6. PREPARATION FOR ADMINISTRATIVE ROLES: PRESENTATION, DISCUSSION AND INTERPRETATION OF DATA

6.1 Introduction

In this chapter a look is taken at the line and staff organisation of the administration in KwaZulu from the school level to the head office in Ulundi. This is followed by an analysis of personal information which the respondents gave in response to the questionnaires and interviews. Included in this chapter are the respondents' replies and comments on their preparation for their respective administrative roles. Group of tables relating to the responses are discussed under specified sub-headings.

6.2 Factual Information on the Hierarchy of Administration in KwaZulu

The administration of education in KwaZulu forms a hierarchy of subordinate, superordinate and co-ordinate relationships. Each school has a principal who is the administrative head of the school and the instructional leader of the teaching personnel. The school is a unit of the inspection circuit. The circuit is headed by the circuit inspector who, as chief education officer is assisted by three or four inspectors of schools.

The inspection circuits are homogenous entities in so far as they have the same categories of schools. An average of six inspection circuits constitute a region. Therefore, the 25 inspection circuits of which KwaZulu is constituted are grouped into four regions, namely, North Coast, South Coast, Northern Natal and Midlands. As indicated in Chapter Five (5.3.5), each region falls under an Assistant Director who is responsible for regional management. The Assistant Directors are answerable to the Director, Professional Services, who together with the Director, Auxiliary Services, is responsible to the Secretary for Education and Culture (See Figure 3).

The tasks of the school principal are generally understood to include caring for finance, equipment and physical facilities, assigning duties, supervising teaching-learning activities, interpreting departmental policy and procedures, seeing to staff and pupils' welfare, executing curriculum programmes and maintaining relations with the parents and the officers of the Department. That these may be regarded as mandatory tasks is evident from the Guide For Principals (ZE 31) which was compiled by the Department of Education and Culture in the early years of its establishment. In its four short chapters the

manual touches on such matters as the principal as the leader and superviser, office routine, division of work among the members of the teaching personnel and pupil leadership, and internal organisation of the school. In the last-mentioned category of the tasks reference is made to the admission, treatment and exclusion of pupils, school discipline, class work, extra-curricular activities, school funds and examinations.

In the preface of the Guide the following is stated with regard to the principal:

> He has been appointed because of the zeal, devotion and competence with which he performed his duties as a teacher. He holds the key position in his school - he is the headmaster and ranks first. He is the liaison between the parent and teacher, between teacher and the educational authority... He is first and foremost an educationist and therefore, he must look after the physical and spiritual well-being of his scholars. In order to do this he must have personal knowledge of his scholars... but also his staff, the parents and the community.

The manual urges principals to make the necessary amendments and additions in order to make the document a useful reference for the enhancement of their educational roles. The document, however, needs up-

dating as it was compiled in the context of the Bantu Education Act (Act 47 of 1953) which was repealed by Section 38 of the KwaZulu Education Act (Act 7 of 1978). It should also be pointed out that, as indicated under Section 6.3.2.1, fifty percent of the respondents stated that the manual is not available to school principals.

The most recent official directive regarding the administration of schools is the Government Notice No.830 of 2 December 1988. In this document the Minister of Education and Culture details regulations in respect of the principal's role in the admission, treatment and exclusion of pupils, maintenance of discipline, and the establishment, administration and utilisation of school funds. But at the time of this research all school principals spoken to denied having seen or heard about the Government Notice in question.

By common understanding the Circuit Inspector together with his team of inspectors is a link between the Department and the schools. On the one hand he keeps the Department informed about the state of education and the needs and problems relating thereto. On the other hand he interprets the departmental policy to schools and other interested bodies and persons. He

offers professional guidance to schools with the aim of attaining and maintaining an optimal level of efficiency in instructional and administrative processes. His work of inspection is directed at obtaining facts about schools as well as determining what improvements could be effected and problems to be solved. Discussions with some inspectors have indicated that, apart from the prescribed format for school inspection there is no clear written job description which is given to the incumbent on assumption of duty.

The four Assistant Directors for regional management are based at the head office in Ulundi. This means that they can work closely with one another and with their supervisors. There is evidence of flexibility in the allocation of duties for general co-ordination. For example, one of the Assistant Directors is reported to be responsible for supervising all subject advisors as well as for monitoring higher primary and combined primary schools. The location of the Assistant Directors away from their respective regions is not seen to be a problem in maintaining effective contact with the officers of inspection circuits in each region. The two Assistant Directors who were interviewed reported that their tasks entail planning

for the region, giving the directives, taking decisions and selecting staff for senior teaching posts.

The academic planning section of the Department is headed by an Assistant Director. Administratively this section falls under the directorate for auxiliary services. Functionally it plays a central role in matters relating to curriculum planning and educational development. The tasks of this Assistant Director are divided into four categories. In the first place the Assistant Director is responsible for supervising the activities of a team of education planners. The second task has to do with the initiation of educational projects relating to phases of schooling. The establishment of English medium schools and the formal introduction of pre-primary education were reported to have reached an advanced planning stage. Thirdly, the Assistant Director is responsible for co-ordinating planned and on-going projects such as bridge to literacy, breakthrough to English, special education, college establishment and commercial and technical education. The fourth task has to do with liaison with outside agencies such as those that provide aid for development, upgrading of qualifications and teaching methodologies.

The two Directors assist the Secretary by monitoring various sections of the department. The Director for professional services is responsible for the general progress of educational services; the administration of inspection circuits, especially the work of Circuit Inspectors and ward inspectors; the teaching staff, schools and colleges. The Director for auxiliary services is responsible for monitoring academic planning, physical planning, psychological services, library services, language services and examinations. The job description of the Secretary for Education and Culture is that of an accounting officer. The incumbent is ultimately responsible for financial accounting, policy implementation, budgetting and control. He is the chief executive officer for the professional, auxiliary and personnel divisions. His subordinates are, therefore, responsible for discharging delegated tasks.

6.3 Presentation, Discussion and Interpretation of Data

This part of the study deals with the personal information on the respondents and their preparation for their roles. The aim of the questions on personal information was to elicit responses on variables that might have a bearing on the job performance, knowledge and attitudes of the respondents. The questions on

preparation were designed to cover specific areas such as the need for preparation; the means that were used, and the comments and recommendations of respondents.

6.3.1 Responses According to Personal and Work-related Particulars

As mentioned in Chapter Five there were 332 school principals and 13 inspectors who responded to questionnaires. Six head office officials were interviewed.

6.3.1.1 School Principals

Table 9.1(a): Respondents According to Sex (Principals)

	Schools						
Sex of Princi-pals	Lower primary	Combined primary	Higher primary	Junior sec.	Senior sec.	Total	%
Male	0 (0%)	124 (37,3%)	42 (12,7%)	31 (9,3%)	52 (15,7%)	249	75
Female	61 (18,4%)	15 (4,5%)	3 (0,9%)	4 (0,2%)	0 (0%)	83	25
Total	61 (18,4%)	139 (41,9%)	45 (13,5%)	35 (10,5%)	52 (15,7%)	332	100

Table 9.1(a) shows that 75% of the respondents were males and 25% females. Eighteen percent of the respondents are lower primary female principals. Of the 83 female principals in all categories 61

respondents or 75% belonged to the lower primary. Furthermore of the 184 combined and higher primary school principals, that is, 55% of the sample, only 18 respondents or 5,4% were females. This means that while the respondents for the lower primary schools were exclusively female, the combined and higher primary school categories were predominantly male. The secondary school principals totalled 87 respondents or 26%. Of the 87 respondents, 84 (or 95%) were males Fifty-two respondents or 62% belonged to the senior secondary school category which had no female respondent.

The sex distribution of respondents suggests that the administration of schools in various categories is primarily in the hands of male principals, except for lower primary schools, which are administered exclusively by females. This distribution could be attributed to the belief in the authoritative voice of the male and the subordinate role of the female in social matters that involve both sexes. Alternatively senior teaching posts tend to attract more males than females. In addition, female decisions in respect of job placement and occupational mobility tend to be greatly affected by marital status.

Table 9.1(b): Respondents According to Age (Principals)

	Schools						
Age in Years	Lower primary	Combined primary	Higher primary	Junior sec.	Senior sec.	Total	%
Under 30	4	0	3	0	0	7	2
30 - 39	10	55	13	16	23	117	35
40 - 49	16	20	14	11	21	82	25
50 - 59	31	51	10	4	8	104	31
60 upwards	0	13	5	4	0	22	7
Total	61 (18,4%)	139 (41,9%)	45 (13,5%)	35 (10,5%)	52 (15,7%)	332	100

Table 9.1(b) shows that a significant percentage of respondents, namely, 35%, are between 30 and 39 years of age. This could be ascribed to the rapid increase of new schools and appointment of young aspirant teachers to promotion posts. An almost equally significant percentage of respondents, namely 31, are between the ages 50 and 59. This is related to the fluctuations of numbers of respondents in the combined and higher primary school categories on the one hand and the ascending order of numbers of respondents in the lower primary school category on the other. With regard to the secondary school, the number of respondents tapers towards old age. This is the exact opposite of the lower primary school category where the

age group preceeding the retirement age accounts for 51 percent of respondents.

Table 9.1(c): Respondents According to Highest Academic Qualifications (Principals)

Academic Qualifications	Lower primary	Combined primary	Higher primary	Junior sec.	Senior sec.	Total	%
Below matric	9	18	0	0	0	27	8
Matric	43	91	26	6	0	166	50
Degree courses	4	10	12	4	4	34	10
Degree	5	13	4	16	29	67	20
Honours	0	0	3	2	7	12	4
B.Ed	0	7	0	7	12	26	8
M.Ed	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
MA/M.Com/ M.Sc	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Doctorate	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Total	61 (18,4%)	139 (41,9%)	45 (13,5%)	35 (10,5%)	52 (15,7%)	332	100

Table 9.1(c) shows that 8% of respondents had highest academic qualifications below matriculation. These were all primary school principals. A significantly high percentage of respondents, namely, 50%, had matric as the highest academic qualifications. Ninety-six

percent of this group belonged to the primary school level. This is not surprising if one considers that Black primary school teachers are produced mainly at colleges of education where matriculation is the entrance requirement. Of the 105 graduate respondents seventy-three, or 69% belonged to the secondary school level. This is to be attributed to the fact that until very recently primary school teachers were not required to have university degrees. The table shows that 4% of the respondents had honours degrees, 8% had B.Ed degrees, and none had masters and doctoral degrees. The small percentage of post-graduate degrees suggests that a few principals have acquired initial post-graduate degrees with or without motivation for further study. The absence of respondents with masters or doctoral qualifications should be linked with the tendency for teachers with such qualifications to be attracted to senior administrative or more specialised positions within the department or at college or university.

Table 9.1(d): Respondents According to Professional Qualifications (Principals)

Prof. Qualications	Schools						
	Lower primary	Combined primary	Higher primary	Junior sec.	Senior sec.	Total	%
T4	13	11	4	0	0	28	8
LPTC	8	6	7	0	0	21	6
T3J	0	17	11	7	5	40	12
PTC	5	38	6	0	4	53	16
HPTC	20	35	8	10	7	80	24
JSTC	4	9	3	7	4	27	8
PTD	0	5	0	0	0	5	1,5
SSTC	6	13	6	0	0	25	7,3
STD	0	0	0	7	16	23	7
SED	4	5	0	0	0	9	3
SSTD	0	0	0	1	4	5	2,5
HED	0	0	0	2	0	2	0,5
UED	1	0	0	1	12	14	4
Total	61	139	45	35	52	332	100

(See Appendix H for full names of certificates/diplomas)

According to 9.1(d) 66% of respondents in different categories were holders of various types of pre-matriculation primary teachers' certificates. Each one of the certificates is currently regarded as a nominal

professional qualification which lapses when an individual acquires a degree. The remaining 34% of respondents were a mixture of holders of post-matriculation teachers' diplomas and the recipients of special upgrading diplomas. The upgrading diplomas are the Junior Secondary Teachers' Certificate (JSTC), Senior Secondary Teachers' Certificate (SSTC) and Secondary Education Diploma. They were designed for holders of pre-matriculation teachers' certificates as well as for teachers who have two-year post-matriculation certificates only, such as the JSTC and the old two-year STD (Secondary Teachers' Diploma).

In terms of ranking of the currently recognised teacher qualifications the holders of the Primary Teachers' Diploma (PTD) are the only legitimate primary school teachers. The design of upgrading diplomas was based on secondary school work as well as on a narrow range of purely examination-oriented subjects. On the other hand it was not possible to determine how many respondents had the upgrading diplomas because the name JSTC was used for both the upgrading programme and the two-year post-secondary certificate. Table 9.1(d) revealed that there existed a large number of school principals who were officially regarded as professionally unqualified or underqualified. Some of

the respondents who had been professionally upgraded could be regarded as misplaced teachers in respect of primary schools.

Table 9.1(e): Schools According to Staffing

Staffing at School									
School	No. of schools with vice-principals	No. of schools with subject heads	No. of Teachers per school						No. of schools with clerks
			1-5	6-10	11-15	16-20	21-25	26-	
Lower primary	9	0	19	8	19	12	3	0	0
Combined primary	34	16	27	51	26	23	7	5	0
Higher primary	6	0	0	7	13	25	0	0	0
Junior sec.	0	0	17	10	5	3	0	0	0
Senior sec.	12	17	7	5	2	19	10	9	15
Total	61	33	70	81	65	82	20	14	15
%	18	10	21	24	20	25	6	4	5

Table 9.1(e) revealed that 18% of the respondents had vice-principals serving under them. However, the figure did not differentiate between official appointments and domestic arrangements by the school principal. The low percentage of schools with vice-

principals suggested that such staff appointments are an exception rather than a rule. The table also showed that only 10% of the respondents worked with subject heads. This applied to schools which have a high enrolment and a wide range of subjects, namely, the combined primary and senior secondary schools. The percentage of subject headships did not draw a distinction between officially designated and privately appointed heads. Whilst the absence of officially designated senior staff does not eliminate the need for, and the possibility of, staff involvement in administrative duties, it is bound to affect the staff morale and the work of the school.

According to Table 9.1(e) only 5% of the respondents had at their disposal the services of a clerk. This applied to less than a third of the senior secondary schools. The table also showed that 10% of the respondents had a staff of more than 20 teachers. This figure pertained to combined primary and senior secondary schools. Twenty-one percent of the respondents had the staff complement of between one and five teachers. The remaining 69% of the respondents had staff of between six and 20 teachers. Such staff quotas could be a more startling revelation when one looks at the school enrolment and the rate of growth on

the one hand and teacher qualifications on the other hand. For example, according to the SAIRR (1988:260), in 1987 KwaZulu had a pupil/teacher ratio of 54:1 in primary schools and 40:1 in secondary schools. With regard to teacher qualifications in 1989 KwaZulu had a total of 7306 uncertificated teachers against 1649 college graduates (KwaZulu Dept. of Education and Culture,1989,39-43; Chonco,1990:3). The following breakdown was arrived at with regard to the sample of this study:

Table 9.1(f): Uncertificated Teachers in KwaZulu Circuits (1989)

Name of Circuit	Percentage of Uncertificated Teachers		
	Primary schools %	Secondary schools %	Total %
Edendale	06	10	08
KwaMashu	01	03	02
Madadeni	14	23	17
Mehlwesizwe	18	09	14
Msinga	71	40	54
Pholela	32	24	29
Umbumbulu	11	07	10
Umlazi South	01	02	01

6.3.1.2 Circuit Inspectors

Table 9.1(g): Respondents According to Sex, Age and Years of Service in Present Post (Circuit Inspectors)

Experience in Years	SEX	Age in Years 40-49	50-59	60 upwards	Total
0-5	M	0	5	1	6
	F	0	1	0	1
6-10	M	0	3	1	4
	F	0	0	0	0
11-15	M	0	1	1	2
	F	0	0	0	0
16-20	M	0	0	0	0
	F	0	0	0	0
Over 20	M	0	0	0	0
	F	0	0	0	0
Total		0	10	3	13

Table 9.1(g) represents a consolidation of items 1.1, 1.2 and 1.7 in the questionnaires to circuit inspectors. According to this table only one of the 13 respondents was a female. The researcher's further observation was that the respondent happened to be the only female circuit inspector in KwaZulu. This state of affairs could be attributed to the same social factors as those that influence appointment to principalship (See 6.3.1.1.). All respondents were above the age of 50 and three of them above the age of 60. This mature age was an understandable contrast to the predominantly middle to young age of the school headmasters. As a rule circuit inspectors are former

school teachers promoted to school headmasters and then inspectors of schools. Because of many years of service in these capacities prior to further promotion, the respondents tend to have only few years of service as circuit inspectors.

Table 9.1(h): Respondents According to Qualifications (Circuit Inspectors)

Highest Professional Qualifications	Highest Academic Qualifications						
	Degree	Hon.	B.Ed	M.Ed	MA/M.Sc M.Com	Dr.	Total
T4	1	0	0	0	0	0	1
T3 Junior	2	1	1	2	0	0	6
PTC	0	1	0	0	0	0	1
HPTC	1	0	0	0	0	0	0
T3 Senior	0	0	0	1	0	0	1
STD	0	0	1	1	0	0	2
UED	0	0	1	0	0	0	1
Total	4	2	3	4	0	0	13

Table 9.1(h) showed that all respondents were university degree holders. This was a clear indication of the importance of tertiary education for senior educators, who do not only have to provide educational

leadership, but also have to serve as examples of academic and professional self-development. Nine out of 13 respondents held senior degrees. Of these nine respondents seven had their senior qualifications in educational studies. Out of 13 respondents nine (69,3%) had primary teachers' certificates. But such qualifications did not exclude the possibility of the respondents' placement in various categories of schools after further studies. This preponderance of respondents with primary teachers' qualifications also applied to responses from school headmasters (See Table 9.1(d).

6.3.1.3 Administrators at Head Office

The following section discusses personal and work-related particulars which were obtained through interviews with six senior education officers of the KwaZulu Department of Education and Culture.

Table 9.1(i): Respondents According to Rank, Sex and Qualifications (Secretary, Directors and Assistant Directors)

		RANK			
Highest Academic Qualifications	SEX	Secretary	Directors	Assistant Directors	Total
First degree	M	-	0	0	0
	F	-	0	0	
Honours	M	-	0	1	1
	F	-	0	0	
B.Ed	M	-	0	1	1
	F	-	0	0	
MA/M.Com/M.Sc	M	1	0	0	1
	F	-	0	0	
M.Ed	M	-	1	0	1
	F	-	0	0	
Doctorate	M	-	1	0	2
	F	-	0	1	
Total		1	2	3	6

According to table 9.1(i) all six respondents held senior degree qualifications, five in educational studies and one in a school subject. Interviews with respondents established that four of them regarded their qualifications as providing general academic grounding whilst two respondents looked upon their qualfications as being both academically and professionally relevant to their new positions. Interviews also revealed that all respondents were experienced former school teachers who had been promoted step by step to the senior positions they

occupied. Four of the respondents had received administrative promotions along the line organisation of the department from the school level to the head office. Two respondents had been promoted to senior positions on the basis of alternative occupational experiences within the educational field of service. Only one of the six respondents was female. Such an appointment suggests that promotion opportunities are open to both sexes. However, it could also have been influenced by a strong academic background and diverse career experiences of the female respondent.

6.3.2. Preparation for Administrative Rules

This section of the chapter contains the second part of the analysis of data from the three categories of respondents. The purpose of the questions was first, to establish the manner and extent of preparation of education officers for their administrative roles, and second, to obtain the views and feelings of the respondents about their preparation.

6.3.2.1 Preparation for School Headship

Table 9.2(a): Responses of Principals on the Need for Preparation for Headship in Specific Tasks (N= 332)

NATURE OF TASK	RESPONSE CATEGORY					
	Strongly agree	Agree	Undecided	Disagree	Strongly disagree	Total
Principals should undergo a course in educational administration to be equipped for their role.	232 (69,9%)	93 (28,0%)	7 (2,1%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	332 (100%)
A principal should upon appointment undergo an induction programme to prepare for responsibilities of principalship	185 (55,7%)	147 (44,3%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	0 (100%)
Principals should study textual material on educational administration to be effective in their role performance	160 (48,2%)	148 (44,6%)	19 (5,7%)	5 (1,5%)	0 (0%)	332 100%

Table 9.2(a) represents a consolidation of items 2.1, 2.2 and 2.3 of the questionnaire to principals (See Appendix C). As shown in the table the need for preparation is overwhelming. There were 97,9% of the

respondents who supported the idea of a course in educational administration; no respondent disagreed and 2,1% were undecided. The table also shows that 100% of the respondents affirmed the need for principals to undergo an induction programme. Furthermore 92,8% of the respondents supported the idea that principals should read textual material on educational administration; only 1,5% disagreed and 5,7% were undecided. The respondents were, therefore, overwhelmingly in favour of courses in educational administration, induction programmes and study of textual material on educational administration.

Thirty-three percent of the respondents affirmed the existence of a course in educational administration for principals whilst 67% denied the existence of such a course. This denial revealed a degree to which the principals experienced the need to be equipped for their role. Eighty-six percent of the respondents further recommended that a course in administration be offered to principals. Other suggestions were that the course be offered at regular intervals at tertiary institutions for all beginning principals, and that a specific programme be followed, with the provision being made for follow-up.

Twenty-seven percent of the respondents affirmed the existence of an induction programme in their educational system, whilst 73% indicated that no induction was practised. The difference in responses suggests that induction is done on a very small scale, if ever, and that most principals do not receive induction. Seventy-five percent stated that an induction course for principals is essential or desirable, and the areas identified for the programme included goal-setting, staff-development, human relations, financial administration, pupil administration, supervision, conflict resolution and holding meetings.

Sixty percent of the respondents reported that they were not studying any text on educational administration, whilst 40% reported that they were engaged in some study. Thirty-two percent of the respondents in the primary school category reported that they studied textual material on educational administration, whilst 58% of the respondents in the secondary schools reported their engagement in such a study. This difference in responses is related to the tendency towards generally higher educational qualifications for secondary school principals. A further discussion on this point appears in Section

6.3.1.

With regard to the nature of textual material, the respondents referred to the organised management courses offered by bodies like the Shell Science Centre, Siza Centre, and the Teacher Opportunity Programmes. Respondents also referred to the principal's guide, journals, textbooks and official documents such as government notices. Reference was also made to post-graduate courses in educational administration. Some of the respondents who were not involved in studying texts on educational administration cited the non-availability of material as a reason. Other respondents saw no need in studying this material or were not aware of the importance of this. Forty-six percent of the respondents further endorsed as desirable the study of textual material on administration. Other suggestions called for the arrangement of special courses by tertiary educational institutions, the supply of official reading material by the employing department, and the updating of the principal's guide.

Table 9.2(b): Responses of Principals on the Need for the Education Department and its Officials to Provide Preparation for Headship (N= 332)

AGENCY OF PREPARATION	RESPONSE CATEGORY					
	Strongly Agree	Agree	Undecided	Disagree	Strongly Disagree	Total
The employing department should have a role to play in the training of principals	167 (50,3%)	135 (40,7%)	20 (6,0%)	6 (1,8%)	4 (1,2%)	332 (100%)
The inspector in charge of the area should arrange for a preparatory course for principalship	154 (46,4%)	158 (47,6%)	13 (3,9%)	7 (2,1%)	0 (0%)	332 (100%)

Table 9.2(b) represent a consolidation of items 2.4 and 2.5 of the questionnaire to principals (See Appendix C). The table shows that the frequency of responses is favourably disposed to the need for training and preparation. There were 91,0% of the respondents who supported their training by the employing department, 3% disagreed and 6% were undecided. Ninety-four percent of the respondents supported the idea that the inspectors in charge of the area should arrange for

preparatory courses for principals. Only 2,1% negated the idea and 3,9% were undecided. The table clearly indicates that the respondents were very much in favour of the role to be played by the circuit inspector and the employing department in providing preparation for headship.

Twenty-one percent of the respondents affirmed the department's involvement in providing a training programme for principalship, while 79% denied any knowledge of such involvement by the department. This low level of awareness of the department's involvement seems to be related to an indirect role which the department could play when, for example, it gives approval to an institution or organisation to conduct a programme with principals of schools. Fifty-four percent of the respondents recommended that the department arrange for a course in educational administration. Other recommendations stated that a course in educational administration be a criterion for permanent appointment, that certificates be awarded for the course completed, and that collaboration be established with Siza Centre, Shell Science and Teacher Associations.

Fifty-three percent of the respondents acknowledged the circuit inspectors' role in providing a preparatory programme for school principals. This suggests that an almost equal number of respondents did not have the benefit of this involvement by the circuit inspectors. The respondents referred to the nature of the preparatory programmes as involving general orientation in control of work, class visits, testing and examination, financial administration, running meetings and human relations. The nature of orientation is biased towards a check-list for routine inspection which, according to common practice may or may not entail prior guidance. However the recommendations of the respondents stressed the importance of guidance by circuit inspectors, the timing of the preparatory programme for principals, the training of the circuit inspectors themselves, and the use of available experts and service agencies such as tertiary institutions.

Table 9.2(c): Responses of Principals on the Need for Specific Administrative Preparation Activities (N= 332)

NATURE OF ACTIVITY	RESPONSE CATEGORY					
	Strongly Agree	Agree	Undecided	Disagree	Strongly Disagree	Total
Principals should take every opportunity to attend seminars/ workshops on educational administration	231 (69,6%)	95 (28,6%)	6 (1,8%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	332 (100%)
Principals should have at their disposal manuals for administering schools.	207 (62,4%)	112 (33,7%)	10 (3,0%)	3 (0,9%)	0 (0%)	332 (100%)

Table 9.2(c) consolidates items 2.6 and 2.7 of the questionnaire to principals (See Appendix C). The frequency of responses shows that there is an overwhelming need for specific administrative preparation. There were 98,2% of the respondents who supported the attendance of seminars and workshops and only 1,8% who were undecided. Ninety-six percent of the respondents affirmed the need for principals to have manuals for administering schools. Only 0,9% of the respondents disagreed and 3,0% were undecided. The

respondents therefore, supported attendance at learning sessions and the use of manuals by principals.

Further investigation revealed that 70% of the respondents had attended seminars and workshops. The reason advanced by the respondents who had not attended such sessions was that they were not available, or they had not been organised to include them. The desirability of workshops and seminars was stressed by further comments from the respondents. Suggestions were made that such meetings should be planned, well-timed, reality-oriented, provide for follow-up, and include all categories of schools. Other recommendations referred to the use of available expertise and agencies as well as the exchange of ideas among the officers of different sub-systems of education.

Fifty percent of the respondents indicated that they had manuals for administering schools. There was therefore, a significant number of respondents who did not have manuals at their disposal. Further comments by the respondents pointed to the need for the manuals to be prepared by experts, to be detailed in coverage and to be made available for the respondents. It was also suggested that the existing guide needed updating,

and that official documents such as pieces of legislation and government notices be made available to the school principals. The last-mentioned inadequacies have implications for the teachers' sensitivity to sources of information which they could procure, share and if necessary, improve without much dependence on the initiative of the employing department.

Table 9.2(d): Responses of Principals on the Need for Administrative Skills (N= 332)

NATURE OF SKILLS	RESPONSE CATEGORY					
	Strongly Agree	Agree	Undecided	Disagree	Strongly Disagree	Total
The success of the school in its educational programme hinges on the administrative skills (technical, human and conceptual) of the principal.	181 (54,5%)	149 (44,9%)	2 (0,6%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	332 (100%)

Table 9.2(d) refers to item 2.8 of the questionnaire to the principals. The need for administrative skills for principals is almost unanimous. There were 99,4% of the respondents who supported the idea that principals

should have administrative skills to run schools. None of the respondents disagreed and only 0,6% were undecided. Possession of administrative skills is, therefore, viewed as a key to successful principalship. This point is also discussed in Section 6.3.4. The degree to which the respondents possessed the administrative skills is shown by their self-assessment as reflected in Tables 9.2(e), 9.2(f) and 9.2(g) below.

Table 9.2(e): Responses of Principals (according to age) on Perceived Level of Competence in Technical Skills (N= 332)

AGE OF RESPONDENTS IN YEARS	RESPONSE CATEGORY					
	Very high	High	Moderate	Low	None	Total
Under 30	2	3	2	0	0	7
30 - 39	17	32	57	11	0	117
40 - 49	16	25	37	4	0	82
50 - 59	25	43	35	0	1	104
60 -	16	4	2	0	0	22
Total	76	107	133	15	1	332
%	22,9	32,2	40,0	4,5	0,3	100

Table 9.2(e) reveals that 55,1% of the respondents perceived their level of competence in technical skills

as ranging from high to very high. The respondents who underrated their competence in technical skills constituted only 4,8% of the sample. With the exception of the group of respondents of 60+ years of age, very few subjects perceived their level of competence to be very high in technical skills. The 60+ age group of respondents reflects an ascending order in favour of superior competence level. This response trend does not seem to relate to age since other age groups reflect a descending order with a measure of fluctuation.

The response category "moderate" had the greatest frequency of the endorsements (40%). This suggests that most respondents regard themselves as average in respect of their understanding and application of rules and procedures. Such rating accords with disinclination to seek sources of information which would enhance performance in the application of rules and procedures.

Table 9.2(f): Responses of Principals (according to age) on Perceived Level of Competence in Human Skills (N= 332)

AGE OF RESPONDENTS IN YEARS	RESPONSE CATEGORY					
	Very High	High	Moderate	Low	None	Total
Under 30	1	6	0	0	0	7
30 - 39	30	51	35	1	0	117
40 - 49	19	45	18	0	0	82
50 - 59	45	40	19	0	0	104
60 +	16	4	2	0	0	22
Total	111	146	74	1	0	332
%	33,4	44,0	22,3	0,3	0	100

Table 9.2(f) shows that 77,4% of the respondents perceived their competence level to be very high in human skills. Twenty-two percent of the respondents admitted moderate competence level, whilst only 0.3% felt that they had low competence in human skills. It should be noted that in rating themselves in terms of human skills the subjects were making both a factual and a moral claim. The factual claim is that the respondent's competence which earned him/her a position of responsibility is an established fact. The moral claim is that it is not merely helpful but morally

appropriate to have human skills. To have less of this endowment is to be less human.

If one collapses the high-very high cells, the response trend reveals superior competence level across all age groups, and very few subjects endorsed the moderate response category. This indicates that the respondents have a high regard for their ability to work with people and that this ability does not depend on the age of the respondents. This further implies that respondents attach much value to human skills as a key to successful administration. This point is discussed further in Section 6.3.2.3.

Table 9.2(g): Responses of Principals (According to Age) on Perceived Level of Competence in Conceptual Skills (N= 332)

AGE OF RESPONDENTS IN YEARS	RESPONSE CATEGORY					
	Very high	High	Moderate	Low	None	Total
Under 30	-	2	3	2	0	7
30 - 39	7	29	52	29	0	117
40 - 49	8	23	39	12	0	82
50 - 59	7	29	40	28	0	104
60 +	-	-	12	8	0	22
Total	22	85	146	79	0	332
%	6,6	25,6	44,0	23,8	0	1,00

In Table 9.2(g) the response trend takes the opposite direction to Tables 9.2(e) and 9.2(f). The frequency of endorsement of response categories increases from the very high category to the moderate category. This occurs across all age groups. According to the table 23,8% of the respondents perceived themselves to be low in competence in conceptual skills, some 44% had moderate competence, and another 25,6% had high competence levels, and only 6,6% possessed superior competence levels. It seems that the respondents revealed a considerably high degree of objectivity in

assessing themselves with respect to conceptual skills.

Table 9.2(g) shows that age is not a determinant of one's competence level. The response trend appears to be related to lack of preparation of principals. Responses to items 2.1, 2.2 and 2.3 suggest that most respondents need preparation in order to be able to understand, judge, solve problems and to devise new and unique ideas.

In their comments the respondents stressed the importance and need for a course related to the development and promotion of the three types of administrative skills discussed. The respondents also emphasised the importance of such qualities as honesty, reliability, consideration, goal orientation, intelligence, approachability and desire for self-improvement. These attributes are also discussed in Section 6.3.2.3. Lastly, the respondents regarded lack of preparatory programmes for principals as a problem in education. Recommendations in this regard referred to the importance of a course in administration, induction programmes and seminars. The perceptions of the respondents in respect of preparation for administrative roles are shared by respondents at other

levels of educational administration in KwaZulu.

6.3.2.2 Preparation for Inspectorship

Table 9.3(a): Educational Level of Circuit Inspectors and their Perceived Need for a Course in Educational Administration, an Induction Programme and the Study of Textual Materials (N= 13)

INSPECTOR NO.	RESPONDENTS' QUALIFICATIONS	RESPONSE CATEGORIES (COMBINED)				
		Strongly Agree	Agree	Undecided	Disagree	Strongly Agree
1	Hons	3	0	0	0	0
2	M.Ed	3	0	0	0	0
3	B.Ed	2	1	0	0	0
4	M.Ed	3	0	0	0	0
5	1st Degree	0	3	0	0	0
6	1st Degree	3	0	0	0	0
7	Hons	2	1	0	0	0
8	B.Ed	2	1	0	0	0
9	1st Degree	3	0	0	0	0
10	M.Ed	0	3	0	0	0
11	B.Ed	3	0	0	0	0
12	1st Degree	0	3	0	0	0
13	M.Ed	3	0	0	0	0

Table 9.3(a) represents a consolidation of items 2.1, 2.2 and 2.3 which refer to a course in educational administration, an induction programme and the study of textuals materials on educational administration respectively (See Appendix C). The table shows that regardless of the inspector's educational level, the need for preparation for inspectorship is overwhelmingly supported. This applies to such forms of preparation as induction, attending relevant courses and reading appropriate texts. One hundred percent of the respondents supported the idea of preparation. The respondents were in favour of induction, study of administration and preparatory courses.

According to the investigation 15,4% of the respondents had undergone a course in educational administration, whilst 84,6% had not taken a course of this nature. From the 84,6% of the responses it would appear that the need for a course in educational administration is not being stressed and that if isolated attempts are being made, they have not reached an appreciable number. One hundred percent of the respondents suggested that a course in administration is essential, desirable or a good idea. A further discussion of this issue is conducted in Section 6.3.2.3.

Forty-six percent of the respondents reported that they had attended an induction programme for inspectors, whilst 54% indicated that they had not had such induction. However, although the majority seemed to know that no induction was being carried out, further responses (7,6%) revealed that "irregular" induction courses are given. This suggests that induction receives far less attention than is appropriate for the inspectors' assumption of their responsibilities. A large percentage of respondents (76,9%) suggested that an induction course be arranged for beginning inspectors. A further suggestion made was that inspectors be furnished with a clear role description. The last-mentioned suggestion implies that the method and objectives of the inspectors' tasks are not clear for some of them.

A large majority of respondents (84,6%) reported that inspectors do not engage in reading texts on educational administration. The remainder (15,4%) affirmed the reading of such materials. The responses, therefore, suggest that very few inspectors read texts on educational administration to equip themselves for their tasks. It was, however, asserted by all respondents that reading of texts on educational administration is essential, desirable or recommended.

It was further recommended that individual initiatives be encouraged alongside arrangements for collaboration with institutions of higher learning for in-service courses.

Table 9.3(b): Responses of Circuit Inspectors on Means of Preparation and Need for Preparation (N= 13)

AGENCY OF PREPARATION	RESPONSE CATEGORY					
	Strongly Agree	Agree	Undecided	Disagree	Strongly Disagree	Total
The employing department should offer a training programme for inspectors	9 (69,2%)	4 (30,8%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	13 (100%)
The inspectors in charge of the area (e.g. Circuit Inspector) should arrange for a preparatory programme for beginning inspectors	2 (15,4%)	7 (53,8%)	0 (0%)	4 (30,8%)	0 (0%)	13 (100%)

Table 9.3(b) shows that 100% of the respondents endorsed the responsibility of the employing department in offering training programmes for inspectors. Furthermore 69,2% of the respondents endorsed the

circuit inspector's responsibility in the arrangement for a preparatory course for beginning inspectors, whilst 30,8% of the respondents disagreed with the arrangement. A significant number of the respondents, therefore, favoured the department's intervention and the circuit inspector's initiative in preparing inspectors for their tasks. The responses support the view that a programme of preparation be designed for inspectors.

A total of 76,9% of the respondents indicated that the employing department does not have a programme for training inspectors, whilst 23,1% affirmed the existence of such a programme. These responses make it doubtful if 23,1% of the respondents referred to a real programme. Among the respondents who affirmed the existence of a programme for inspectors 5,4% referred to sporadic courses prepared by the employing department on specified functions. Further comments by the respondents (76,9%) suggested that a programme of preparation is necessary and that the employing department be involved in providing such a programme. A recommendation was also made that such a programme be worked out with the help of university institutions. This recommendation tallies with the suggestion regarding the inspectors' use of institutions of higher

learning as a resource for in-service development.

With regard to the involvement of the inspector in charge of the area, only 23,1% of the respondents stated that the circuit inspector arranged for a course of preparation for beginning inspectors. A total of 69,9% of the respondents stated that a course for inspectors be arranged from the head office. This recommendation acknowledges the need for central decision-making and co-ordination of activities. Other comments suggested that circuit inspectors would not have time for arranging courses and that their function should be to orientate beginning inspectors.

Table 9.3(c): Responses of Circuit Inspectors on the Need for Specific Administrative Preparation Activities (N= 13)

NATURE OF TASK	RESPONSE CATEGORY					
	Strongly Agree	Agree	Undecided	Disagree	Strongly Disagree	Total
Inspectors should attend seminars/ workshops on educational administration	8 (61,5%)	4 (30,8%)	1 (7,7%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	13 (100%)
Inspectors should have at their disposal manuals for conducting their work	9 (69,2%)	4 (30,8%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	13 (100%)

Table 9.3(c) shows that the responses in favour of preparation is overwhelming. Twelve respondents (92,3%) agreed that inspectors should attend seminars or workshops, whilst the remaining respondent was undecided. One hundred percent of the respondents supported the idea that inspectors need a manual for conducting their work. The responses suggest that there is a great need for exposure of inspectors to the knowledge about their work.

Of the total number of respondents 69,2% reported that they had attended seminars or workshops. The respondents who offered comments on such sessions stated that they were essential and beneficial, and that they should be conducted on a regular basis. Only 30,8% of the respondents indicated that manuals are available. The remaining percentage (69,2%) denied the existence or availability of such manuals. It is doubtful if such manuals exist and yet escape the attention of a large percentage of officers who should use them. Other comments from the respondents suggested that use be made of experts and retired inspectors to produce the manual for use by inspectors in the field. The use of seminars, workshops and manuals is, therefore, endorsed by a large majority of respondents as some of the means to enhance the role performance of inspectors.

Table 9.3(d): Responses of Circuit Inspectors on the Need for Preparation in Administrative Skills (N= 13)

TYPE OF SKILL	RESPONSE CATEGORY					
	Strongly agree	Agree	Undecided	Disagree	Strongly Disagree	Total
The success of the circuit in its educational programme hinges on the administrative skills (technical, human and conceptual) of the circuit inspector.	5 (38,5%)	6 (46,1%)	1 (7,7%)	1 (7,7%)	0 (0%)	13 (100%)

Table 9.3(d) reflects an overwhelming support for the circuit inspector's command of administrative skills. A total of 84,6% agreed that a link exists between the success of the educational programme within the circuit and the use of administrative skills by the circuit inspector. Only one circuit inspector disagreed while another was undecided. The respondents recommended that administrative skills be developed or promoted through reading and attendance at workshops and seminars. Further recommendations pointed to the need for training and induction of inspectors and the use of manuals prepared with the help of educationists.

Table 9.3(f): Responses of Circuit Inspectors (according to qualifications) on Perceived Level of Competence in Technical Skills (N= 13)

INSPECTOR NO.	RESPONDENTS' QUALIFICATIONS	RESPONSE CATEGORY			
		Very High	High	Moderate	Low/ None
1	Hons	0	0	1	0
2	M.Ed	0	1	0	0
3	B.Ed	0	0	1	0
4	M.Ed	0	0	1	0
5	1st Degree	0	0	1	0
6	1st Degree	0	0	1	0
7	Hons	1	0	0	0
8	B.Ed	0	1	0	0
9	1st Degree	0	1	0	0
10	M.Ed	0	1	0	0
11	B.Ed	0	0	1	0
12	1st Degree	0	0	1	0
13	M.Ed	1	0	0	0
	Total	2	4	7	0
	Percentage	15,4	30,8	53,8	0

Table 9.3(e) shows that 53,8% of the respondents perceived their competence level to be moderate in technical skills. The remaining percentage (46,2%)

perceived their competence level to be high or very high. Moderate competence level was endorsed with greater frequency by the subjects with junior degrees as compared to subjects with senior degrees. The moderate response category was endorsed by three quarters (75%) of the first degree holders, three fifths (60%) of the Honours and B.Ed degree holders combined, and one quarter (25%) of the M.Ed degree holders. This suggests that educational level influences one's perceived competence in technical skills.

Table 9.3(f): Responses of Circuit Inspectors (according to qualifications) on Perceived Level of Competence in Human Skills (N= 13)

INSPECTOR NO.	RESPONDENTS' QUALIFICATIONS	RESPONSE CATEGORY			
		Very High	High	Moderate	Low/ None
1	Hons	0	0	1	0
2	M.Ed	0	1	0	0
3	B.Ed	0	0	1	0
4	M.Ed	1	0	0	0
5	1st Degree	0	0	1	0
6	1st Degree	0	1	0	0
7	Hons	1	0	0	0
8	B.Ed	0	0	1	0
9	1st Degree	1	0	0	0
10	M.Ed	1	0	0	0
11	B.Ed	0	1	0	0
12	1st Degree	0	1	0	0
13	M.Ed	1	0	0	0
	Total	5	4	4	0
	Percentage	38,4	30,8	30,8	0

Table 9.3(f) shows that 69,2% of the respondents perceived their competence level as ranging from high to very high in human skills. This is the opposite to

the table on technical skills. The possible reason for this endorsement is discussed in Section 6.3.2.1. The high-very high response category was endorsed by three quarters (75%) of the first degree holders, two-fifths (40%) of the Honours and B.Ed degree holders, and all four respondents (100%) who are holders of M.Ed degrees. Except for Honours and B.Ed subjects, most respondents felt highly competent with regard to their human skills. One's educational level does seem to influence one's perceived competence in human skills, as shown by the more highly educated respondents.

Table 9.3(g): Responses of Circuit Inspectors (according to qualifications) on Perceived Level of Competence in Conceptual Skills (N= 13)

INSPECTOR NO.	RESPONDENTS' QUALIFICATIONS	RESPONSE CATEGORY			
		Very High	High	Moderate	Low/ None
1	Hons	0	0	1	0
2	M.Ed	0	1	0	0
3	B.Ed	0	0	1	0
4	M.Ed	0	1	0	0
5	1st Degree	0	0	1	0
6	1st Degree	0	1	0	0
7	Hons	1	0	0	0
8	B.Ed	0	0	1	0
9	1st Degree	0	0	1	0
10	M.Ed	0	1	0	0
11	B.Ed	0	1	0	0
12	1st Degree	0	0	1	0
13	M.Ed	0	1	0	0
	Total	1	6	6	0
	Percentage	7,7	46,15	46,15	0

Table 9.3(g) shows that 53,8% of the respondents perceived their competence level to be high or very high in conceptual skills. The remaining respondents

perceived their level of competence to be moderate.

The moderate response category was endorsed by three-quarters (75%) of the first degree holders and three-fifths of the Honours and B.Ed degree holders. None of the M.Ed degree subjects endorsed the moderate or lower response category. This shows that highly educated subjects perceived themselves to be highly competent in conceptual skills in comparison with subjects with junior degrees. There is also a remarkable similarity in the response trend with regard to technical and conceptual skills. This is to be attributed to the fact that both types of skills are based on the acquisition and transfer of knowledge.

6.3.2.3 Preparation for Administrative Roles at Head Office

Partially structured interviews were conducted among six senior officers of the Department of Education and Culture at the head office. Questions in this area were aimed at establishing the views and experiences which the respondents could bring forth about general preparation and specific preparation for the administrative roles in the successive positions they have held. Except for factual information relating to their work, the views given by the respondents in response to questions at the interviews were, in all

cases, their own.

The education officers were all very positive about the need for preparation for administrative roles. All six respondents endorsed a combination of learning and personal attributes. Two respondents stressed the importance of job-related experience in addition to relevant educational qualifications and personal qualities. The nature of relevant educational qualifications preferred by the respondents depended largely on how they perceived their tasks on the one hand, and their educational experiences on the other hand. For example, three respondents emphasised formal education in relation to the nature of their work. Two respondents stressed the importance of work experience in addition to degree and diploma qualifications in education. One respondent referred to the importance of personal attributes and education.

The respondents identified a variety of important personal attributes which they considered relevant to leadership roles. The first category of these attributes is the ability to do work which includes insight, initiative, intelligence, dependability and creativity. These qualities were cited in different combinations by five out of six respondents. The

respondents emphasised in varying degrees the importance of exposure to learning and one's desire for self-improvement, including enhancement of the attributes referred to. It should also be pointed out that these qualities from the key to the development of conceptual skills which are discussed in Sections 6.3.2.1 and 6.3.2.2.

The second category of attributes which the respondents identified could be referred to as a sense of purpose or direction. This category was endorsed by all six respondents as representing a set of leadership qualities. It includes vision, drive, ambition, dedication, diligence, planning-mindedness, sense of duty, responsibility and ability to predict results. From the discussion with the respondents it became clear that these were attitudinal characteristics which the respondents thought should be displayed by every person in a position of leadership in education, for example, school principal, circuit inspector, director or secretary. What came out clearly as a problem was the exact manner in which these qualities could be developed in an individual although this was regarded by the respondents endorsed the need for efficient and effective administration.

The third category of attributes had to do with human relations, namely, sense of belonging, team spirit, approachability, honesty and open-mindedness to ideas, experiences and suggestions. Five respondents identified the human relations skills as a deciding factor in the success of the head of a division or institution. According to two respondents a study of organisational theory could lead to an understanding and consciousness of the need "to be group-minded" and "to belong to people," as well as to develop "a flexible model of doing and looking." Discussions with the respondents established that the human relations skills have a compelling moral character as was mentioned in Section 6.3.2.1.

The respondents, therefore, emphasised the importance of personality traits for role incumbents. They also referred to education as a frame of reference. With regard to specific preparation for administrative roles the respondents differed in accordance with their education, experiential backgrounds and the nature of their respective tasks. Two respondents stressed the importance of formal qualifications relevant to administration. Of the two respondents one laid stress on organisational theory and experience in leadership whilst the other saw the need for an administration

qualification with a business flavour, as well as exposure to different environments. Two of the respondents regarded traditional mobility up the administrative ladder as being irrelevant to their task roles, inhibitory to requisite creativity, and likely to instil a fixed mind-set and bureaucratic mode of thinking. Three other respondents regarded a steady upward mobility as providing the necessary experiential background and exposure to work, which should be supplemented by in-service education programmes for all categories of officers. One of the respondents highlighted the significance of technical skills of project planning and monitoring which might be found lacking in incumbents in administrative positions.

Six respondents endorsed the idea of general and specific preparation for administrative roles. The nature of preparation was seen by the respondents to depend on the demands of the tasks and the corresponding vertical mobility. With regard to the current role of the employing department, three respondents referred to pre-service education for prospective teachers and study leave facilities for serving personnel. These responses suggest that teacher education and teaching experience are regarded as the basis for upward mobility along the

administrative ladder. Three other respondents did not want to comment on the current involvement of the Department in providing a specific programme for prospective incumbents in administrative posts. As regards the perceived role of the employing department, five respondents suggested that the role performance of the officers could be enhanced through the provision of in-service courses in administration and the use of outside expertise for the purpose. The responses further stressed in varying degrees the importance of individual initiative, decision making ability and personality as determining factors in one's occupational development and success in work performance on the one hand, and education as well as acquisition of relevant skills on the other hand. One respondent referred to the available opportunity for school principals to enrol for a training programme at the Natal Technikon for secondary school heads and Natal College for primary school heads. The respondent further referred to the need for the Department to reconsider the criteria for promoting officers.

6.4 Conclusion

The respondents in different categories supported the idea of preparation of personnel in administrative positions. This preparation is regarded as being the

responsibility of both the individual and the employing department or its agent. The respondents emphasised the importance of knowledge, administrative skills and the use by individuals of available opportunity for self improvement. The next chapter is a presentation, discussion and interpretation of responses regarding the work performance of the respondents.

CHAPTER SEVEN

7. WORK PERFORMANCE OF EDUCATION OFFICERS: PRESENTATION, DISCUSSION AND INTERPRETATION OF DATA

7.1 Introduction

Chapter Six dealt with the preparation of education officers for administrative roles and the respondents' replies, comments and disposition to preparation. This chapter deals with education officers at work. The first part of the chapter looks at the principals' involvement in teaching and administration. The second part deals with the roles of three categories of education officers in the process of administration. The tables and comments relating to the responses are discussed under specified sub-headings.

7.2 School Principals as Teachers and Administrators

The aim of the questions on teaching and administration was to elicit responses on the tasks which are associated with principalship at an average school in KwaZulu. The questions were designed to cover areas such as supervision, teaching load, care of school records and physical facilities, pupil welfare and liaison between the school principals and other education officers and interest groups.

Table 10.1(a): Principals' Responses to the Need for Supervision (N= 332)

NATURE OF TASK	RESPONSE CATEGORY					
	Strongly Agree	Agree	Undecided	Disagree	Strongly Disagree	Total
A principal should supervise the teaching activities of the staff (e.g. class visits, control of pupils' work and conferences with individual teachers)	197 (59,3%)	134 (40,4%)	1 (0,3%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	332 (100%)

Table 10.1(a) presents responses to item 3.1 of the questionnaire to principals. According to this table 99,7% of the respondents endorsed the need for the principals to supervise the teaching activities of staff. None of the respondents disagreed and only one principal was undecided. This shows the extent to which supervision is accepted as a task of the school head. This endorsement of supervision correlates with the ranking of this task as indicated in Section 7.4.1.

Thirty-three percent of the respondents reported that they find enough time to carry out supervision. The

responses suggest that most principals in KwaZulu do not have enough time to supervise teaching activities of the staff, irrespective of category of school. The respondents (48,9%) referred to classroom teaching as one of the reasons for the lack of sufficient time for carrying out supervision. Other respondents (30%) referred to their pre-occupation with other duties. Furthermore, the respondents recommended the creation of posts of heads of departments, increase in the size of the teaching personnel, and the appointment of clerical staff in schools. Supervision was endorsed by comments as an essential and valuable task which should be carried out in a planned, humane and non-threatening manner, and with emphasis on briefing, encouragement and correction.

With regard to teaching, the respondents suggested that the principal's duty load be restricted to administration, or be limited to one subject or eight teaching periods per week. There was, however, very little support for the principal's exemption from teaching, as compared to the argument in favour of the teaching example to be set by the school head. This is indicative of a generally favourable disposition to teaching among school principals. This inference is also supported by Table 10.1(b).

Table 10.1(b): Principals Responses to the Need for Principals to Teach (N=332)

NATURE OF TASK	RESPONSE CATEGORY					
	Strongly Agree	Agree	Undecided	Disagree	Strongly Disagree	Total
A principal should carry a teaching load (e.g. teach a subject, test and mark).	82 (24,7%)	149 (44,9%)	19 (5,7%)	61 (18,4%)	21 (6,3%)	332 (100%)

Table 10.1(b) presents responses to item 3.2 of the questionnaire to principals. According to this table 69,6% of the respondents agreed that a principal should carry a teaching load while 24,7% disagreed with the idea and 5,7% were undecided. This shows that most principals accepted a teaching load as part of their duties. A further response showed that 90,4% of the respondents carried a teaching load. It, therefore, appears that an overwhelming majority of school principals are subject teachers. The duties which were listed by the respondents who did not have a teaching load included supervision of teaching, control of lesson preparations, helping unqualified teaching personnel, and attending to other school duties.

The respondents' comments on the involvement of the principal in classroom teaching affirmed the need for the school head to know his pupils better on the one hand, and to set a good example to the teaching personnel on the other. Such involvement was considered to be consistent with the tasks of supervision and guidance. The emphasis on setting a good example explains why the respondents referred to the need for the principal to teach one examination or non-examination subject or to handle the highest class. The respondents who favoured the exemption of the principal from teaching, thought that it was necessary for him or her to devote more time to additional duties such as dealing with visitors, parents and education officers as well as arranging for meetings in the interest of the school.

Table 10.1(c): Principals Responses to the Need for the Care of School Property (N= 332)

NATURE OF TASK	RESPONSE CATEGORY					
	Strongly Agree	Agree	Undecided	Disagree	Strongly Disagree	Total
A principal should take personal care of school records (e.g. finance, stock, enrolment, correspondence and official documents.)	146 (44%)	156 (47%)	11 (3,3%)	14 (4,2%)	5 (1,5%)	332 (100%)
A principal should attend personally to the physical facilities (e.g. maintenance and procurement of ground, buildings, equipment and teaching material.)	90 (27,1%)	140 (42,2%)	23 (6,9%)	68 (20,5%)	11 (3,3%)	332 (100%)

Table 10.1(c) combines items 3.3 and 3.4 of the questionnaire to the principals. According to the table 91% of the respondents were in favour of the principal's personal care of school records while 5,7% disagreed and 3.3% were undecided. The table also shows that 69,3% of the respondents endorsed the principal's personal responsibility for physical

facilities, while 23,8% held the opposite viewpoint and 6,9% were undecided. A combined percentage of 80,1 of the respondents were in favour of the principal's care of school records and attention to physical facilities. The responses, therefore, suggested that there is general acceptance of the principal's task of attending to the school records and physical facilities. Ninety-three percent of the respondents reported that they take personal care of school records, and 81% reported that they attend personally to the physical facilities.

In commenting on the responsibilities of the principal the respondents referred to the importance of caring for the school records and attending to the physical facilities of the school. However a need was expressed for these duties to be delegated to the school staff, whilst the principal remains responsible for the proper execution of tasks and security of property. This concept of overall responsibility is related to the function of organising discussed in Section 7.3.2.

Table 10.1(d): Principals' Responses to the Need for Pupil Welfare (N= 332)

NATURE OF TASK	RESPONSE CATEGORY					
	Strongly Agree	Agree	Undecided	Disagree	Strongly Disagree	Total
A principal should devote attention to pupil welfare (e.g. attendance, interests, needs and problems.)	146 (44%)	142 (42,8%)	13 (3,9%)	31 (9,3%)	0 (0%)	332 (100%)

Table 10.1(d) presents responses to item 3.5 of the questionnaire to principals. According to the table 86,8% of the respondents acknowledged the need for the principal to attend to the welfare of pupils. Only 9,3% of the respondents disagreed with the idea, while 3,9% were undecided. This shows that pupil welfare is regarded as an important responsibility in the school enviroment. Out of 332 respondents 64,2% reported that they attend to pupil welfare. The respondents who answered in the negative cited time factor, under-staffing, size of enrolment, teaching load, other pressing duties and lack of relevant knowledge, as their reasons for not attending to this duty.

The comments of the respondents pointed to pupil welfare as an important responsibility of the school. It was also recommended that in addition to increases in staffing for teaching and administration purposes, schools need specialised staff such as nurses, counsellors and social workers to deal with certain needs and problems of pupils. The absence of such specialised staff from schools - according to this recommendation - means that the school is not in a position to deal with some personal and school-related problems besetting pupils.

Table 10.1(e): Principals' Responses to the Need for Liaison (N= 332)

NATURE OF TASK	RESPONSE CATEGORY					
	Strongly Agree	Agree	Undecided	Disagree	Strongly Disagree	Total
A principal should liaise regularly with the parents of the school (e.g. communicating and arranging meetings with them.)	181 (54,5%)	146 (44%)	5 (1,5%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	332 (100%)
A principal should liaise with educational interest groups (e.g. teachers' associations, economic and community organisations.)	139 (41,9%)	174 (52,4%)	15 (4,5%)	4 (1,2%)	0 (0%)	332 (100%)
A principal should keep regular contact with departmental inspectors.	174 (52,4%)	137 (41,3%)	18 (5,4%)	3 (0,9%)	0 (0%)	332 (100%)

Table 10.1(e) represents a consolidation of responses to items 3.6, 3.7 and 3.8 of the questionnaire to principals. The table shows that 98,5% of the

responses supported liaison with parents, none disagreed and only 1,5% were undecided. The principal's need for liaising with educational interest groups was supported by 94,3% of the respondents. Only 1,2% disagreed and 4,5% of the respondents were undecided. The table also revealed that 93,7% of the respondents supported contact with educational officers, while 0,9% disagreed with the idea and 5,4% were undecided. In total 95,5% of the respondents supported liaison and contact with the parents, education officers and educational interest groups. Only 0,7% of the respondents disagreed and 3,8% were undecided. This is indicative of the degree of importance attached to the involvement of parents, education officers and educational interest groups in the work of the school.

Further responses showed that 88,2% of the respondents affirmed the existence of liaison between them and parents, while 88,2% had liaison with other educational interest groups and 88,9% kept regular contact with departmental inspectors. Some of the respondents who did not have liaison with organisations outside the school expressed concern about conflicting affiliations and the turbulent social environment. Other respondents referred to lack of time and isolation of

schools in rural areas. The reasons which the respondents advanced for lack of regular contact with inspectors included the busy schedules of inspectors, long distances from circuit offices and lack of time.

The respondents regarded the liaison and meeting with parents as contributing to sound administration. They expressed the need for parent education and the establishment of parent-teacher associations. Other comments pointed out that liaison was not always successful as some parents tended to shirk their responsibility in respect of schooling of their children.

With regard to liaison with other educational interest groups the respondents recommended that working relationship be encouraged as part of school life. The neglect of schools in the rural areas was highlighted. Some respondents pointed out that liaison with community organisations might be a sensitive political issue which had to be approached with circumspection.

A significant number of respondents (34,9%) regarded contact with inspectors as helping in the exchange of ideas or information whilst other respondents (34,0%) looked upon such contact as an opportunity for solving

school-related problems. Some respondents recommended the procedure in terms of which inspectors would visit schools to offer advice and guidance instead of coming on a fault-finding mission. Some respondents attributed unsatisfactory contact to lack of interest on the part of inspectors or to remote location of certain schools in rural areas.

It would seem from the responses that teaching and administration are accepted as the tasks of the principal in KwaZulu. There was very little support for the separation of these responsibilities. Even the supporters of separation based their argument on the amount of work and inadequate staffing of schools for administration purposes.

7.3 The Process of Administration

The aim of the questions on the process of administration was to elicit responses on the manner in which the three categories of education officers, namely, principals, circuit and head office administrators attend to the functions of administration. The questions were designed to cover the following generic functions of administration: planning, organising co-ordinating, leading, staffing, controlling and evaluating.

7.3.1 Planning

7.3.1.1 School Principals

Table 10.2(a): Principals' Responses to the Need for Planning (N= 332)

NATURE OF TASK	RESPONSE CATEGORY					
	Extremely important	Very important	Somewhat important	Of little importance	Of no importance	Total
The principal and staff should plan school activities at the beginning of each year (e.g. curricular and extra-curricular activities)	165 (49,7%)	156 (47%)	11 (3,3%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	332 (100%)
The principal and staff should consult with interested parties (e.g. parents and inspectors) for the plan of school activities.	94 (28,3%)	175 (52,7%)	55 (16,6%)	4 (1,2%)	4 (1,2%)	332 (100%)

Table 10.2(a) combines responses to items 4.1 and 4.2 of the questionnaire to the principal. According to the table 96,7% of the respondents rated planning of school activities from very important to extremely

important, whilst the remaining percentage (3,3%) rated it as somewhat important. This indicates that planning of school activities is regarded as an essential duty of school personnel as well as an essential function of the school head. The table shows that 81% of the respondents rated consultation between the school personnel and interested parties as very important or extremely important for the planning process. A total percentage of 97,6 rated such consultation as somewhat important to extremely important, whilst only 2,4% of the respondents rated it as being of little importance or of no importance. The combined frequencies of ratings show that the respondents attached great significance to planning as well as consultation with interested parties.

Of the total number of respondents 92,2% reported that they work out a plan of activities at the beginning of each year. The main features of the plan of school activities were identified as follows by varying percentages of respondents:

Table 10.2(b): Main Features of the Plan of School Activities Identified by Principals

TYPE OF ACTIVITIES	NO. OF RESPONDENTS	PERCENTAGE
Extra-mural activities	149	44,9
Classroom teaching/scheming/ preparation	110	33,1
Task allocation	97	29,8
Tests and examinations	77	23,2
Tours/excursions	50	15,1
Staff meetings	37	11,2
School policy	34	10,2

As table 10.2(b) shows, extra-mural activities appeared to be the most important features of the school plan. This was followed by classroom activities which were given far less weighting than expected. School policy which broadly covers all the activities mentioned fell at the bottom of the list. The high rating of extra-mural activities is related to undue prominence which school teachers tend to give to such cultural side-lines as music, sporting activities and competitions. It is not unusual for a teacher in KwaZulu to refer to his or her involvement in inter-school music and sports activities from year to year, without concern for a comparable programme of professional development,

curriculum development or related efforts to influence education at the microscopic or macroscopic level.

The other school activities which were mentioned by isolated respondents as features of the school plan were staff development, committees to be set up and strategies for the new year. However, the enumeration of activities is not by itself evidence that planning takes the form of identifying the objectives to be achieved, determining the kinds of resources needed to achieve stated objectives, working out the manner in which the activities are to be sequenced to achieve the set objectives, and setting the time schedule to be followed.

The reasons advanced by the respondents who did not work out a plan of activities included problems of disruption or school unrest; clashes with the plan of the Department; understaffing, time constraints and lack of facilities. This of course does not mean that the respondents who reported on their planning did not experience the problems stated. Neither does it mean that planning depended on the absence of these problems. According to the comments, the respondents regarded planning as essential for providing a smooth start and as part of professional work. The

respondents stressed the need for planning to follow common pattern. It was also recommended that th appointment of new staff members be made timeously fo a smooth beginning to each year.

With regard to inputs into the plan of activities 67,2% of the respondents affirmed the existence of consultation between them and interested parties. The following table illustrates the means of consultation which were mentioned by the respondents:

Table 10.2(c): Procedures for Consultation with Interested Parties (Parents and Inspectors)

PROCEDURES	PERCENTAGE OF RESPONDENTS
Parents' meetings	27,7
Consulting/meeting with inspectors	24,0
Information sent to parents	19,9
School committee meetings	14,5

It appears from the table that parents' meetings and consultations or meeting with inspectors were identified as the major source of input into the plan of school activities. The school committee meetings, though likely to be more frequent, much easier to

convene and a more workable means of consultation with parent representatives, were apparently of less significance. Although information to parents was rated third as a source of input it had no clear connection with the process of planning. It is also striking that none of the suggested means of consultations commanded the frequency of responses that compared favourably with the percentage of respondents who affirmed the existence of some consultation. Other instances of information-giving which were mentioned in isolated responses included notification about school fund collection, school needs, sporting activities and outings, school functions, official opening and parents' day.

The respondents who did not have consultation with parents argued that parents had no interest in school matters. Some respondents stated that such consultation was not necessary, either because the staff managed adequately, or because the Department has not specifically provided for consultation, or because the inspectorate is expected to draw parents and other parties into the school's plan of activities. Other respondents reported that they either had never thought of such consultation or had not had time for it. It should, however, be noted that, as illustrated by Table

10.2(a), the negative attitude towards consultation represents the view of a fragile minority. Table 10.1(e) also shows that a combined frequency of 95,5% supported liaison and contact with parents, education officers and other educational interest groups.

According to some respondents, consultation facilitates planning and school work in general. The respondents recommended a more explicit role of parents as well as the use of the committee system to involve more parents in the functioning of the school.

7.3.1.2 Circuit Inspectors

Table 10.2(d): Circuit Inspectors' Responses to the Need for Planning (N= 13)

NATURE OF TASK	RESPONSE CATEGORY					
	Extremely important	Very important	Somewhat important	Of little importance	Of no importance	Total
The circuit inspector and his team should work out their plan of activities at the beginning of each year.	6 (46,2%)	7 (53,8%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	13 (100%)
The circuit inspector and team should assess the needs/problems of schools within the circuit as a basis for planning.	8 (61,5%)	5 (38,5%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	13 (100%)
The circuit inspector and team should consult with interested parties (e.g. principals) for the plan of activities of inspectorate	5 (38,5%)	8 (61,5%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	13 (100%)

Table 10.2(d) shows that 100% of the respondents rated planning of activites, assessment of needs or problems within each circuit, and consultation with interested parties as very important or extremely important. This endorsement reveals the degree of significance which is attached to the planning process. Eleven repondents (84,6%) affirmed their engagement in planning, twelve (92,3%) reported that they assess the needs or problems of schools as a basis for planning, and eleven (84,6%) affirmed their involvement in consultation with interested parties for planning purposes. Of the two respondents who did not involve themselves in planning, one referred to clashes betwen the need for planning at the circuit level and the instructions or assignments from the head office as the reason. The second respondent had not attended to planning although he thought it was useful. The respondents who reported on their involvement in planning referred to the following as the main features of their plan (Table 10.2(e):

Table 10.2(e): Main Features of the Plan of Activitie

Identified by Circuit Inspectors

TYPE OF ACTIVITIES	NO. OF RESPONDENTS	PERCENTAGE
In-service education for teachers	7	53,9
Election of school committees	4	30,8
Induction of new principals	3	23,1
Subject guidance	3	23,1
Upgrading of existing schools	2	15,4
Principals' meetings	2	15,4
Opening of new schools	2	15,4
Meeting with school committees	2	15,4
Tests and examinations	2	15,4
Ward inspectors' work	1	7,7
Orientation of unqualified staff	1	7,7
Guidance on inspectors' visits	1	7,7
Courses for invigilators	1	7,7
Review of previous year's work	1	7,7
Follow-up on inspection	1	7,7
Interviews of senior school officers	1	7,7
Motivating teachers	1	7,7
Regional Authority meetings	1	7,7

Table 10.2(e) shows the frequency with which each activity was mentioned as a feature of the plan of activities. As the table shows, in-service education for teachers was identified as the most important component of the plan. This was followed by the election of school committees. Induction of new principals and subject guidance were rated third. The frequency of responses does not show a significant weighting of activities which constitute a plan for a given number of respondents. For example, of the eighteen activities identified by the respondents, nine had a frequency of one (7,7%). Five activities were identified by two respondents (15,4%), two activities by three respondents (23,1%), one activity by four respondents (30,8%) and one by seven respondents (53,9%). The following figure shows the number of activities identified as items of the plan by each respondent:

Figure 4

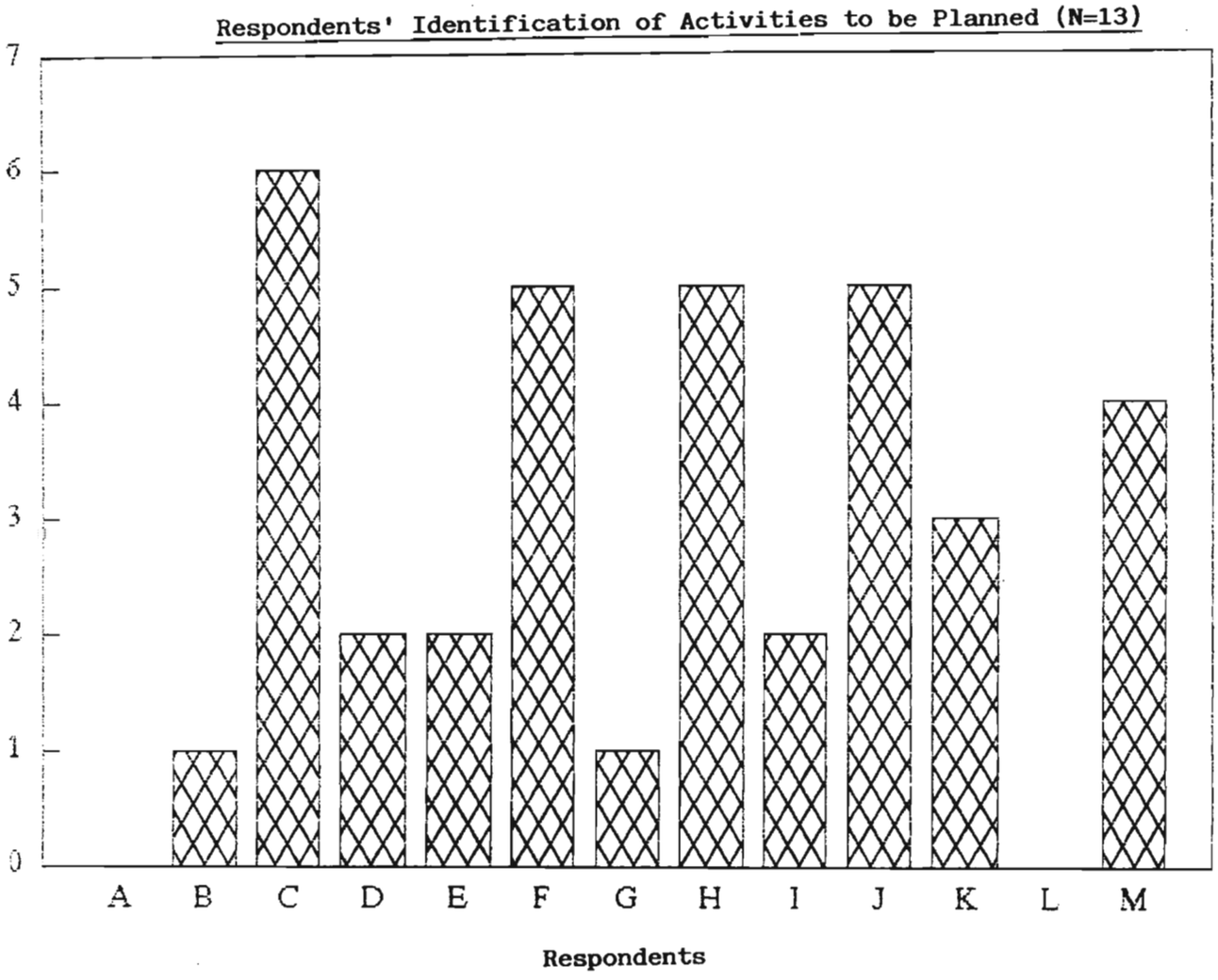

Respondents' Identification of Activities to be Planned (N=13)
7
6
5
4
3
2
1
0
A
B
C
D
E
F
G
H
I
J
K
L
M
Respondents

Figure 4 shows the number of activities each respondent has identified and incorporated in the planning at the beginning of the year. Although a total of eighteen activities were identified by the respondents combined, only one identified a maximum of six activities. Two respondents identified one activity each, and the rest of the candidates identified between two and five activities. It is not clear from the responses whether the activities identified formed part of the planning process, or they were mere tasks to be performed by the circuit office.

In commenting on planning the respondents endorsed consultation with interested parties and assessment of needs as essential, useful or important for facilitating work. Regular inputs from principals, assessment of circuit needs by principals, and consultation with school committees and committee members were regarded as matters for special consideration. The typical needs which the respondents thought called for consultation included staffing, classroom accommodation, teaching facilities and unrest.

7.3.1.3 Head Office Administrators

With regard to administration at the KwaZulu head office five out of six respondents reported on planning for their sections, regions or divisions. One respondent from regional management did not see the need to work out a plan. He found the work to have been distributed in such a way that he had to monitor what the circuit inspectors were doing. Accordingly, he found it appropriate to give guidance to circuit inspectors, to give them the latitude to design their plans and to discuss with them whatever they wanted to do, without imposing his will. According to this respondent, planning takes place at the circuit level and regional management entails guidance and monitoring. The second respondent from regional management affirmed his involvement in planning but stated that this planning was carried out with the circuit offices. According to this response planning entailed submission of circuit plans to the regional office on the 15th of every month, for the ensuing period; submission of itineraries, and suggestion of changes for streamlining activities. Both respondents looked upon planning as a process that takes place essentially at the circuit level. They, however, differed on the interpretation of their role in it.

The respondent from the academic planning section considered planning in the section to entail mainly project designing and consultation. Travelling to attend to curriculum matters and holding briefs on development projects, were cited as integral parts of consultation. The respondent pointed out that informing the community about the project and motivating people to support the venture helped the planning process. Pre-primary education was given as an example of a project which the respondent and co-workers had embarked on since the former's assumption of a new post. Planning referred to in this section does not take a comprehensive look at the educational service or system but focuses on an aspect of this where change or improvement is needed.

According to the respondent from the auxiliary services, planning in this section occurred at three levels, namely, macro-level, meso-level and micro-level. Planning at the macro-level is attended to by the Secretary and the top management every Tuesday of the week. The respondent also referred to monthly meetings which are held by the Minister, the Secretary, the heads of divisions and all heads of sections. The reports received from different sections were viewed as inputs into macro-planning. Planning at a meso-level

involved the respondent and five heads of sections with his division. The planning was facilitated by meetings held frequently, at times more than once a week. Planning at the micro-level involved the head of each section and the staff, and it required regular reporting to the head of the division. Planning at three levels reflects the concepts of centralisation of administration, division of labour, unity of command and team work. The respondent from the professional services described planning in this section as a process which focuses on the instructional programme on an on-going basis on the one hand, and inspection of circuits on the other hand. In this connection the respondent highlighted the felt need for the heads of regional management to look closely at the administration of their respective regions. The matters that merited attention included the work of ward inspectors, reports on schools problems experienced by pupils in certain subjects, teachers with teaching problems, arrangements for pupils with learning problems, in-service courses and follow-up, and collaboration between school teachers and college lecturers. According to the respondent planning had to do with devising strategies for dealing with the problems of administration, teaching and learning. This look at planning entailed redefinition of the work

of Assistant Directors as they understood it, and called for a purposeful look at educational work from the circuit level to the classroom.

The respondent from the secretariat looked upon planning as involving his office in the formulation of objectives, facilitation of in-service education, provision for micro-planning, participation in macro-planning and humanisation of administration. The respondent explained how important it was for the Department to formulate general objectives and for the sections to be encouraged to formulate their own objectives to answer the question: "Why are we here?" Facilitation of in-service education referred to arranging and providing for the use of seminars and related discussions for staff development. With regard to the provision for micro-planning, the respondent referred to the establishment of planning teams for the identification of educational needs and to eliminate the problem of private agendas. At the macro-level the office of the respondent would feature in synchronising and co-ordinating activities which, according to the respondent, included mainly staffing and the establishment of schools. Planned humanisation of administration according to the respondent involved improvement of procedures for appointment, obviation of

delayed payment of staff, curbing of frequent transfers and attending to physical facilities. The respondent viewed the work performed at the level immediately below his office as delegated duties of the secretary.

7.3.1.4 Conclusion

It should be clear from the responses that planning is regarded as an important function to be carried out by educational administrators at different levels. On the other hand this endorsement seems to be undermined by the casual manner in which the function is undertaken at the circuit and school levels. This contrasts with indications of meaningful involvement as revealed by responses from the head office administrators. This hiatus is bound to affect the performance of other functions and administration generally.

7.3.2 Organising

7.3.2.1 School Principals

Table 10.3(a): Principals' Responses to the Need of Organising (N= 332)

NATURE OF TASK	RESPONSE CATEGORY					
	Extremely important	Very important	Somewhat important	Of little important	Of no important	Total
The principal and staff should work out the manner in which the school work is to be distributed (e.g. curricular, extra-curricular and administrative assignments.	144 (43,4%)	262 (48,5%)	27 (8,1%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	332 (100%)
The principal and staff should arrange for staff members to take charge of different activities within their sphere of competence.	122 (36,8%)	199 (59,9%)	11 (3,3%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	332 (100%)

Table 10.3(a) shows that 81,9% of the respondents regarded the joint act of distributing work among the staff members as very important or extremely important.

Only 8,1% of the respondents regarded the procedure as of average importance. None of the respondents gave this process a lower rating. The table also shows that 96,7% of the respondents regarded the consideration of staff members' competence in the assignment of activities as very important or extremely important. Only 3,3% regarded this exercise as somewhat important. These responses show that school principals regard the function of organising as of great importance. Of the total respondents 86,8% reported that principals work out the distribution of activities and 86,5% affirmed the distribution of work according to the competence of staff members.

Some responses (43%) revealed that the procedure for the distribution of work entailed allocation on the basis of ability or experience. Other measures included convening a staff meeting for allocating work, establishment of committees, encouragement of voluntary offers, use of senior staff; consideration of staff preferences and distribution on the basis of previous arrangements. The preference for certain procedures

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Only 8,1% of the respondents regarded the procedure as of average importance. None of the respondents gave this process a lower rating. The table also shows that 96,7% of the respondents regarded the consideration of staff members' competence in the assignment of activities as very important or extremely important. Only 3,3% regarded this exercise as somewhat important. These responses show that school principals regard the function of organising as of great importance. Of the total respondents 86,8% reported that principals work out the distribution of activities and 86,5% affirmed the distribution of work according to the competence of staff members.

Some responses (43%) revealed that the procedure for the distribution of work entailed allocation on the basis of ability or experience. Other measures included convening a staff meeting for allocating work, establishment of committees, encouragement of voluntary offers, use of senior staff; consideration of staff preferences and distribution on the basis of previous arrangements. The preference for certain procedures

seems to depend on the principal rather than consultation between the principals and staff. The activities which the respondents allocated on the basis of competence included social activities, sporting activities, spiritual activities, literary activities, care of the school environment, school records, fund collection and discipline.

The respondents whose manner of distributing school activities was at variance with the manner described by the questionnaire referred to the principal's perception of his role, staff attitude and the problem of staffing. The disinclination to involve teachers in the process of allocating duties is based on the belief that principals can do allocation on their own. Some respondents reported that teachers tend to be diffident or lacking in interest, so that a principal might end up initiating decisions. The respondents also cited staff shortages and the problem of unqualified teaching personnel as the reasons for not always allocating work according to the individual's competence.

According to the respondents' comments the practice of involving staff in working out the manner of distributing work promotes creativity, productivity and a sense of responsibility. The respondents recommended

that principals be given guidance on the matter and that teachers be encouraged to participate. With regard to the use of demonstrated competence for allocating duties the respondents suggested that the practice brings harmony, makes the work smooth, and accelerates the use of individual talents. The problem of availability of opportunity for specialisation was, however, highlighted as a confounding factor in this exercise.

7.3.2.2 Circuit Inspectors

Table 10.3(b): Circuit Inspectors' Responses to Need for Organising (N= 13)

NATURE OF TASK	RESPONSE CATEGORY					
	Extremely important	Very important	Somewhat important	Of little importance	Of no importance	Total
The circuit inspector and team should work out the manner in which the work of the inspectorate is to be distributed among them.	6 (46,2%)	7 (53,8%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	13 (100%)
The circuit inspector and team should arrange for the members of the inspectorate to undertake activities which match their spheres of competence	4 (30,8%)	8 (61,5%)	1 (7,7%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	13 (100%)

Table 10.3(b) shows that 100% of the respondents endorsed team-work in the distribution of work among the members of the inspectorate. The table shows that 100% of the respondents regarded the joint act of distributing work among the members of the inspectorate

as very important or extremely important. On the other hand 92,3% of the respondents regarded staff members' competence in the allocation of tasks as very important or extremely important, whilst 7,7% regarded the exercise as somewhat important. The endorsement of a logical and democratic process of distributing work is an indication of the degree of acceptance of the function of organising in the execution of the work of the inspectorate. A total of twelve respondents (92,3%) affirmed their use of the team of inspectors to work out the manner in which the work is to be distributed. Eight respondents (61,5%) reported that they assign duties to team members according to the latter's competence. The procedure for the distribution of work by the respondents is illustrated by Table 10.3(c).

Table 10.3(c): Respondents' Procedure for Distributing Work (Circuit Inspectors)

TYPES OF PROCEDURES	NO. OF RESPONDENTS	PERCENTAGE
Meeting to discuss distribution	5	38,5
Distribution in the form of assignments	10	84,6
Designation of ward inspectors	7	53,9
Special assignments of school categories	7	53,9

According to Table 10.3(c), although the respondents endorsed team-work, the meeting to discuss the distribution of work does not feature prominently among the procedures for attending to the work. It seems the decision of the circuit inspector is important in determining how the work is to be distributed among the members of the inspectorate. The activities which the respondents identified included inspection in each ward, in-service education programmes for school personnel and extra-mural activities. The examples of duties assigned according to the competence of individual inspectors included inspection of school subjects by academically qualified inspectors, guidance of categorised schools by designated inspectors, and

the use of inspectors to lead subject committee meetings, seminars and in-service courses.

The respondents regarded the practice of working with a team of inspectors in the distribution of work as an essential and fair arrangement. They also recommended specialisation in different tasks and regretted the problems experienced with regard to under-staffing, use of generalist inspectors and lack of inspectors with diverse interests.

7.3.2.3 Head Office Administrators

With regard to regional management, one respondent discredited participation in the process of distributing work. He regarded the distribution of work in his region as a standing arrangement, requiring the head of the region to monitor the execution of such work. Another respondent reported that he did not have to help distribute the work as such, but was involved in the planning and execution of activities within his region.

The respondent from the academic planning section affirmed the existence of a practice according to which work is distributed among the members of the section. According to the respondent assignment of duties to

staff and identification of needs for collaboratio with outsiders, were important aspects of the functio of organising within the section. The specific task enumerated by the respondent were computer literac projects, school curricula, upgrading of colleges commercial and technical education projects, admissio of college students to teacher education and teacher upgrading programmes, and collaboration wit institutions and bodies which have interest in th matters of the section.

The respondent from the auxiliary services pointed ou that the work of the division is already distribute with clearly defined jobs for different sections According to the respondent, what sometimes needed t be attended to was redefinition of existing roles t improve performance. The respondent from th professional services also regarded the distribution o work in his division as an accomplished fact. H conceived of his task as supervision of activities an the consideration of reports on the work done in hi division. The respondent from the secretariat looke upon the work of two main divisions as delegate responsibilities from his office. He described hi task as mainly a representative one in terms of whic he was finally accountable for what went on in the tw

divisions. The two divisions themselves provided the organisational context within which the specific tasks of the Department had been allocated for execution.

7.3.2.4 Conclusion

The responses indicated that the organising function represented by allocation of duties is carried out in a fairly similar manner by educational administrators at different levels. This confirms the general application of the functions. On the other hand it seems that the function may as well be taken for granted and consequently be carried out with little or no effort. For example, the process entails building a structure of relationships as well as identifying and allocating duties to be performed as best as possible. But for some officers it may simply mean issuing instructions to subordinates to perform duties as expected.

7.3.3 Co-ordinating

7.3.3.1 School Principals

Table 10.4(a): Principals' Responses to Need for Co-ordinating (N= 332)

NATURE OF TASK	RESPONSE CATEGORY					
	Extremely important	Very important	Somewhat important	Of little importance	Of no importance	Total
The principal and staff should arrange for staff to be kept informed about what other staff members are doing in their respective tasks.	114 (34,3%)	172 (51,9%)	34 (10,2%)	12 (3,6%)	0 (0%)	332 (100%)
The principal and staff should discuss Departmental policy, procedures and regulations	107 (32,3%)	190 (57,2%)	24 (7,2%)	7 (2,1%)	4 (1,2%)	332 (100%)

Table 10.4(a) shows that 96,4% of the respondents regarded the exchange of information among the school

staff as important. Whilst 86,2% of the respondents rated the exchange of information as very important or extremely important, only 3,6% of the respondents regarded it as of little importance. The table also shows that 96,7% of the respondents regarded discussion of Departmental directives among the members of the school as important. Out of this figure 89,5% rated this discussion as very important or extremely important. Only 3,3% rated such a discussion as of little or no importance. The responses show the extent to which the sharing of information is accepted by school principals for directing and relating activities of the school staff. Further responses suggested that 80,7% of the respondents arrange for relay of information among staff members about their respective tasks whilst 75,9% reported that they hold discussions on policy, procedures and regulations.

The procedure which the respondents cited in regard to the relay of information included staff meetings, reports on progress made, reports on courses attended, information on achievement of good work, subject meetings, reports of convenors of committees, discussion of examinations and formal or informal contacts. The respondents also reported that discussions of Department policy, procedures and

regulations have been helpful in clarifying matters of conditions of service, discipline, collection of funds, teachers' pledges or obligations, school curricula, teacher's appearance and deportment, education acts and regulations relating to them. The respondents who did not provide for the exchange of information attributed the problem to lack of interest on the part of teachers, lack of co-operation among staff members, and lack of time. With regard to the discussion of Departmental directives, some respondents felt that such discussion was a sensitive political matter, whilst others had not had time to discuss them, or had not thought of it, or had assumed that teachers could read these on their own.

The respondents who commented on the exchange of information among the staff members regarded it as a desirable practice for motivating staff, for encouraging hard work; for promoting understanding, and for eliminating problems. With regard to the discussion of Departmental directives, the respondents suggested that important information be made available through regular meetings with senior education officers as well as through the direct supply of relevant documentation from the Department. A comment was made on the role of a teachers' association in informing

members of Departmental directives on the one hand and in shaping the policy, procedures and regulations on the other hand. All comments and suggestions pointed to the need for the clarification of expectations to avoid problems and to improve performance. The respondents endorsed the importance of the function of co-ordinating the work of the school staff.

7.3.3.2 Circuit Inspector

Table 10.4(b): Circuit Inspectors' Responses to Need for Co-ordinating (N= 13)

NATURE OF TASK	RESPONSE CATEGORY					
	Extremely important	Very important	Somewhat important	Of little importance	Of no importance	Total
The circuit inspector and team should arrange for members to be informed about what colleagues are doing in their respective tasks.	3 (23,1%)	9 (69,2%)	1 (7,7%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	13 (100%)
The circuit inspector and team should devote sufficient time to discussion with school principals of department policy, procedures and regulations.	5 (38,5%)	8 (61,5%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	13 (100%)
The circuit inspector should keep in touch with other departmental officials (e.g. other circuit inspector and seniors).	5 (38,5%)	7 (53,8%)	0 (0%)	1 (7,7%)	0 (0%)	13 (100%)

Table 10.4(b) reveals that 100% of the respondents regarded exchange of information among the members of the inspectorate as important. A large percentage (92,3%) of the respondents rated the exchange of information as very important or extremely important. One hundred percent of the respondents gave high rating to discussion of Department directives, whilst 92,3% of the respondents assigned high rating to contact among the officials of the Department. Only one respondent regarded the said contact as being of little importance. The responses show the amount of significance attached by the respondents to communication among circuit inspectors and co-ordination of activities within an inspection circuit. Six (46,2%) respondents reported sharing information among their team members, ten (76,9%) referred to their practice of involving principals in the discussion of Departmental directives, and 13 respondents (100%) reported that they had contact with other Departmental officers. On the whole these responses show a marked discrepancy between the respondents' desired interaction within circuits and what they have been able to accomplish.

The respondents referred to occasional meetings as the means of relaying information among the members of the

inspectorate. With regard to policy, procedure and regulations, Table 10.4(c) shows instances where, according to the responses, discussions with principals have been helpful.

Table 10.4(c): Instances of Discussion with Principals

SUBJECT FOR DISCUSSION	NO. OF RESPONDENTS	PERCENTAGE
Discussion of new syllabuses	1	7,7
Unrest in school	5	38,5
Promotion/advancement procedure	1	7,7
Financial administration	2	7,7
Promotion of pupils	1	7,7
Replacing unqualified personnel	1	7,7
Completion of official forms	1	7,7
Staff relations at school	1	7,7
Guidance to principals	3	23,1

According to Table 10.4(c), discussion on unrest in schools have been the most frequent. Discussions have probably been held to devise strategies for dealing with the problem at circuit level. The researcher is aware that before 1989 no policy or procedure existed for dealing specifically with an unrest situation in

KwaZulu. In 1989 the Department of Education and Culture arranged for the establishment of Education Liaison Committees, each composed of the Circuit Inspector, the local member(s) of the Legislative Assembly, the local amakhosi, the school principals and the local township managers.

Other important matters identified by the respondents, namely, guidance to principals, financial administration and so on, illustrate the co-ordinating role which each circuit inspector could play in his circuit. However, the frequencies of responses do not show that the instances of contact with school principals were of general importance to circuit inspectors. In most cases only one respondent cited a matter for discussion. With regard to contact between the circuit inspector and his equals, the respondents identified matters which bring them together. Table 10.4(c) gives a list of instances of contact.

Table 10.4(d): Instances of Contact among Circuit Inspectors

INSTANCES OF CONTACT	NO. OF RESPONDENTS	PERCENTAGE
Panel inspection at inter-circuit level	6	46,2
Regional meetings	4	30,8
Occasional seminars	3	23,1
Meetings called by Department	3	23,1
Commission of Inquiry/ Interviews	3	23,1
Arranging transfer of teachers	1	7,7
Annual conference of teachers	1	7,7
Annual conference of inspectors	1	7,7
School unrests	1	7,7

Table 10.4(d) reflects matters which do not necessarily rest on the discretion of each respondent. They are either initiated from above for a given group of inspectors or emerge as mandatory duties to be attended to. According to the table, panel inspection had the highest frequency of responses. This is understandable if one considers that panel inspection is the most common procedure for large-scale periodic assessment of

schools in an inspection circuit by an inter-circuit team of inspectors. Other notable instances of contact identified by the respondents, namely, regional meetings, occasional seminars, meetings called by the Department, and inquiry or interviews sessions, do not depend on the initiative of the circuit inspector. Although 92,3% of the respondents rated the need to keep contact (See Table 10.4(b)) as very important or extremely important, there is no clear indication from the examples given that this contact is in fact initiated at the circuit level by any one of the respondents.

The respondents who commented on the exchange of information among colleagues within the circuit regarded it as a helpful practice that should be encouraged even by way of bringing inspectors into contact with education officers of other sub-systems of education. Discussion with principals was also regarded by the respondents as desirable or essential in helping principals who need guidance, as well as in setting the standard of work expected of every school. The respondents viewed regional meetings as an important means of keeping circuit inspectors in contact with one another. The comments, therefore, show that the respondent endorsed the function of co-

ordinating at circuit and regional levels.

7.3.3.3 Head Office Administrators

The respondent from the head office acknowledged the need for subordinates in their division, section or region, to be kept informed about what their colleagues do in their respective tasks. Both respondents from regional management referred to regular meetings which are held with circuit inspectors in each region, and occasional meetings with inspectors to discuss new developments and other important matters of policy, strategy and needed action. One of the respondents also pointed out that relay of information was made possible through visits to circuits, discussions and encouragement of consultation. Respondents from the secretariat, professional services, auxiliary services and academic planning, all referred to regular meetings, discussions and reports on activities for purposes of co-ordinating work and monitoring progress in their respective divisions or sections.

The head office respondents identified the kinds of liaison which each respondent had established with structures in KwaZulu or outside. The respondent from regional management reported on collaboration with their colleagues for joint projects as well as for

attending to the needs and problems that had arisen. For example, one respondent referred to a case of crisis intervention when contact had to be established with certain officials of the regional directorate for the Department of Education and Training (DET), to deal with school unrests.

The respondent from academic planning identified four instances of liaison with the section inside and outside KwaZulu. The response revealed that liaison at the head office involved,

(a) Four sections of the auxiliary services division, namely, physical planning, psychological services, library services and examinations.

(b) Staff section, which is concerned with salary payment and staff up-grading, and

(c) Regional management, for attending to certain projects, for book requisitions and for getting in touch with inspection circuits.

The respondent also referred to the established liaison with DET through the Committee on Teacher Education, Committee of Heads of Education and Council of Ministers of Education.

According to the respondent from the auxiliary services, liaison between the division and other units occurred at the head office. The liaison took the form of professional support as well as of meetings to clarify the span of control and amount of responsibility for certain projects. The respondent from the professional services identified five instances of liaison inside and outside KwaZulu. The response revealed that liaison at the head office involved,

(a) Staff section A for salaries and teachers' appointments;

(b) Staff section B for inspectors' appointments;

(c) Transport section for matters of travel, and

(d) Community-based Education Liaison Committees referred to earlier on, for dealing with school unrest and related problems.

The respondent referred to his special assignment in respect of university education and the advanced stage of negotiation with Vista University for the establishment of a branch in the Northern Natal area.

The respondent from the secretariat referred to the liaison at the head office as well as through DET in Pretoria. According to the response, liaison at the head office occurs through the meetings held on the

first Monday of each month for all secretaries of departments to discuss such matters as use of vehicles, salaries, and subsidised transport. With regard to liaison through DET the respondent referred to meetings with national states' secretaries for education under the chairmanship of DET's Director-General, to carry out certain decisions.

The responses, therefore, revealed that discussion and relay of information take place among different divisions, sections and regions as well as within each unit of the Department of Education and Culture in KwaZulu. In both instances the purpose is to lead, to co-ordinate activities, to keep contact, to monitor progress and to keep people informed. The responses also showed that the exchange of information is extended to liaison with officers and structures outside KwaZulu.

7.3.3.4 CONCLUSION

The responses supported the act of co-ordinating activities through exchange of information, clarification of directives, keeping of contact and reporting on progress and achievement. The respondents referred to instances of directing and relating activities to facilitate the work of education officers. This showed that co-ordination is recognised as an essential function.

7.3.4 Leading

7.3.4.1 School Principals

Table 10.4(e): Principals' Responses to Need for Leading (N= 332)

TASK OF PRINCIPAL	RESPONSE CATEGORY					
	Extremely important	Very important	Somewhat important	Of little importance	Of no importance	Total
A principal should arrange for induction of new members of staff.	115 (34,7%)	191 (57,5%)	23 (6,9%)	3 (0,9%)	0 (0%)	332 (100%)
A principal should have sessions with individual teachers to discuss professional matters (e.g. classroom activities, personal needs, development and responsibility).	148 (44,6%)	159 (47,9%)	21 (6,3%)	2 (0,6%)	2 (0,6%)	332 (100%)

Table 10.4(e) shows that 99,1% of the respondents regarded induction of members of staff as important. Of these respondents 92,2% rated the practice as very important or extremely important. Less than one percent (0,9%) of the respondents regarded induction of

new members of staff as being of little importance. The table also shows that 99,4% looked upon the principals' discussion of professional matters with individual teachers as important. Of these respondents 92,5% regarded such discussions as very important or extremely important. Only 1,2% of the respondents rated professional discussion as being of little or no importance. The responses suggested that staff induction and professional guidance which are subsumed under the leading function, are acknowledged as important responsibilities of the principal. Further responses revealed that 72,2% of the respondents affirmed their engagement in the induction of new staff whilst 80,4% indicated that they held discussions on professional matters.

The procedure for induction was outlined by certain respondents (37,7%) to include guidance or orientation or giving information with regard to Department directives, conditions of service, attitude to work or human relations. Another group of respondents (23,2%) cited the introduction of new staff members as part of the induction process. Isolated responses referred to instances such as class visits and discussions, demonstration lessons, use of the mentor system and encouragement of consultation. These practices reflect

lack of standard procedures for inducting new staff members and the fact that a principal may do what is deemed fit if and when it is deemed necessary. With regard to the discussion of professional matters with individual teachers, the respondents cited examples of consultation on class-room teaching (38,6%), teaching problems (31%), upgrading of qualifications (16,6%) and participation at staff meetings (24,7%). Other responses referred to discussion of pupils' needs, helping beginning teachers, identification of professional needs, sharing ideas, counselling and professional responsibility.

According to the responses, the principals engage in a variety of activities to provide induction and other forms of professional guidance to teachers. This is the manner in which the leading function is exercised by the principal with respect to teachers. The respondents whose activities did not include induction of new teachers reported that they had not thought of it or had no knowledge of, or time for, it. Other respondents stated that induction or orientation by the principal was not necessary. They regarded this activity as the task of experienced teachers, inspectors or of the teachers' organisation. As regards discussion of professional matters the

respondents who did not provide guidance to teachers reported that they had not thought of it or had no time for it. Other respondents thought that it was not necesary since the staff could benefit from staff meetings.

The comments on induction pointed to the need for a set procedure, the preparation of principals for performing the induction process, the enlistment of the services of inspectors and the teachers' organisation, and the use of the mentor system. On the question of discussion of professional matters, the respondents pointed out that such discussion could rouse conscience, solve problems, improve human relations, raise the standard of work, motivate staff for study and groom prospective principals.

7.3.4.2 Circuit Inspectors

Table 10.4(f): Circuit Inspectors' Responses to Need for Leading (N= 13)

NATURE OF TASK	RESPONSE CATEGORY				
	Extremely important	Very important	Somewhat important	Of little/ No importance	Total
A circuit inspector should arrange for induction of newly appointed teachers (e.g new principals and beginning teachers).	6 (46,15%)	6 (46,15%)	1 (7,7%)	0 (0%)	332 (100%)
A circuit inspector should provide guidance to school teachers regarding educational and organisation matters.	4 (30,8%)	7 (53,8%)	2 (15,4%)	0 (0%)	332 (100%)
A circuit inspector should help teachers in his circuit to pursue self-development.	4 (30,8%)	8 (61,5%)	1 (7,7%)	0 (0%)	332 (100%)

According to Table 10.4(f) 100% of the respondents regarded induction, guidance and professional help given to all school teachers as important. The table shows that twelve (92,3%) respondents regarded these tasks as very important or extremely important. This is an indication of the significance which the circuit inspectors attribute to their educational leadership role in the circuits. Further responses suggested that twelve (92,3%) respondents engaged in the induction of teachers; eight (61,5%) stated they offer professional guidance to teachers and ten (76,9%) respondents reported that they advise teachers on professional self-development.

With regard to the procedure for induction the respondents referred to sessions with principals (23,0%), unqualified teaching personnel (7,7%) and all new teachers (30,8%). For some respondents (38,5%) the induction process involved orientation to teaching, namely, methods of teaching, work programme and lesson planning. Some respondents (30,8%) considered induction of school teachers as a task that should also involve ward inspectors and subject advisors. However, inspite of the overwhelming endorsement of the importance of induction, there was no indication that a set procedure for induction exists. It seems each

circuit inspector who subscribes to the idea decides on what to do, when to do it and how to do it.

The respondents who affirmed their involvement in the provision of professional guidance to teachers, reported that such guidance is given to principals (23,0%) and teachers (7,7%) at meetings convened for the purpose. Other respondents referred to professional guidance as an assignment given to ward inspectors (23,0%) at circuit level and to principals at school level. With regard to the teachers' professional development, the respondents referred to their motivation of teachers to upgrade their qualifications by announcements at meetings (53,9%), by using school principals (38,5%), by circulars to that effect (7,7%), by urging teachers during inspection visits (7,7%), and by helping in the opening of adult education centres for standard 10 (7,7%). There is, therefore, an indication that the respondents are involved in varied ways and to varying degrees in the professional guidance and development of teachers in their circuits.

The respondent who answered in the negative in respect of involvement in the induction of teachers, reported that he was not yet attending to the activity,

although he regarded it as useful. The respondents who did not play roles in the professional development of teachers ascribed the problem to understaffing at circuit offices, lack of time and lack of experts to conduct relevant seminars. According to the comments on induction, the practice was regarded by the respondents (76,9%) as an imperative, essential or useful exercise. The respondents recommended that the process be well-planned, be of sufficient duration, and provide for follow-up. Professional guidance of teachers was commended as a good idea (53,9%), to be implemented systematically (7,7%). The respondents (53,9%) also viewed professional self-development of teachers as important for the circuit inspectors to encourage. In this respect certain priorities were identified, namely, attention to teachers in remote rural areas; certification of long-service unqualified teaching personnel and the balance between self-application to duty and upgrading of qualifications.

7.3.4.3 Head Office Administrators

The head office respondents showed in their responses that the performance of tasks in their units depends on the guidance they provide. According to the respondents regional management meetings, individual and group consultations with circuit officers, as well

as circulars to circuit offices, enable the regional management officers to provide guidance to circuit offices. One respondent referred to visits to inspection circuits as an alternative way of providing the necessary guidance. From the point of view of the respondent from academic planning, the place of leading lies in the orientation of new members of the section and in giving guidance to junior staff to take correct action and to care for the facilities.

The respondent from the auxiliary services saw participatory leadership as appropriate for the leading process in his division. This was described to entail discussion with the heads of sections, the articulation of the Director´s perceptions and responses thereto by section heads, and constant communication to establish if the heads are happy with their sections. The respondent from the professional services referred to communication by means of circulars to guide officers in his division regarding the administration of circuits, schools, testing and examinations, and the use of transport. The respondent viewed these matters more as personal concerns than areas in which singular guidance had to be exercised in his division. The respondent from the secretariat expressed preference for participatory leadership in terms of which

discussions would be held at meetings to give advice to heads of divisions and to welcome suggestions regarding the administration of education as a whole.

The head office respondents gave varied comments on their performances of the leading function. With regard to regional management, concern was expressed about the problem of communication by means of circulars which sometimes took long to reach their destination or are reported to have been lost in the post. This, according to respondents, makes it imperative for other means of contact to be used, namely, personal visits or telephone. The respondent from the academic planning section emphasised the importance of remunerative power which the section head could exercise to motivate the members of staff by dwelling on their strong points as well as by referring to what should have been done. The respondent from the auxiliary services stressed the importance of a professional disposition as reflected in one's culture of work, including punctuality, order, dressing, decorum, attending to respondents and dealing with subordinates. The respondent from the professional services referred to problems of responses to circulars, in particular officers who are slow in responding or respond only in part.

The respondent from the secretariat viewed his working relationship and the leading function in which he is involved to be a satisfactory arrangement.

7.3.4.4 Conclusion

The responses from the schools up to head office show that there is a need for staff guidance in the form of induction, orientation, advice, information, motivation, support and discussion. There is also an indication that this leading function is performed on the basis of what the line officer in charge deems fit. This explains why there are differences in responses in respect of what each officer perceives as the need for guidance, and the resultant nature of guidance provided.

7.3.5 Staffing

7.3.5.1 School Principals

Table 10.4(g): Principals' Responses to Need for Staffing

NATURE OF TASK	RESPONSE CATEGORY					
	Extremely important	Very important	Somewhat important	Of little importance	Of no importance	Total
A principal should be responsible for staffing at his school (e.g. recommending post and post structure, selection and recommendation of incumbents).	161 (48,5%)	147 (44,3%)	20 (6,0%)	4 (1,2%)	0 (0%)	332 (100%)
A principal should have a role to play in the determination of a staffing formula regarding schools in his educational system (e.g. post structure based on the category and size of school).	135 (40,7%)	158 (47,6%)	22 (6,6%)	12 (3,6%)	5 (1,5%)	332 (100%)

Table 10.4(g) reveals that 98,8% of the respondents regarded the principal's role in staffing at his school

as important. Of these respondents 92,8% rated the principal's role as very important or extremely important. Only 1,2% of the respondents regarded the principal's role as being of little importance. The table also shows that 94,9% of the respondents endorsed the importance of the role of the principal in determining the staffing formula for schools in his educational system. Out of this number of respondents 88,3% regarded the principal's involvement as very important or extremely important, whilst 5,1% regarded such involvement as of little importance or of no importance. The responses show that the principal has a significant role to play in descerning the staffing needs at school as well as in giving advice as regards the satisfaction of such needs in his educational system.

Further responses suggested that 62,7% of the respondents had a role to play in staffing their schools, whilst 28% reported that they had an opportunity to determine the staffing formula for schools. With regard to involvement in the staffing of schools the respondents cited the allocation of duties to incumbents of posts (38,6%), consultation with circuit inspectors in connection with staffing (34,6%), and requesting the circuit inspector to use his office

for the purpose (30,4%). Other activities included the advertisement of existing posts and discussion of staffing needs with school committees. As far as the determination of the staffing formula was concerned, the respondents did not cite evidence of meaningful involvement. The responses referred to the application for new classes and new posts; submission of requisition or application for staff with stipulation of qualifications required, and supply of statistical information by means of quarterly and annual returns.

Some of the respondents (26,8%) who did not play an active role in staffing their schools considered this function to be the prerogative of the circuit inspector. Other responses suggested that the principal had no chance since the circuit inspectors imposed their will. Three respondents (0,9%) referred to instances where unsuitably qualified teachers were sent from the circuit offices to fill vacancies. However, there is no indication that the principals have established their exact role in staffing. It has been observed that some principals depend on the circuit inspectors for finding suitably qualified teachers from the applicants who approach the circuit offices. In another instance it seems a perception has developed that circuit inspectors decide on who

should be recommended for appointment. In the absence of meaningful consultation the principals may have lost out on what they should be doing, namely, advertising posts, recruiting and recommending candidates for appointment.

According to the comments of the respondents (26,2%) staffing of schools was acknowledged as the duty of school principals. Twenty percent of the respondents recommended that interviews be held for all incumbents to teaching posts. Other comments pointed out that staffing should be done carefully, that there was a need for close co-operation between principals and circuit inspectors, and that careful attention be given to appropriate qualifications for teaching posts. With regard to the determination of the staffing formula, some respondents (33,4%) recommended that school principals should play a significant role. One respondent referred to what he called an instance of "gross unfairness" in a circuit where one school had an enrolment of 2000 pupils and a teaching staff of 24, whilst another school with an enrolment of 600 pupils had a teaching staff of 36. Whilst the alleged discrepancy sounds extreme, it nonetheless highlights the need for a staffing formula.

7.3.5.2 Circuit Inspectors

Table 10.4(h): Circuit Inspectors' Responses to Need for Staffing (N= 13)

NATURE OF TASK	RESPONSE CATEGORY				
	Extremely important	Very important	Somewhat important	Of little/ No importance	Total
The circuit inspector and team should conduct surveys on staffing requirements for schools.	6 (46,15%)	6 (46,15%)	1 (7,7%)	0 (0%)	13 (100%)
A circuit inspector should have a role to play in the determination of a staffing formula regarding schools in his educational system (e.g. posts and post structure based on the category and size of school).	6 (46,2%)	7 (53,8%	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	13 (100%)

Table 10.4(h) shows that 100% of the respondents regarded the circuit inspector's role in assessing the staffing requirements for schools as important. Of these respondents 92,3% rated the exercise of this role

as very important or extremely important. According to the table 100% of the respondents attach great importance to the circuit inspector's role in the determination of a staffing formula regarding schools. These responses acknowledge the circuit inspector's task in providing for adequate schooling in his circuit. According to further responses eleven respondents (84,6%) conducted surveys on staffing requirements for schools whilst seven respondents (53,9%) indicated that they have a role to play in determining a staff formula for schools.

As regards data and procedures for assessing staffing requirements, the respondents referred to information on staffing, furnished by principals (61,5%), survey on staffing conducted by the ward inspectors (15,4%), and information on staff duty load supplied by each principal at the beginning of the year (7,7%). The respondents whose activities did not include surveys on staffing requirements for schools reported that they had no time for it, had problems of understaffing or had not thought of it. One respondent stated that he was still new in the position. The respondents who did not indicate their involvement in determining the staffing formula for schools considered this to be the function of the head office. It is also doubtful if

other respondents have a firm formula for this purpose.

The respondents considered a survey on staffing requirements for schools as an important matter (30,8%). They referred to the problems of a large number of unqualified and privately paid staff members, acute shortage of mathematics and science teachers, and the attraction of teachers away from rural areas to townships. These respondents regarded the staffing formula as a good idea that should be promoted through involvement of inspectors and school principals (23,0%).

7.3.5.3 Head Office Administrators

The respondents from the head office acknowledged their respective roles in staffing their units as well as in facilitating appointments within the Department. The respondents from regional management identified their staffing functions to include sitting on selection committees for school principals, deputy principals and heads of departments, short-listing of candidates before interviews, approval of appointment of other categories of teachers, and collaboration with Staff Section A, which is responsible for processing salaries and appointments. With regard to the academic planning section, the respondent referred to her standing role

in the selection committees for appointment in the section, in the motivation for the creation of new posts, and in the orientation of new incumbents.

The respondent from the auxiliary services described his task as sitting on selection committees for high level officers, consideration of reports on other interviews, approval of appointment, and compilation of the organogram for the Department. The role of the respondent from the professional services was described as encompassing approval of appointment of senior staff such as principals, and indirect approval of other officers on a delegated basis. The respondent singled out the need for deputy principals in different categories of schools as a matter for his special attention. According to the respondent from the secretariat the staffing function in the Department is performed "in an administrative sense" from his office. This function is reducible to delegated roles for different categories of senior education officers. This arrangement leaves the respondent with the task of handling recommendations regarding promotion posts from principalship upwards, as well as of approving appointments on behalf of the Minister of Education and Culture.

Further responses from the head office revealed a generally high degree of satisfaction with the performance of the staffing function. Only two respondents made suggestions regarding the provision of staff in their sections. According to the respondent from the auxiliary services, the language section and the section for psychological services lacked management portfolios which were required for adequate co-ordination within the Department. The respondent from regional management recommended that the responsibility for the appointment and transfer of staff be assigned to a special section, and that the post requirements for schools be worked out at the circuit level. The latter recommendation was endorsed by relevant respondents as illustrated by Table 10.4(h).

7.3.5.4 Conclusion

The responses indicated that education officers at different levels have a role to play in staffing and that this role is determined by one's seniority within the authority structure. At the school level there was no indication as to the exact role the principals are authorised to play in relation to the circuit inspector's authority to assess the staffing needs of

schools. At school and circuit levels, although the respondents affirmed their involvement in the determination of the staffing formula for schools, there is no evidence that a definite formula exists for this purpose.

7.3.6 Controlling

7.3.6.1 School Principals

Table 10.4(i): Principals' Responses to Need for Controlling (N= 332)

NATURE OF TASK	RESPONSE CATEGORY					
	Extremely important	Very important	Somewhat important	Of little importance	Of no importance	Total
The principal and staff should work out a structured agenda for meetings to provide for reporting on progress in school activities.	106 (31,9%)	178 (53,6%)	36 (10,9%)	12 (3,6%)	19 (0%)	332 (100%)
The principal and staff should identify criteria according to which the work of individual staff members should be checked.	62 (18,7%)	153 (46,1%)	69 (20,8%)	29 (8,7%)	19 (5,7%)	332 (100%)

Table 10.4(i) shows that 96,4% of the respondents attached significance to a structured agenda for meetings to monitor progress in school activities. According to the table 85,5% of the respondents

regarded the practice as very important or extremely important, whilst 3,6% rated it as of little importance. The responses also show that 85,5% of the respondents attributed significance to the idea of jointly identifying criteria according to which the work of individual staff members should be checked. Whereas 14,4% of the respondents rated the idea as being of little importance or of no importance, another 64,8% regarded it as very important or extremely important. The combined responses suggested that the respondents favoured the practice of monitoring the work done by staff members at school. According to further responses 63% of the respondents had a structured agenda for meetings whilst 41,3% affirmed the existence of criteria for checking the work of individual staff members.

The structured agenda, according to the respondents featured classroom teaching (25,3%) extra-mural activities (23,5%) and problems experienced in the course of work (17,2%). Other suggested items included behaviour and discipline, school facilities, school environment testing and examination, financial matters and implementation of departmental directives. The criteria which the respondents identified for checking the work of individual staff members fell into three

categories, namely, classroom teaching, work plan and problem areas.

The respondents who did not prefer co-operative agenda structuring argued that it could not work, that there was no provision for it in the departmental regulations, or that it was not necessary. The respondents who objected to the joint identification of criteria for checking the teachers' work suggested that the principal was competent to do the job alone. Other respondents either had not thought of such practice or felt that their staff members were not adequate for the task.

The objections which the respondents had to the joint design of agenda and criteria for monitoring school activities, were directed mainly at the involvement of teachers. Further comments pointed out that teachers were diffident, unco-operative or prone to disrupt joint activities. On the other hand, the principals were considered adequate to use judgement to determine what to do and how. However, the respondents who supported joint decision and action suggested that this was a good idea that would make the work run smoothly and foster co-operation and mutual respect among the staff members.

7.3.6.2 Circuit Inspector

Table 10.4(j): Circuit Inspectors' Responses to Need for Controlling (N= 13)

TASK OF CONTROLLING	RESPONSE CATEGORY				
	Extremely important	Very important	Somewhat important	Of little/ No importance	Total
A circuit inspector should monitor through inspectors the administration of schools and instructional activities.	7 (53,9%)	6 (46,1%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	13 (100%)
The circuit inspector and team should identify criteria according to which aspects of school work should be checked.	4 (30,8%)	8 (61,5%)	1 (7,7%)	0 (0%)	13 (100%)

Table 10.4(j) shows that monitoring of school work through inspectors was regarded as very important or extremely important by 100% of respondents. This endorsement was an acceptance of what appears to be part of the role of inspectors in the circuit. The table also shows that 100% of the respondents affirmed the importance of identifying monitoring aspects of school work. Further responses revealed that 100% of

the respondents engaged the inspectorate team in the monitoring of schools, whilst 69,2% of the respondents affirmed their involvement in the identification of criteria for checking school work.

In explaining the procedure for monitoring the administration of schools and the instructional activities 100% of the respondents referred to inspectors' visit to schools and the latter's use of departmental directives as the frame of reference. With regard to the identification of criteria for checking aspects of school work some respondents (23,0%) referred to the inspection report format as the requisite set of criteria. According to other respondents the criteria for monitoring school work centred on the tasks of the school head (15,4%) classroom teaching (30,0%), and teachers' work plans (7,7%).

In further comments on monitoring of school work, the respondents (23,0%) pointed out the need for the improvement of administration of schools. The second area of concern identified by respondents (30,0%) was under-staffing and over-work of the inspection circuit. With regard to the use of criteria for checking school work, the respondents expressed the need for all

circuits to identify such criteria (38,5%) and for inspectors to give guidance to schools before a round of inspection (23,0%). Furthermore, the respondents (30,8%) pointed out that the meaningful application of criteria was hampered by certain problems, namely, unqualified teaching personnel, over-enrolment, overcrowding in classrooms and inadequate facilities. According to these responses, school activities cannot be monitored adequately because of problems of understaffing. Secondly, school activities to be monitored are themselves beset with various problems of under-provision.

7.3.6.3 Head Office Administrators

As regards the head office responses, it was reported that monitoring of activities is done through meetings and submission of reports to the heads of units. For regional management the reports were supplemented by visits to the circuit offices as well as the meetings convened at the head office by the heads of regions. The respondent from academic planning referred to monthly meetings and reporting, coupled with informal contact for the exchange of views among the members of this section. According to the respondent, reporting to the head of the auxiliary services at intervals of three months forms part of the monitoring process

within the division. Monitoring based on reporting and meetings to give advice was also cited by respondents from the professional services and the secretariat.

Further comments from the head office respondents drew attention to certain aspects of leading which were considered important in facilitating work in different divisions or sections. The respondents from regional management emphasized the need to motivate people to know what should be done on the one hand and to give them the latitude to engage in constructive activities on the other hand. The respondent from academic planning recommended that supervision to be carried out should be careful and constructive to develop the individual at work. For the respondent from the auxiliary services it was important to provide for formal and informal channels of communication within the division. To a great extent the responses highlighted the need for the heads of units to create an environment for initiative, achievement and growth.

7.3.6.4 CONCLUSION

There was a clear indication from the responses that controlling is endorsed as an important function and a responsibility for every educational administrator. This is hardly surprising since monitoring is a normal activity for every officer in charge of a section or a team of workers. It was noted, however, that the manner in which the function is performed depends on the perceptions of the officer. With regard to the head office there was a fair and understandable amount of convergent thinking among the education officers.

7.3.7 Evaluating

7.3.7.1 School Principals

Table 10.4(k): Principals' Responses to Need for Evaluating (N= 332)

NATURE OF TASK	RESPONSE CATEGORY					
	Extremely important	Very important	Somewhat important	Of little importance	Of no importance	Total
The principal and staff should arrange for a detailed review of school work in the course of the year.	102 (30,7%)	193 (58,1%)	30 (9,0%)	4 (1,2%)	3 (1%)	332 (100%)
The principal and staff should provide for a detailed evaluation of the year's work for adjustment, correction or improvement in the following year.	167 (50,3%)	156 (47,0%)	9 (2,7%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	332 (100%)

Table 10.4(k) shows that 97,8% of the respondents were in favour of detailed review of school work in the course of the year. Whereas 2,2% of the respondents found such review to be of little or no importance, another 88,8% regarded it as very important or extremely important. The table also shows that 100% of

the resondents viewed evaluation of the year´s work as important. Of these respondents 97,3% rated the evaluation process as very important or extremely important. The responses, therefore, reflected a high degree of endorsement in respect of evaluation of school work, both in the course of the year and at the end thereof. According to further responses 68,1% of the respondents conducted reviews of school work in the course of the year, whilst 67,8% held evaluation sessions of the tear´s work.

With regard to the procedure for evaluating the year´s work 23,8% of the respondents referred to meetings convened to discuss the previous year´s work, another 18,1% referred to the focus of attention on the problems experienced, and 27,1% cited identification of strategies for improvement. Isolated responses referred to analysis of performance such as achievement and failure, and discussion of needed changes with respect to teaching strategies, allocation of duties, and scheduling. It should, however, be noted that the responses identified areas in which evaluation was appropriate without a clear indication of the nature and extent of the evaluation process actually conducted.

Three categories of responses were identified in respect of the reasons for the review or evaluation of school work. For the first category of respondents it was not possible to attend to evaluation because of time and staffing problems or adverse working conditions. The second group of respondents felt that testing and examination were sufficient means of assessing work. The third group of respondents had not thought of evaluation as important or necessary.

The respondents whohad comments to make on evaluation recommended that the process be undertaken in order to put school work in perspective, to identify strengths and weaknesses; to diagnose problems, to set standards, to determine areas of needed improvement, and to ascertain progress or lack of it. The respondents, therefore, acknowledge the role of evaluation and the purposes which it serves as a function of administration. Further suggestions pointed to the need for evaluation to be carried out at regular intervals as well as for the process to be extended to circuit and regional levels.

7.3.7.2 Circuit Inspectors

Table 10.4(1): Circuit Inspectors' Responses to Need for Evaluating (N= 13)

NATURE OF TASK	RESPONSE CATEGORY				
	Extremely important	Very important	Somewhat important	Of little/ No importance	Total
The circuit inspector and team should arrange for a detailed review of the work of the inspectorate in the course of the year.	5 (38,5%)	7 (53,8%)	1 (7,7%)	0 (0%)	332 (100%)
The circuit inspector and team should arrange for a detailed evaluation of the year's work for the inspectorate to make adjustment, correction or improvement in the schools.	6 (46,2%)	7 (53,8%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	332 (100%)
The circuit inspector and team should hold conferences with principals at the end of the year to evaluate the administration and instructional activities.	4 (30,8%)	9 (69,2%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	332 (100%)

Table 10,4(1) shows that 100% of the respondents regarded review of work in the course of the year as important to undertake. For 92,3% of the respondents this review was regarded as very important or extremely important. The table also shows that 100% of the respondents rated evaluation of the year's work within the circuit as very important or extremely important. An equal percentage (100%) gave the same rating to the joint evaluation of school work by principals and inspectors. These responses show that, regardless of how they conducted their work, the circuit inspectors attached great significance to the function of evaluating work of the inspectorate and schools in the circuit. Further responses suggested that 61,5% of the respondents attend to review of work in the course of the year, while 30,8% evaluate the year's work of the inspectorate and 38,5% engage in joint evaluation of school work with principals.

With regard to the procedure for reviewing the work in the course of the year the respondents referred to the meeting of principals convened by the circuit inspector (15,4%), meetings of the inspectorate team in the circuit (23,1%), panel inspection by the inter-circuit team of inspectors (15,4%), annual reports from the head office (7,7%), meetings to review the work of ward

inspectors (7,7%) and regional conferences convened to discuss the work in detail (7,7%). Varied responses revealed that no definite procedure exists for the review of work by the inspectorate. Secondly, a smaller percentage of respondents admitted to being involved in the review of work as compared to the percentage of responses which endorsed the idea.

According to four respondents (23,1%) detailed evaluation of the year's work is undertaken by the inspectorate team at a meeting which is convened for the purpose. For one respondent such evaluation is undertaken by way of inspection which is followed by reports and discussion of problems and strategies to deal with problems. With reference to evaluation of administration and instructional activities at school four respondents (30,8%) cited joint meetings of principals and inspectors; whilst one respondent conceded that such evaluation commands far less attention than what it deserves.

Varied reasons were advanced by respondents for not attending to evaluation of work at school and circuit levels. Table 10.4(m) is an illustration of the respondents' indisposition in respect of the function of evaluating in their inspection circuits.

Table 10.4(m): Reasons for Circuit Inspectors' Inability to Evaluate Activities Adequately

REASONS	NO. OF RESPONDENTS	PERCENTAGE
Time does not allow	4	30,8
Too much work/under-staffing	4	30,8
Still a new idea	3	23,1
Still new in the position	2	15,4
Did not see the need	1	7,7

None of the reasons which the respondents gave reflect a genuinely negative attitude towards evaluation. The respondents acknowledged the existence of certain circumstances which made evaluation of work difficult or impossible.

The comments from the respondents pointed to the need for evaluation of work at the school and circuit levels. Seven (53,9%) respondents regarded the process as a good or essential idea, whilst 30,8% suggested that it be conducted at regular intervals. Four respondents recommended that regular meetings be held between inspectors and heads of schools to discuss educational matters.

7.3.7.3 Head Office Administrators

All respondents from the head office acknowledged their involvement in arranging for the review of work but differed on the manner in which the process is undertaken. The respondents from regional management referred to testing on school work as a means of evaluating. According to one respondent, use is made of subject advisors, college lecturers and outside helpers to set test questions. Another respondent regarded inspection reports as additional means of assessing the work done at school. It is clear from the responses that evaluation is associated with testing and examinations although the respondents acknowledged the need to look at certain tasks or problems.

The respondent from academic planning reported that no evaluation of work had been undertaken since the incumbent was still new. According to the respondent the encouragement of objective and regular self-assessment should form one aspect of evaluation in the section. Another aspect should entail discussion sessions wherein the members of the section should evaluate their own as well as one another's work and actions. From the point of view of the respondent from the auxiliary services, evaluation of work dove-tails

into the mentor system in terms of which a senior staff member monitors the work of a junior member assigned to him or her. The process of evaluation was reported to entail the assessment of quarterly reports from the head of sections regarding what they have done, what they are doing, and what they intend doing. In addition the respondent cited his involvement in the compilation of the annual report for the Department.

The respondent from the professional services held the view that evaluation of schools both academically and physically should be attended to by the heads of regions with the help of information from the inspection circuits. In this respect the respondent viewed evaluation to cover the work of the inspectorate, the school administrators and the teaching corps. The responses from regional management suggested that evaluation of work was not attended to as described, hence the expression of the need to look at certain tasks or problems.

7.3.7.4 Conclusion

The responses showed a high degree of endorsement of the process of evaluation as a function of administration. The respondents from the head office acknowledged the need for evaluation and did not identify constraints which impede an exercise of this

nature. This was in contrast with experiences at other levels of administration, where certain problems were specifically identified or observed to exist. The responses at all three levels reflected a high degree of flexibility and variation in respect of procedure and purpose of evaluation.

7.4 General

The aim of the questions in the general section of each research instrument was to obtain responses on general matters of administration in respect of schools and inspection circuits and on collaboration or lack of it in respect of units of administration at the head office. With regard to schools and inspection circuits, each respondent was required to arrange in order of importance to him or her any five important tasks and five major problems associated with the respondent's level of administration. Secondly, the two categories of respondents were required to make further comments on the administration of education in KwaZulu. The respondents from the head office were required first, to estate their views on collaboration between their respective divisions or sections and certain auxiliary services within the Department. Secondly, this category of respondents was required to make further comments on the administration of education in KwaZulu.

7.4.1 Ranking of Administrative Tasks

Table 10.5(a): Ranking of Administrative Tasks Listed by Principals (N= 332)

TASK	FREQUENCY	RANK
Supervision	109	1
Staffing	80	2
Financial administration	79	3
Control of work	75	4
Planning	74	5
Discipline	62	6
Facilities	54	7
Liaison with community	50	8
Admission of pupils	44	9
Allocation of duties	41	10
Communication	41	10
Instructional activities	37	12
Class visits	36	13
Organising	36	13
Staff development	33	15
Staff meetings	31	16
School records	31	16
Human relations	31	16
Providing teaching materials	27	19
Leading/guiding	26	20
Evaluating	24	21

Table 10.5(a) Continued

TASK	FREQUENCY	RANK
Pupil welfare	24	21
Classroom accommodation	23	23
Office work	23	23
Liaison with Department	22	25
Extra-curricula activities	21	26
School environment	21	26
Decision making	19	28
Motivating	19	28
Testing and examination	18	30
Co-operation	14	31
Interpretation of directives	14	31
Time tabling	13	33
Delegating	12	34
Staff welfare	11	35
Staff and pupil conduct	9	36
Induction of staff	8	37
Problem-solving	8	37
Formulating school policy	4	39
School functions	4	39
Liaison with interest groups	3	41
Parent-teacher association	3	41
Setting of goals	2	43

According to table 10.5(a) the respondents identified a total of 43 tasks. Since each respondent was required to list a maximum of 5 tasks, it was expected that the total number of frequencies for identified tasks would be 1660. The number reflected on the table, namely, 1316 shows that some respondents did not identify the required number of tasks.

The table reveals that supervision had the highest frequency. This ranking tallies with Table 10.1(a) in terms of which 99,7% of the respondents endorsed supervision as a duty to be carried out by the principal. However, the fact that the highest ranking task had a frequency of only 109 suggests that the tasks identified by the respondents had a generally low rating. This is to be attributed to varied conceptions of the role of principals and the possibility that the respondents were not sufficiently informed about specific tasks relating to their position.

The high-ranking tasks in the table are staffing (Rank 2) financial administration (Rank 3), control of work (Rank 4) and planning (Rank 5). All these tasks were also endorsed directly or indirectly as important or essential to administration by large percentages. For example, Table 10.4(g) shows that 98,8% of the

respondents regarded staffing of the school as ar important responsibility in which the principal shoulc have a role to play. Secondly, according to Table 10.4(a) the number of the respondents that regardec planning as an important function of administration was 100%.

The table also shows that certain tasks which are patently related to the functions of administratior have low frequencies. These tasks included inductior of staff (Rank 37), problem-solving (Rank 37), formulating of school policy (Rank 39), and setting of goals (Rank 42). It seems that some respondents listed what they considered to be school-related tasks without taking a careful look at ranking.

Table 10.5(b): Ranking of Administrative Tasks by Circuit Inspectors (N= 13)

TASK	FREQUENCY	RANK
School supervision	8	1
Meeting with school principals	6	2
Liaison with interested parties	5	3
Professional guidance	5	3
Staffing	5	3
Development of schools	4	6

Table 10.5(b) Continued

TASK	FREQUENCY	RANK
Planning	4	6
In-service seminars/courses	4	6
Evaluation of work	3	9
Staff development	3	9
Administration of examinations	2	11
Distribution of duties	2	11
Office work	2	11
School discipline	2	11
Induction of staff	2	11
Commission of inquiry	1	16
Interpretation of directives	1	16
Meeting with circuit staff	1	16
Need assessment	1	16
Physical facilities	1	16
Staff welfare	1	16

According to Table 10.5(b) the respondents identified 22 tasks. The table shows that supervision of schools had the highest frequency, namely, eight. The fact that more than half of the respondents referred to this task demonstrates its recognition as a conventional duty for inspectors. The other high-ranking tasks in the table are meeting with school principals (Rank 2),

liaison with interested parties (Rank 3), professional guidance (Rank 3), staffing (Rank 3), planning (Rank 6), in-service courses (Rank 6) and development of schools (Rank 6). As can be observed the frequencies are distributed rather thinly over the 22 tasks. This is an indication of the respondents' varied perceptions of their role function. These perceptions are further illustrated by the distribution of frequencies in relation to the position of each task (See Table 10.5(c)).

Table 10.5(c): Positional Ranking of Tasks by Circuit Inspectors (N= 13)

TASK	DISTRIBUTION OF FREQUENCIES					
	Position 1	Position 2	Position 3	Position 4	Position 5	Rank
School supervision	0	1	2	3	2	1
Meeting with school principals	0	1	4	1	0	2
Liaison with interested parties	0	0	2	1	2	3
Professional guidance	3	0	0	1	1	3
Staffing	3	1	0	1	0	3
Development of schools	0	2	0	1	1	6
Planning	1	2	0	0	1	6

Table 10.5(c) Continued

In-service seminars/ courses	2	1	1	0	0	6
Evaluation of work	0	0	0	0	3	9
Staff development	1	0	0	2	0	9
Administration of examinations	0	0	0	1	1	11
Distribution of duties	1	0	1	0	0	11
Office work	1	1	0	0	0	11
School discipline	0	0	0	1	1	11
Induction of staff	0	0	0	1	1	11
Commission of inquiry	0	0	1	0	0	16
Interpretation of directives	0	1	0	0	0	16
Meeting with circuit staff	1	0	0	0	0	16
Meeting with school committees	0	0	1	0	0	16
Need assessment	0	1	0	0	0	16
Physical facilities	0	0	1	0	0	16
Staff welfare	0	1	0	0	0	16

According to Table 10.5(c) the tasks with low frequencies of responses were distributed fairly evenly among the ranks. Although school supervision and meeting with school principals had the highest ranks, none of these tasks featured in the first position. This suggests that the frequency of responses in respect of each task was not necessarily a measure of its relative importance. What the table reveals is that none of the identified tasks was ranked as important by a significant number of respondents.

7.4.2 Ranking of Administrative Problems

Table 10.6(a): Rank of Administrative Problems by Principals (N= 332)

PROBLEM	FREQUENCY	RANK
Under-staffing	183	1
Availability of physical facilities	137	2
Financial constraints at school	101	3
Over-enrolment	98	4
Discipline at school	83	5
Unrests/Disturbances/Riots	77	6
Availability of classroom accommodation	73	7
Availability of teaching materials	68	8
Influence of political affiliations	67	9

Table 10.6(1) Continued

PROBLEM	FREQUENCY	RANK
Knowledge of administration	53	10
Lack of co-operation at school	51	11
Burden of clerical work	49	12
Parent co-operation	43	13
Inadequacy of teachers' qualifications	40	14
Insecurity	39	15
Unsatisfactory contact with Department	33	16
Dishonesty	33	16
Organising ability	33	16
Motivation to work	30	19
Supervision	30	19
Commitment among staff	29	21
Disharmony at school	29	21
Absenteeism	27	23
Pupil personal needs	24	24
Problems attendant to planning	20	25
Staff accommodation	15	26
Disloyalty	14	27
Transport service	14	27
Book-keeping skill	13	29
Problem of goal setting	12	30
Delay in salary payment	10	31
Problem-solving	10	31

Table 10.6(a) Continued

PROBLEM	FREQUENCY	RANK
Criminal cases	7	33
Limitations of curriculum	7	33
Abuse of alcohol	7	33
Sex abuse of pupils	7	33
Electricity supply	7	33
Water supply	7	33

Table 10.6(a) has a list of 38 problems which were identified by the respondents. It was expected that the total number of frequencies would be 1660 since each respondent was required to identify a maximum of 5 problems. As indicated by the number of frequencies some respondents did not identify the required number of problems.

The table shows that under-staffing had the highest frequency, namely, 183. The fact that more than half of the respondents referred to under-staffing shows how widely this is regarded as a problem in KwaZulu. Staffing is usually expressed in terms of pupil-teacher ratios. According to the 1989 figure (SAIRR 1989/90:814) the average teacher-pupil ratio was 1:42 for the Blacks in the non-independent homelands, 1:38

for the Black schools in the so-called white (DET) areas, 1:23 for the Coloureds, 1:20 for the Indians and 1:17 for the Whites. The acute problem of staffing in KwaZulu schools becomes clear if one considers the average teacher-pupil ratio in the area concerned. For example, according to the 1989 Annual Report (KwaZulu Department of Education and Culture, 1989:39:43) the average ratio was 1:50. Table 10.6(b) shows relevant statistics with regard to the inspection circuits from which the respondents were drawn.

Table 10.6(b): Staffing and Enrolment at Selected KwaZulu Inspection Circuits, 1989

INSPECTION CIRCUIT	TEACHING STAFF	NO.OF PUPILS	TEACHER-PUPIL RATIO
Edendale	1418	61233	1:43
Madadeni	1828	93747	1:51
Mehlesizwe	961	50386	1:52
KwaMashu	1202	54647	1:46
Msinga	693	34996	1:51
Pholela	1232	52993	1:43
Umbumbulu	1293	60732	1:47
Umlazi South	888	33167	1:37

Although the table shows 1:37 as the lowest ratio and 1:52 as the highest, the overall statistics reflected the lowest ratio of 1:36 for Umlazi North and the highest ratio of 1:61 for Hlabisa circuit. It is also worth noting that seven out eight circuits referred to in Table 10.6(b) had a teacher-pupil ratio above the national average for the non-independent homelands. It is, therefore, understandable why staffing should be perceived as one of the most pressing educational problems in KwaZulu.

According to Table 10.6(a) other high-ranking problems were identified as availability of physical facilities (Rank 2), financial constraints (Rank 3), over-enrolment (Rank 4) and indiscipline (Rank 5). It is clear that of the first five problems identified four relate to provision for schooling, whilst the fifth has to do with human behaviour. A further analysis of the thirty-eight problems shows that eight (21,1%) refer to provision for schooling, sixteen (42,1%) relate to human behaviour, seven (18,4%) involve knowledge of administration, and seven (18,4%) concern other matters. It follows, therefore, that the elimination of such a variety of problems would involve more than increased spending on staffing and facilities.

Table 10.6(c): Ranking of Administrative Problems by Circuit Inspectors (N= 13)

PROBLEM	FREQUENCY	RANK
Inadequacy of school facilities	6	1
Inadequacy of suitably qualified teachers	6	1
Under-staffing at school	6	1
School unrests	5	4
Under-staffing at circuit office	4	5
Financial administration for schools	4	5
Classroom accommodation	3	7
Demotivated teachers	2	9
Level of understanding of community	2	9
Political disturbances	2	9
Privately paid teachers	2	9
Over-crowding at school	2	9
Serving on commission of inquiry	2	9
Shortage of schools	2	9
Inaccessibility of country schools	1	16
Availability of official vehicles	1	16
Disloyalty of teachers	1	16
Financial constraints facing schools	1	16
Lack of cooperation of interested parties	1	16
Lack of dedicated staff	1	16
Lack of proper offices	1	16

Table 10.6(c) Continued

PROBLEM	FREQUENCY	RANK
Lack of staff development facilities	1	16
Lack of specialist inspectors	1	16
Politically misguided teachers and pupils	1	16
Parent participation in school matters	1	16
Regional authority meetings	1	16
Transport for commuting pupils	1	16
Unsympathetic head office	1	16

Table 10.6(c) shows that the respondents identified a total of 29 problems. According to the table, three school-related problems had the highest number of frequencies. Such problems were inadequacy of suitably qualified teachers (Rank 1), inadequacy of school facilities (Rank 1) and under-staffing (Rank 1). As illustrated by Table 10.6(a), the problem of under-staffing at the school level was ranked first by the school principals. This was followed by the problem of physical facilities, while inadequacy of teachers' qualifications was identified as a problem as well.

According to the 1989 figures (KwaZulu DEC, 1989:39-41) twenty-five percent of KwaZulu teachers in primary and

secondary schools were uncertificated. Although two of the 25 circuits, namely, Umlazi North and Umlazi South had a percentage of professionally unqualified teachers as little as one, there were other circuits where the percentage was in the region of 50. These circuits included Nquthu (44%), Mahlabathini (45%), Hlabisa (46%), Nongoma (51%), Msinga (53%), Nkandla (58%) and Ubombo (69%). If these figures are taken into account (See also Table 9.1(f)) it is not surprising that inadequacy of teachers' qualifications features prominently as one of the school-related problems in KwaZulu.

The fourth ranked problem identified by the respondents was school unrest. According to Table 10.6(a) this problem was ranked sixth by the school principals. School unrest emerged partly as an after-math of the 1976 school upheavals and partly as an incipient loss of recognition of, and respect for, authority exercised by teachers, parents or other bodies. Whilst some bouts of unrest could have been attributed to local causes, numerous other instances of disturbances country-wide have become intertwined with broader educational and socio-political issues. It is doubtful if there is an area in KwaZulu which has escaped the ripple effect of the unrest situation. It is

therefore, understandable why respondents in both categories should identify school unrest as one of the major problems.

A close look at the 29 problems in Table 10.6(c) shows that twelve (41,4%) have to do with inadequacies in regard to staffing and facilities; ten (34,5%) involve human behaviour; three (10,3%) refer to lack of competencies, and four (13,8%) relate to other matters. It is clear that both categories of respondents, namely, principals and circuit inspectors, identified similar types of problems, and in many instances, the same problems. It also appears that the distribution of frequencies is more of a pointer to the wide range of problems than their relative significance per se. It, however, is possible that the identified problems would be regarded as such by a significant number of respondents.

7.4.3 <u>Collaboration Among Divisions of Administration at Head Office</u>

Each division at the head office was viewed in relation to the working relationship which it had or could have with other units within the Department, namely, the planning services, psychological services, subject advisory services, cultural services and library

services. Each respondent was required to state his or her views on the desirability of the collaboration, the amount of collaboration in existence, and the reasons for its presence or absence. Because of its over-all responsibility the secretariat did not have to be involved in this section.

Both respondents from regional management acknowledged the existence and desirability of collaboration with the planning section. The need for collaboration was found evident in respect of establishment and registration of new schools, the processing of requisitions for books and other materials for school use, and the "grafting of new ideas" with regard to planning. The respondents did not have close working relationship with the psychological services but expressed interest in the extent to which the section could be put to use. One respondent felt the need for the psychological section to attend to pupils with problems, including investigation of causative factors.

With regard to subject advisory services and cultural services, one respondent from regional management reported on an assigned supervisory role, namely, approval of itineraries for officers in these sections. The second respondent felt that due to limited staffing

these services do not make the necessary impact on the educational programme. From the regional management point of view no notable collaboration exists with the services in question although there is a perceived need for it. A similar view was expressed in respect of library services. The respondents looked upon the section as a feature whose further collaboration with regional management would depend on its function and extent of development.

The respondent from academic planning saw the academic planning services to have only a remote working relationship with the psychological services and library services. According to the respondent all three sections are separate entities whose functioning has not much in common. As regards the subject advisory services and cultural services, the respondent pointed to the need for co-ordinating within these sections to provide for their collaboration with the planning section.

The respondent from the auxiliary services referred to the organogram in terms of which the planning services, psychological services and library services fell under his division. He regarded the cultural services and subject advisory services as separate branches of

endeavour with neither clear identity nor established hierarchy that could facilitate the needed cross-pollination with his division.

The respondent from the division for professional services saw the functioning of all sections of auxiliary services to be relevant to the needs of his division. According to the respondent the division has the task of supervising the subject advisory services and cultural services as well as of engaging in meaningful collaboration with the sections for planning, psychological and library services.

According to most respondents meaningful collaboration with certain sections of auxiliary services hinge on changes being effected in terms of the structures and functions of the sections concerned. The respondents saw, in the service units problems related to under-staffing, under-utilisation, inadequate role function or lack of co-ordination.

7.4.4 Further Comments

Further comments on the administration of education in KwaZulu touched on four areas; namely, inadequate provision, administrative problems, security problems and recommendations. Since additional comments were

elicited by means of certain items of the data-gathering instruments, very few respondents made further comments on the administration of education in KwaZulu.

The problem of under-staffing as an instance of inadequate provision was highlighted by all categories of respondents. At the school level this problem pertained to head-count, unqualified, under-qualified personnel and the lack of certain staff categories, such as clerks and middle management. With respect to other levels the problem of under-staffing related to the limited number of inspectors and subject advisors. The respondents attributed the problem of under-staffing generally to financial constraints which affect the educational provision from the school level to the head office. It should also be pointed out that the problem of under-qualified and unqualified teaching personnel is endemic to black education as a consequence of separate provision.

The respondents commented on varied problems of administration which affect the work at school and other levels. Reference was made to delays in salary payment for beginning teachers, poor communication between schools and the Department of Education and

Culture, and the use of the old regulations, such as R1755 of 30 September 1968, which spell out the conditions of service for teachers in KwaZulu. With regard to circuit organisation, the respondents referred to frequent transfers as unsettling and disruptive. Comments on regional management cast doubt on the usefulness of the arrangement, since it was felt that the regions do not exist as a reality.

The respondents referred to a political climate which has a destabilising effect on the administration of schools in certain circuits. The problems identified included hightened political awareness of pupils on the one hand, and school unrests, armed robbery, intimidation of school personnel and violence, on the other hand.

The recommendations made by the respondents reflected their perceptions of needed changes in general or specific terms. One respondent saw the need for educational administration to look beyond apartheid structures "at the broader process of transformation". Another respondent wished to see the sections of the department radiating a high degree of individuality and flexibility in order to promote innovation. A respondent from the school level stressed the need to

curb the influence of party politics at the school level. With regard to staffing a departmental respondent expressed the need for joint manpower planning within the Department. In this connection another respondent raised concern about the "hand-out projects" particularly for training principals, and felt that something more localised could be designed. Other respondents recommended the adoption of a coherent staffing policy for schools, and a system of specialist inspectors to attend to varied needs of education at the school level. With respect to regional management, a respondent suggested that effective administration by assistant directors could only be achieved through frequent visits and field work in designated circuits.

7.5 Conclusion

Respondents from different categories of education officers suggested that various problems exist with regard to the administration of education in KwaZulu. The first and obvious problem has to do with the availability of physical facilities. The existence of this problem hinges on inadequacy of financial resources. The second and complex set of problems relates to the provision, utilisation, development and management of human resources. The resolution of these problems goes

beyond financial provision to the development of needed competences, and attitudes among different categories of education officers. The next chapter highlights the findings of this study and offers certain recommendations.

CHAPTER EIGHT

8. SUMMARY OF FINDINGS, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

8.1 Introduction

The main aim of the study was to analyse and evaluate educational administration in KwaZulu. The writer attempted to lucidly identify the generic functions of administration and to examine their application to educational administration in KwaZulu. In carrying out the study it was necessary to review literature on the evolution and nature of administrative theories. This was done with a view to establishing the basis for evaluating educational administration. In addition the study focused on the origin and organisation of the KwaZulu system of education and its structural and functional context within South Africa. An evaluative analysis of educational administration in KwaZulu had to be carried out in terms of the organisation of education from the school to the head office. The purpose of this chapter is to give a summary of the findings, conclusions and recommendations that resulted from this study.

8.2 Findings and Conclusions

In this concluding chapter it is necessary for the investigator to re-focus attention on certain matters

of major significance for one's understanding of educational administration in KwaZulu. A discussion of theoretical findings and conclusions, emanating mainly from literature study forms the first part of this chapter. This is followed by empirical findings and conclusions.

8.2.1 Theoretical Findings and Conclusions

It was mentioned in Chapter One that efficient and effective administration is required to ensure optimal use of limited financial, human and material resources. Without efficient and perceptive administration instruments educational effort and resources are bound to dissipate. As administration is the means by which a system of education is caused to function, it follows that individuals and bodies who perform administrative roles should have the capacity for, and understanding of, their role functions. Regardless of the manner in which education has been provided for, administration is central to the performance and maintenance of the system.

In Chapter Two a review of the origin and development of administrative theories revealed three theoretical approaches. Owens (1970:14) draws a parallel between the Hegelian dialectical process of change and the

development of administration, in order to illustrat how the present era of administration has been arrive at. The Hegelian theory is exemplified by the emphasi on the organisational process and achievement by bot Taylor and Fayol. To achieve this, elements o autocracy, bureaucratisation and division of labou were recommended. With the passage of time th opposite viewpoint (antithesis) came into being as May and his colleagues stressed organisational humanisatio and emphasised such variables as the worker's needs an aspirations, participation, satisfaction and morale The present era in which administrative theory i stressed is an outgrowth (synthesis) which emphasise the elements of previous approaches and man behavioural insights which present administration as dynamic process which apply to all socia organisations.

An examination of the evolution of administrativ theories also demonstrated how the process o administration emerged as a logical series of function as well as a frame of reference for understandin administrative practices. The functions o administration are performed by administrators as th means of adapting individual and organisationa behaviour to ensure that specific tasks are carried ou

and objectives accomplished.

In Chapter Three reference was made to the historical, political and ideological foundations of administratively autonomous racially differentiated sub-systems of education in South Africa. The implementation of this model of education, coupled with the homeland policy, saw the emergence of the KwaZulu system of education as an integral part of a complex whole. As the territory passed through successive phases of self-government, an educational system was established amidst inevitable financial and material resource constraints. The existence of such a system with statutory provisions, apposite structures and functional processes was demonstrated by the views of some researchers as shown in Chapter Four.

It is, therefore, not a moot point whether or not a system of education exists in KwaZulu. However, as the KwaZulu Government has persistently affirmed its regional status, decisions to render educational services in the territory have not given expression to uniquely "Zulu" aspirations or an exclusively "Zulu" system of education. In the event of a negotiated political settlement for South Africa, it is expected that a national system of education will emerge, whilst

its administrative organs may as far as possible be drawn from the existing structures.

8.2.2 Empirical Findings and Conclusions

In Chapters Six and Seven detailed presentation, discussion and analysis of data were given on the KwaZulu hierarchy of administration, preparation for administrative roles and the work performance of education officers. Comments and inferences were made in respect of responses to questionnaires and interview items. What remains to be done in this section is to present a comprehensive interpretative summary of the findings and conclusions in order to bring out a concise picture of administration of education in KwaZulu.

8.2.2.1 Hierarchy of Administration

The study has demonstrated that the administration of education from the KwaZulu head office to the school level is the function of the line organisation which involves the Secretary, the Director for professional services, four Assistant Directors for regional management, twenty-five circuit inspectors, and numerous school principals. The Secretary is the chief executive officer whose span of control encompasses professional and auxiliary divisions (See Figure 3).

Although the hierarchical nature of administration would normally facilitate task allocation and performance at various levels, inadequate financial resources and consequent under-staffing adversely affect task performance in KwaZulu. Conventional administrative thought holds that for principals of schools to perform their primary responsibility adequately, namely, directing the teaching-learning process, they need administrative assistance that is sufficient both in quality and quantity. In KwaZulu the principal has to contend with the problem of inadequate teaching personnel, coupled with the absence of clerical staff, a deputy principal and subject heads. In effect the school organisation does not provide a satisfactory framework for the principals to perform the tasks which are clearly defined on paper. At the circuit level the problem of under-staffing militates against specialised area tasks. The circuit inspector and his team have to attend to the tasks and problems relating to educational programmes, school-community relations, personnel needs, administration of school funds and physical requirements, such as the establishment and location of school buildings. This study established that it was only at the head office that satisfaction was expressed with regard to task allocation and performance.

8.2.2.2 Sex and Qualifications

With regard to personal and work-related particulars of education officers, the study established that administration of education in KwaZulu falls largely in the hands of male incumbents. Two hundred and forty-nine (75%) out of 332 principals were males; twelve (92%) out of 13 circuit inspectors were males, and five (83%) out of six senior education officers were also males. Although all administrative posts are virtually open to both sexes there is a standing arrangement in terms of which only female principals are appointed for lower primary schools. This provision, which is basically a matter of tradition, counter-balances the trend in other categories of schools. As far as circuit administration is concerned, the official records showed that only one out of 25 circuit inspectors is a female. As regards the head office only one female has ever attained the position of an Assistant Director. In both instances the rate of female advancement seems to a great extent to be determined by the male-female ratio at the bottom rung of the administrative ladder. The reasons for this imbalance are discussed in Chapter Six (6.3.3.1).

The study revealed that although academic qualifications play a significant role in the

appointment of education officers to administrative positions, this requirement applies with certain adjustments to principals of schools. For example, 32% of the graduate respondents were mainly heads of secondary schools, where a university degree is an almost exclusive academic requirement. The remaining percentage had a preponderance of primary school principals, whose academic qualifications ranged from Standard 8 to university degree courses. It was found that 12% of graduate respondents had Honours or B.Ed degree qualifications, and that none of the respondents had masters or doctoral degrees. This is a clear indication that senior degrees are scarce academic qualifications among school teachers. It should however, be borne in mind that senior degree holders may either seek further promotion or be attracted to more specialised occupations.

With regard to circuit inspectors the study demonstrated that all such education officers had degree qualifications. The fact that nine out of 13 (69,3%) respondents had senior academic qualifications, namely, the Honours or B.Ed or Masters degrees, suggests that a higher degree qualification has become a strong requirement for one's appointment as a circuit inspector. It is also worth noting that a

considerable number of circuit inspectors posses: senior qualifications in educational studies. This i: to be attributed to the perceived relevance of suc] qualifications to the work of education officer: generally.

The importance of academic qualifications as a essential requirement for senior appointment becam more apparent in respect of the head office staff. Al six education officers hold senior academi qualifications mainly in educational studies. Two o: the three most senior officers have senio: qualifications in educational administration. I addition to qualifications, there is evidence o: extensive upward-bound experience for virtually al officers, with the exception of school principals whose ages range from about 30 to 60, as shown i Chapter Six (6.3.1).

8.2.2.3 <u>Preparation for Administrative Roles</u>

Different categories of education officers strongl supported the idea of preparation for administrativ roles. Both principals and circuit inspectors fel that there was a need for courses in administration, use of training agencies, attendance of seminars, induction programmes, study of text on administratio

and the use of manuals for administration. It was, however, clear from the responses that for most principals and circuit inspectors, these means of preparation are either not available or not made use of. According to senior education officers from the head office pre-service education, in-service courses, study leave facilities, work experience, and individual initiative and decision are the means by which education officers could acquire requisite knowledge and skills. In this respect the Department of Education and Culture is seen to play a certain role in individual development for administrative roles. In return individual officers are expected to use their initiative and decision to learn, to develop personal attributes, to obtain appropriate qualifications, and to acquire relevant work experience.

In Chapter Six (6.3.2.1 and 6.3.2.2) it was shown that through staff self-assessment principals and circuit inspectors revealed certain perceptions of their administrative skills: technical, human and conceptual. The distinction between these kinds of skills is that a person needs technical skills in understanding and applying rules and procedures, human skills in understanding and working with people, and conceptual skills in understanding and working with

ideas. In the self-assessment about 50% of principals and circuit inspectors perceived their competence to be moderate or low in both technical and conceptual skills, whilst about 70% in each category perceived their competence to be high or very high in human skills. It seems that the respondents judged themselves fairly objectively in respect of technical and conceptual skills since both types of skills are based on the acquisition and transfer of knowledge.

As was indicated in Chapter Six (6.3.2.3) the KwaZulu head office has identified a number of leadership and other personality traits which should be regarded as role expectations for incumbents of administrative positions. Although it was conceded that there is no exact manner of acquiring these attributes, it has become imperative for them to be emphasised as standards to which all education officers should aspire. To help school principals to acquire the required insight, understanding and skills in administration, KwaZulu has also arranged for diplomas in school management to be offered at the Natal Technikon and Natal College of Education. In addition KwaZulu has allowed private initiatives such as school management courses which are sponsored or offered by specialised organisations for school principals and

other education officers.

8.2.2.4 Principals as Teachers and Administrators

The study revealed that most KwaZulu principals perceive classroom teaching as part of their duties and that 90% of the respondents were actually involved in this activity. However, it is clear that apart from their favourable disposition to classroom teaching, most principals are compelled to carry heavy teaching loads caused by the problem of under-staffing. This state of affairs is bound to affect not only their performance of administrative duties, but their role perceptions as well. Responses to items 3.2 to 3.8 of the questionnaire (7.2) showed how under-staffing and related problems interfere with the performance of certain tasks. Even in the ranking of administrative problems (7.4.2) under-staffing was rated number one.

8.2.2.5 Process of Administration

The process of administration and the functions involved were discussed in Chapter Two (2.5). It was also pointed out that evaluation of educational administration as practised should be made with reference to these functions (2.6.2). In Chapter Seven (7.3) the study explored the manner in which the KwaZulu education officers viewed these elements of

administration and the extent to which they attend to them. The following findings were arrived at:

8.2.2.5.1 Planning

There were clear indications from principals of schools and circuit inspectors that planning is regarded as an important or essential duty. However, what was regarded as the planning process did not reflect such activities as the formulation of objectives and the determination of the means and procedures to attain them in relation to the time-schedule. Planning entailed compilation of lists of varied activities or drawing up of itineraries (Tables 9.2(b) and 9.2(e)) With regard to the head office it was found that planning of activities is conceptualised and set forth in a very systematic manner by the top management through regular consultative meetings. It seems, however, that no mechanism has been devised to carry over the thoughts and expectations of the head office to the circuit and school levels.

8.2.2.5.2 Organising

The line and staff organisation provides the framework for the performance of the organising function from the school to the head office. According to the responses from education officers this function is performed in a

fairly similar fashion at various levels (7.3.2.1. 7.3.2.2 and 7.3.2.3). However, the study revealed that the performance of this function is affected by problems of inadequate planning, staff shortages and consequent lack of specialisation.

8.2.2.5.3 Co-ordinating

From the responses to questionnaires (7.3.3.1 and 7.3.3.2) and interviews (7.3.3.3) it is clear that co-ordination of activities by education officers entails exchange of information on Departmental directives and the submission and discussion of progress reports and regular meetings. It should, however be noted that the adequacy with which the co-ordinating function can be performed depends on whether or not intended objectives have been formulated, tasks have been allocated and clearly explained, and standards of work have been set. As indicated earlier on, there is no evidence that these requirements are met at the school or circuit level.

8.2.2.5.4 Leading

Leading involves orientation of new members as well as guidance, supervision and motivation of subordinates with regard to task performance and self-development. The leading function requires not only knowledge and

understanding, but personal attributes without which the education officer cannot perform it adequately The centrality of leadership as perceived by the education officers at the head office is discussed in Chapter Six (6.3.2.3). Although principals and circuit inspectors acknowledged the importance of the leading function very few of them cited varied instances of leading activities in respect of their subordinates. With regard to head office administrators it was found that the leading function is performed on the basis of what the leading officer deems fit (7.3.4.3). Accordingly, for some officers, communication of directives and clarification of procedures serve the purpose of leading, whilst for others the process is extended to the initiation of participatory leadership and the setting of personal standards. A further observation is that the expectations for administrative positions as perceived by senior education officers point to the need for the development of a programme that could help administrators to know the task requirements of their positions intimately and to develop skills to perform competently.

8.2.2.5.5 Staffing

The description of staffing in Chapter Two (2.5.4) sheds some light on how this function is performed with

respect to the public service. The study revealed that staffing at each level of the educational system is governed by the conditions and prescriptions which determine the role of the head in accordance with his or her level of seniority. As noted in Chapter Seven (7.3.5.3) senior education officers play an important role in staffing their respective sections. On the other hand there seems to be confusion in regard to the role played by the principals in staffing their schools and the authority exercised by the circuit inspectors in this regard (7.3.5.1). It was revealed that whilst some principals have the latitude to advertise vacant posts, recruit and recommend candidates for appointment, other principals either depend on, or are restrained by circuit inspectors with respect to the exercise of these responsibilities. As the circuit inspectors are responsible for adequate schooling in their circuits and the principals have an important role in discerning staffing needs at their schools, there is an obvious need for these officers to work together as well as to have clearly defined roles in regard to staffing.

8.2.2.5.6 <u>Controlling</u>

The performance of the controlling function assumes that all preceeding functions, namely, planning,

organising, co-ordinating, leading and staffing, hav been well attended to. In this respect controlling ha to do with monitoring progress and verifying if action occur in accordance with the plan adopted, task defined and guidelines established. If problems hav been experienced with other functions, particularly i respect of the determination of objectives, tas allocation, and provision of guidance, the monitorin process will obviously be affected. In this study i was found that although principals subscribe to th practice of monitoring activities, the controlling rol they perform is minimal or haphazard. For example none of the respondents could produce an inventory o activities to be monitored (7.3.6.1).

According to the circuit inspectors, the controllin function takes the form of inspection visits. However because of problem of under-staffing it is not possibl for the inspectorate to give prior guidance to al teachers and principals on various aspects of th school programme, and to conduct inspection on th basis of established objectives and guidelines and a regular intervals. From the point of view of the hea office, regular meetings and submission of reports t heads of divisions or sections provide for monitorin of activities in each unit. It is clear that senio

officers at the head office have to deal with a manageable number of subordinates with whom regular contact and exchange of information are fairly easy. There is also an indication that the nature of work for senior education officers is one focusing attention on what is to be done; what is being done and what has been done in each section or division.

8.2.2.5.7 Evaluating

Through this study it was found that although 100% of the responding principals perceived evaluation of school work to be of the utmost importance (7.3.7.1) very few of them suggested how it could be done and what areas it could cover. Some principals stated that they had not thought of it, that it is not possible, or that tests and examinations are sufficient means of evaluating school activities. It should be noted that the evaluating function marks the end of the cycle of activities as well as anticipates the beginning of a new cycle, in which previous experience plays an important role. As this phase of administration follows logically on the performance of all other functions it cannot be performed satisfactorily if such functions have not been attended to (cf. 2.5.7). The current practice of administering schools in KwaZulu does not show evidence that the

functions of administration are given attention.

With regard to circuit inspectors is was found that although evaluation of work is regarded as important no procedure has been designed for the purpose. Only isolated efforts are made by few circuit inspectors to perform this function (7.3.7.2). The study found that the administrators at the head office acknowledged the need for the evaluation of activities in different units but differed on the manner in which the function could be performed. For example, examinations, official tests and inspection reports were regarded as the means of evaluating in respect of regional management, although the respondents conceded that there was a need to look at certain tasks and problems. The head of professional services expressed the need for the evaluation of the work of the inspectorate, school administrators and the teaching personnel, as well as the physical facilities. Other educational officers made certain suggestions regarding the process of evaluation. Reference was made to the encouragement of objective and regular self-evaluation and discussion sessions in which members in each unit should evaluate their own as well as one another's work and actions, and assessment of quarterly reports from the heads of sections (7.3.7.3).

8.2.2.6 Additional Views on Administration of Education in KwaZulu

The following findings are derived from the questionnaire and interview data collected in respect of the ranking of administrative tasks and administrative problems; collaboration of divisions and sub-divisions at the head office, and further comments on the administration of education in KwaZulu (See 7.4.1).

8.2.2.6.1 Ranking of Administrative Tasks by Principals

The principals identified a total of 43 school-related tasks. The study revealed that supervision is ranked the most important administrative task (Table 10.5(a)) The ranking of this task attests to its importance as a means of guiding the implementation of the school programme (See also Table 10.1(a)). A further reference on this point is made in Chapter Two (2.5.3). Other tasks which received top ranking included staffing, planning and control of works. As the foregoing discussion has shown, there is no doubt that the execution of these tasks is beset with certain problems at the school level. Another observation on the ranking of administrative tasks is that goal-setting, which is a key issue in, and a sub-function of, administration was ranked the lowest with a

frequency of only two responses. This emphasises th need for principals to undergo a course i administration.

8.2.2.6.2 Ranking of Administrative Tasks by Circuit Inspectors

The circuit inspector identified 22 activities a important administrative tasks. The study reveale that school supervision is regarded by the circui inspectors as the most important task (Table 10.5(b)) The ranking of supervision by inspectors, therefore tallies with the ranking of this task by schoo principals. There are, however, indications that a supervision is a continuous process of guidin subordinates, inspectors cannot carry it ou satisfactorily at schools at present. Section 8.3. offers a recommendation on this issue. Other task which the circuit inspectors ranked highly include meetings with school principals, liaison wit interested parties, staffing and planning. The circui inspectors seem to have referred to these tasks fo their perceived worth, even if they do not receive an significant attention. It was also noted that a larg number of tasks enumerated reflected significantly lo frequencies thereby demonstrating variations in th circuit inspectors' perceptions of their administrativ role.

8.2.2.6.3 Ranking of Administrative Problems by Principals

The study revealed that of the 38 problems identifie by the principals, under-staffing was ranked the mos important. The magnitude of this problem was als illustrated in Chapters Six (Table 9.1(e)) and Seve (Table 10.6(b)). The study also found that under-staffing is cited as the major hindrance to prope administration. A further analysis of other problem identified by principals showed that they relate t inadequate provision for schooling, huma behaviour, knowledge of administration and othe matters. The study further revealed that most of th problems correspond with what the principals ha enumerated as the task areas.

8.2.2.6.4 Ranking of Administrative Problems by Circui Inspectors

The circuit inspectors identified a total of 2 problems which they associated with administratio (Table 10.6(c)). In terms of frequency of response three school-related problems, namely, inadequacy o suitably qualified teachers, inadequacy of scho facilities, and under-staffing, were given equa ranking as the most important. It is clear from the study that both the principals and inspector identified similar types of problems and in many

instances the same problems (See 7.4.2).

8.2.2.6.5 Collaboration among Divisions and Sub-divisions withi the Department

The investigation found that although various section within the Department appear to form a unifie structure (cf. Figure 3), there are instances wher collaboration between units is minimal or lacking Auxiliary services such as library services psychological services, subject advisory services an cultural services were found to be lacking in pos structures that could facilitate collaboration wit related sections within the Department. The secon problem which is perceived to impede collaboration ha to do with the functions of these sections. Althoug they are highly instruction- or pupil-relate endeavours they operate and are regarded as separat entities which do not form part of a co-ordinate strategy at regional, circuit or school level. I would, therefore, seem that the structures an functions of these units have to be given attention The investigator observed in the course of this stud that a post was advertised for the assistant directo for the subject advisory services.

8.2.2.6.6 Further Comments

The views that were expressed by a few respondents on the administration of education in KwaZulu reiterated some of the problems which were identified by principals and circuit inspectors. It has become clear from the comments that under-staffing in all its manifestations is regarded by all categories of education officers as the most serious problem in KwaZulu. It should, however, be borne in mind that the human resource requirements cannot be met adequately merely by employing more teachers, clerks, inspectors and so on. It is also important that much attention be given to the development and utilisation of existing human resources.

8.2.2.7 Application of Criteria for Evaluating Educational Administration

In Chapter Two (2.6) reference was made to three criteria that could be used to evaluate educational administration. In the foregoing summary of findings and conclusions (8.2.2.1, 8.2.2.3 and 8.2.2.4) certain observations have been made in respect of organisation of education, preparation for administrative roles and work performance of education officers. In this section specific attention is given to the extent to which the three criteria apply to educational

administration in KwaZulu.

8.2.2.7.1 <u>There must be an organisation to be administered</u>

It was shown in Chapter Four (4.3.2) that the KwaZul system of education has central, regional and loca organisational levels. This organisational structur is designed to allocate responsibilities t participants and to create rules, policies an administrative hierarchies to co-ordinate diverse bu related activities. The structure has been formall adopted and is described and communicated by a organisational chart (See Figure 3), informatio brochures, reports, regulations and manuals.

The hierarchical nature of the KwaZulu educationa system provides for centralised decision making an unity of direction. In such a hierarchy educationa goals are formulated at the top for the entir organisation, to be communicated to the succeedin levels, in order to engage the interests and energie of individuals in different positions. In Chapter Fou (4.4.1) it was shown that between 1972 and 1979 th KwaZulu Cabinet and the Department of Education an Culture have paid attention to the formulation o educational goals and the establishment of priorities for the territory. It seems that for various reasons.

the programme for the attainment of the set goals ha: not been drawn up.

The organisation of education in KwaZulu has to fac the problem that confronts virtually all systems o: education. Bolman and Deal (1984:23) refer to th following dilemma in regard to the structuring of work

> To get work done it is necessary to differentiate - to divide responsibilities across different individuals and organisational units. But the more an organisation differentiates the more difficult it is to integrate all different parts.

Schools are administered as organisational units. The: develop their unique patterns and operate at differen levels of efficiency. In order to bring abou integration, schools have to be administered as a circuit. The circuits have to be integrated into, an administered as, regions. The study has demonstrate that problems are experienced at the levels o integration and differentiation.

8.2.2.7.2 <u>The functions of administration must be considered</u>

It has been observed that the functions of administration are inter-dependent, on-going an pervasive facilitative processes. Because they are the

core of administration they are also referred to as t "generic processes" which are performed in a simil fashion regardless of the level of administration. was shown through this study that the administrators different levels of the educational system are to great extent autonomous with regard to the performar of the functions of administration.

This study found that the educational administrators KwaZulu acknowledge the functions of administration their important role expectations. However, conditic and in some cases disposition at circuit and scho levels are not favourable for the satisfacto performance of these functions. There are al indications of a lack of understanding of the nature administration and its importance in providing for t formulation, implementation and evaluation of a plan activities, as well as in the development a utilisation of staff.

8.2.2.7.3 <u>The practice of educational administration must he ideas on educational administration</u>

The process of translating the mission of the system education into programmes of activities requir administrative competencies which are acquired throu knowledge and understanding. Learning about t

functions of administration and possession of leadership competencies such as conceptual skills, technical skills and human or inter-personal skills, apply to prospective and practising administrators. The importance of knowledge of administration was acknowledged by the KwaZulu educational administrators at all levels. The head office has arranged for school management courses to be offered at two colleges of education. In addition the KwaZulu Department of Education and Culture has given the necessary latitude to organisations that have an interest in offering school management courses to serving principals. It should be clear that the attention of the Department in regard to preparation for administrative roles, should be paid not only to schools, but to other levels where administration is just as important.

8.3 Recommendations

In the light of the findings and conclusions referred to in the foregoing discussion the investigator offers the following recommendations. Some of the recommendations derive directly from this study, whilst others are related to educationa matters on which administration has a bearing.

8.3.1 <u>In-service Education for Administrators</u>

The theory discussed in Chapter Two (2.5) revealed tha given the availability of physical resources, th personnel for various specialised tasks and a well designed programme of activities, education require the services of qualified and competent administrators The suggestions offered in Chapter Six (6.3.2.3 emphasise this point. As administration is a important role and skill activity, it is logical tha for administrators to perform their tasks adequatel they need to acquire a professional approach which i rooted in knowledge as its foundation and commitment a its motive. The need for preparation fo administrative roles was acknowledged by variou categories of administrators in KwaZulu (See Section 6.3.2.1, 6.3.2.2 and 6.3.2.3).

It is recommended that a programme be initiated t fulfil the need for preparation of administrators i the categories where this need has been expresse (6.3.2.1 and 6.3.2.2). It is further suggested tha the programme be issue- and case-based and be adapte to the respective task areas of the target groups. Th themes that could be considered for incorporatio include organisational theory, leadership, functions o administration, programme planning, goal setting

conflict management, human relations, motivation, tea management, problem solving and communication.

An in-service programme for educational administrator requires careful planning and timing in order to reac its clientele without disrupting other activities. Th design should pay particular attention to the natur and sequence of activities, the span of the programme the physical facilities required, the implementatio strategy, the programme methodology, appraisa procedures, and co-ordination of the programme wit similar endeavours referred to earlier (8.2.2.7.3).

8.3.2 Role Descriptions

It is recommended that role guides be prepared and b made available to education officers from the school t the regional levels. This study revealed varied rol perceptions held by school principals (Table 10.5(a)) circuit inspectors (Table 10.5(b)) and some educatio officers within the same division (7.3.7.3). Thi points to the need for a clear written role requiremen for each education officer. With regard to the Guid for Principals of Schools referred to in Chapter Si (6.2), it was pointed out that this manual was compile with recourse to the Bantu Education Act (Act 47 o 1953) and the regulations relating thereto.

Compilation of a role guide as an institutiona blueprint for each educational administrator is base on the understanding that administration can be carrie out satisfactorily if the role functions are delineate clearly. A role description can also help prospective incumbent to know what he is expected to d to perform the role successfully. It is, therefore recommended that a role guide for each category o officers referred to above should include two majo elements. The first element could be analysis o precise duties to be performed as well as specia features of the position, such as areas of authority relationships with other positions, and liaiso functions. The second element could include persona requirements such as preparation, experience an skills. Personal requirements could serve as th selection criteria. This point is supported by recommendation in Chapter Six (6.3.2.3).

8.3.3 Effective Communication of Official Information

The investigator has observed that certain problems ar experienced regarding the relay of Departmenta directives and other official decisions from th KwaZulu Government to subordinate levels o administration in education. It is reasonable t expect that important documents such as pieces o

legislation, government notices, annual reports ar announcements regarding educational goals ar priorities will be communicated to various inspectic circuits and schools where they will be acted on. Thi study revealed that between 1972 and 1979 the KwaZul Government determined educational goals and prioritie for its client community (4.4.1). In the opinion c the investigator information about such goals ar priorities has always not filtered to the school level This study also revealed that 50% of the responder principals were not aware of the existence of the Guic for Principals of schools (6.3.2.1).

It is, therefore, recommended that reliable means b devised at the Departmental level for the communicatic of official information to other levels. It is furthe recommended that occasional sessions be held wher principals and circuit inspectors would consider way of translating official directives into programmes c action. These sessions are likely to provide th understanding and sense of direction which educatic officers need for their co-operation. They will als provide an opportunity for feedback on problem regarding implementation of official decisions.

8.3.4 Provision for Staffing

Inadequate staffing in Black education should be regarded as a national issue which could be addressed through changes in the financial provision for education. The problem of under-staffing in KwaZulu was referred to in Chapter Three (3.3.4) and illustrated in Chapter Six (Tables 9.1(e) and 9.1(f)) In Chapter Seven (Tables 10.6(a) and 10.6(c)) it was revealed that under-staffing at school is perceived by both inspectors and principals of schools as the major problem. It is, however, essential that the problem of under-provision and resultant under-staffing be isolated from what the KwaZulu Department of Education and Culture could do in terms of distribution and utilisation of existing resources. Responses in Chapter Seven (7.3.5.1) revealed that no staffing formula has been worked out in respect of the teaching personnel, middle management and clerical services in KwaZulu schools. As a result there is no yardstick that could be used to determine whether a given school is under-staffed, adequately staffed or over-staffed.

It is recommended that a staffing formula be determined to apply to schools in accordance with the school category, the size of enrolment and curricular offerings. Since a substantial fraction of the KwaZulu

education budget has to be devoted to staffing in th form of salaries and collateral benefits, the staffin formula would ensure that available financial and huma resources are equitably distributed.

8.3.5 Induction of New Teachers

Employment as a teacher is basically the entry poin for one's professional appointment in the department o education in KwaZulu and elsewhere in South Africa This makes teaching practice an important phase in th development of acceptable attitudes and behaviou patterns of individuals. It is probably at th beginning of one's service as a teacher that one need more organisational socialisation, guidance, suppor and understanding than in other phases of one' teaching career.

In Chapter Seven (Tables 10.6(a) and 10.6(c)) mentio was made of a number of teacher-related behavioura problems with regard to co-operation, commitment discipline, dishonesty, disloyalty, discipline motivation, abuse of alcohol and politica disorientation. Responses to Sections 7.3.4.1 an 7.3.4.2 reflected a lack of procedure for inducting ne teachers. Consequently only sporadic attempts a inducting school personnel were cited. The inferenc

that could be drawn from these responses is that t absence of planned induction of teachers cou contribute to the problem of adjustment to the work be performed, the environment in which it is performe the colleagues with whom it is performed, and t authority under which it is performed.

It is recommended that an induction programme designed for KwaZulu teachers. It is essential th new teachers be provided with first-hand creditab information relating to their specific dutie standards of performance, school personnel, acceptab behaviour patterns, conditions of employment, sala and other aspects of remuneration, administrati procedures, interpersonal relations, communi traditions and taboos, and opportunities f advancement and self-development. It is hoped that t process will serve to promote the individual's person development, security, self-discipline, sense belonging, ability to succeed and satisfaction. It further recommended that the induction process school-based and that co-ordination of the inducti activities be the responsibility of the inspecti circuit.

8.3.6 Ward-Based Supervision

Responses in Chapter Seven (7.3.2.2) suggest that th work of ward inspectors is associated wit instructional supervision which takes the form c visits to schools. It is understandable that thes visits should involve the task of motivating encouraging, advising and guiding teachers with regar to various aspects of the instructional process an environment. The problems identified in Chapter Seve (Table 10.6(c)) emphasise the importance of supervisio with regard to teaching personnel.

It has, however, been observed that because of problem of under-staffing at circuit offices, ward inspector cannot visit schools as often as it is desired. Thi means that school-based supervision cannot be attende to satisfactorily. Moreover, as a rule, war inspectors are responsible for mixed assignments o instructional supervision and administration. Becaus of administrative responsibilities they are required t spend time at circuit offices. As a result they canno give direct and extensive instructional assistanc required for the improvement of teaching.

It is recommended that the role of ward inspector should emphasise the function of professional guidanc

and supervision of teaching personnel. It is further suggested that this professional function be ward- and group-based. This will enable the ward inspectors to work with a number of teachers at the same time. The ward-based supervision lends itself to a workshop situation, where teachers could identify different areas where assistance is needed. The ward inspector assisted by leading teachers and subject specialists could help teachers in dealing with such matters as instructional objectives, work programmes, teaching-learning materials, pupil problems, remedial work, latest approaches to teaching, exchange of skills among teachers, setting of performance standards, and in-service programmes for teachers. The idea of a ward inspector as a 'moving teacher's college' and a resource person could help to improve the quality of teaching and learning in the face of limited staffing.

8.3.7 <u>Collaboration with Auxiliary Services</u>

In Chapters Four (Figure 3) and Seven (7.4.3) reference was made to auxiliary services such as psychological services, library services, subject advisory services, language and cultural services and academic planning services. Responses in Section 7.4.3 indicated that there is lack of meaningful collaboration with respect to these service units at the head office. As all

these auxiliary services have a bearing on the schoo programme, it follows that there is a need fo workable collaboration at the regional level. It is therefore, recommended that a co-ordinating strategy b devised for regions to have the staff of auxiliar services hold planned consultative discussions wit inspectors and school principals. These discussion could help to clarify and promote the functioning o these service agencies in respect of the educationa programme.

8.3.8 Investigation of Problems Attendant to Discipline Schooling

Although the issue of pupil behaviour did not feature prominently in the ranking of administrative problems by the circuit inspectors and school principals (cf Tables 10.6(a) and 10.6(c)) reference was made to general problems of discipline and school unrest. The investigator is aware of the problem which pertains to punctuality, school attendance and disciplined use of time by pupils. The KwaZulu schools in certain areas face the problem of erratic school attendance. The common sight of uniformed school-going pupils in town centres and bus ranks during and after school hours is a striking contrast to the experiences of inadequate school facilities, staff shortages and other problems

which make time an extremely important resource Another problem which relates to school attendance ha to do with pupils who travel distances by buses an other means, leaving behind schools which offer th same programmes.

It is recommended that an investigation be conducte into the causes and incidence of erratic attendance an its impact on school work. When the findings are mad known it will be possible to devise means to instil culture of learning and discipline in pupils.

8.4 Conclusion

The study sought to analyse and evaluate educationa administration in KwaZulu. To accomplish this task i was necessary to identify the generic functions o: administration and to examine their application i: KwaZulu. Evaluation of administration had to take int account the use of formulated criteria and constraint: of the KwaZulu system of education. The findings conclusions and recommendations contained in thi: chapter are suggested for consideration for th improvement of educational administration in the area.

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APPENDIX A

UMNYANGO WEMFUNDO
NAMASIKO

DEPARTMENT OF EDUCAT
AND CULT

DEPARTEMENT VAN ONDERWYS EN KULTUUR

Ikheli Locingo Telegraphic Address Telegrafiese Adres	INKANYISO	Isikhwama Seposi Private Bag Privaatsak	X04 Ulundi.	Ucingo Telephone Telefoon	0358-203603
Imibuzo Enquiries Navrae	W.G. Harper (Mr)	Usuku Date Datum	1988 . 09 . 01	Inkomba Reference Verwysing	8/2

Mr R.V. Gabela
Senior Lecturer : Department of Educational Planning
and Administration
University of Zululand
Private Bag X1001
KWADLANGEZWA.
3886.

Sir

1. Your submission of 1988.08.29 has reference.

2. The Department of Education and Culture has given positive consideration to your request to do research into the administration of Education in KwaZulu and permission is granted for the implementation of the project.

3. The Department wishes you every success in your endeavour.

Yours faithfully

SECRETARY FOR EDUCATION AND CULTURE.
WGH/tnd.

APPENDIX B

University of Zululand

Universiteit van Zoeloeland

Private Bag X1001
Privaatsak
KWADLANGEZWA 3886
South Africa
(0351) 93911
'Unizul'
SA 631311
FAX (0351) 93735

Ref./Verw.

12 April 1990

Dear ----------

Your are in possession of very important information which can be of great assistance to educational administration in KwaZulu, if you are willing to help with the matter. Today when the value of education is so much in evidence and its improvement so urgent, much attention has to be given to administration as the machinery to bring about stability, change and improvement. You are in a position to give valuable information about the present state of administration. Once this information has been obtained and processed it will be possible for certain needs to come out clearly for attention. You will probably agree with me that, nothwithstanding talks about inadequacies relating to staffing, financing and so on, educational administration in KwaZulu has not as yet been evaluated extensively from school to head office. The research study entitled "An Evaluative Analysis of Educational Administration in KwaZulu", has been designed to carry out this evaluation.

It is because of importance of administration in education at various levels, that I have decided to ask your assistance in gathering information. All I request from you is to answer the questionnaire attached hereto, and to return it to me in the enclosed self-addressed envelope. I am aware that your position demands that you remain busy the whole day and the questionnaire may seem necessarily long. I request that you you work on it in stages that suit your time schedule and return it completed by 22 June 1990. Please read introductory statements or instructions carefully before answering questions.

The research study has been endorsed by the KwaZulu Department of Education and Culture (See enclosed letter) and two interested Universities, namely, Zululand and Durban-Westville, as being valuable for administration. This makes your contribution as education officer very essential, relevant and significant. The questionnaire requires you to state your opinion,

preferences, attitude or way of doing things as they are. There are no right or wrong answers. It is, therefore, important that all questions be answered either briefly or elaborately as you choose. You do not have to write or sign your name on the questionnaire. The information you provide will be treated with strictest confidentiality and processed as part of assimilated results.

You are requested to furnish the required answer either by indicating an answer with a cross (X) or by writing as directed. If you are not able to reach a decision on a particular item, go on to the next item. Come back later to those items you have skipped.

Thank you for your assistance.

R.V. GABELA
SENIOR LECTURER
DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATIONAL PLANNING AND ADMINISTRATION

PHONE NUMBERS: 0351-93753 HOME
0351-93911 EXT 20235 (WORK)

QUESTIONNAIRE TO PRINCIPALS

Indicate your answer to items by means of a cross (X) in the appropriate block. Some items require written answers/suggestions/recommendations/ comments.

SECTION A

1. YOUR PERSONAL PARTICULARS

1.1 Sex:

male	female

1.2 Age in years:

under 30	30-39	40-49	50-59	60 upwards

1.3 Highest academic qualifications.

Matric		B.Ed	
Degree courses		M.Ed	
Degree		MA/M.Com/M.Sc.	
Honours		Doctorate	
Other (specify)			

1.4 State your professional qualifications.

1.5 How long have you been in the teaching profession?

0-5 yrs	6-10 yrs	11-15 yrs	16-20 yrs	over 20 yrs

1.6 Experience in years as principal.

0-5 yrs	6-10 yrs	11-15 yrs	16-20 yrs	over 20 yrs

1.7 Category of your school:

Lower primary	Higher primary	Combined primary	Junior secondary	Senior secondary

1.8 State the number of staff members in each one of the following categories:

Departmental heads (vice-principals)	Departmental heads (school subjects)	Other teachers	School clerks

SECTION B

2. PREPARATION FOR HEADSHIP

2.1 Principals should undergo a course in educational administration to be equipped for their role.

Strongly agree	Agree	Undecided	Disagree	Strongly disagree

2.1.1 Is such a course offered for principals in your educational system?

Yes	No

2.1.2 What suggestions/comments would you like to make in this regard?

2.2 A principal should upon appointment undergo an induction programme to prepare for the responsibilities of principalship.

Strongly agree	Agree	Undecided	Disagree	Strongly disagree

2.2.1 Does such induction take place in your educational system?

Yes	No

2.2.2 What suggestions/recommendations can you make regarding induction?

2.3 Principals should study textual material on educational administratio to be effective in their role performance.

Strongly agree	Agree	Undecided	Disagree	Strongly disagree

2.3.1 Have you undertaken such a study?

Yes	No

2.3.2 If "yes" briefly describe the nature of the study.

2.3.3 If "no" give reasons.

2.3.4 What further comments/suggestions have you to make regarding the study of educational administration ?

2.4 The employing department should have a role to play in the training of principals?

Strongly agree	Agree	Undecided	Disagree	Strongly disagree

2.4.1 Does your Department play such a role?

Yes	No

2.4.2 What comments/suggestions can you make in this respect?

2.5 The inspector in charge of the area (Circuit Inspector) should arrange for a preparatory course for principals.

Strongly agree	agree	Undecided	Disagree	Strongly disagree

2.5.1 Does the inspector in charge of your area (Circuit Inspector) arrange for such a course?

Yes	No

2.5.2 If "yes" briefly describe the nature of the course.

2.5.3 Further comments/suggestions in this connection.

2.6 Principals should take every opportunity to attend seminars/ workshops on educational administration.

Strongly agree	Agree	Undecided	Disagree	Strongly disagree

2.6.1 Do you attend such seminars/workshops?

Yes	No

2.6.2 If "no" give reasons.

2.6.3 What comments/suggestions can you make in this regard?

2.7 Principals should have at their disposal manuals for administering schools.

Strongly agree	Agree	Undecided	Disagree	Strongly disagree

2.7.1 Are there such manuals available to you?

Yes	No

2.7.2 What are your suggestions/recommendations on this matter?

2.8 The success of the school is in its educational programme hinges on the administrative skills (technical, human and conceptual) of principals.

Strongly agree	Agree	Undecided	Disagree	Strongly disagree

2.8.1 To what extent do you consider yourself to be in possession of the above skills? Use the following rating to indicate extent for each:

	Very high	High	Moderate	Low	None
Technical (e.g. rules, procedures, routine)					
Human (e.g. relating/ working with people)					
Conceptual (e.g. knowledge, creativity, ideas)					

2.8.2 What comments/suggestions can you make in this connection?

2.9 Additional comments/suggestions in respect of preparation for principalship.

SECTION C

3. TEACHING AND ADMINISTRATION

3.1 A principal should supervise the teaching activities of the staff (e.g. class visits, control of pupils' work and conference with individual teachers).

Strongly agree	Agree	undecided	Disagree	Strongly disagree

3.1.1 Do you find enough time to carry on this supervision?

Yes	No

3.1.2 If "no" why?

3.1.3 What further comments/suggestions can you make in this regard?

3.2 A principal should carry a classroom teaching load (e.g. teaching a subject, testing and marking).

Strongly agree	Agree	Undecided	Disagree	Strongly disagree

3.2.1 Do you have a teaching load?

Yes	No

3.2.2 If "no" give reasons.

3.2.3 Further comments/suggestions on this matter.

3.3 A principal should take personal care of school records (e.g. finance, stock, pupil enrolment, correspondence and official publications).

Strongly agree	Agree	Undecided	Disagree	Strongly disagree

3.3.1 Do you personally attend to these matters?

Yes	No

3.3.2 Further suggestions/recommendations to make.

3.4 A principal should attend personally to the school physical facilities (e.g. maintenance and procurement of grounds, buildings, equipment and teaching materials).

Strongly agree	Agree	Undecided	Disagree	Strongly disagree

3.4.1 Do you personally attend to these needs?

Yes	No

3.4.2 If "no" give reasons.

3.4.3 What further comments/suggestions can you make in this regard?

3.5 A principal should devote considerable attention to pupil welfare (e.g. attendance, interests, characteristics and problems).

Strongly agree	Agree	Undecided	Disagree	Strongly disagree

3.5.1 Do you find it practicable to attend to these pupil needs?

Yes	No

3.5.2 If "no" give reasons for your answer.

3.5.3 What further suggestions/recommendations can you make in this case?

3.6 A principal should liaise regularly with the parents of the school (e.g. communicating and arranging meetings with them).

Strongly agree	Agree	Undecided	Disagree	Strongly disagree

3.6.1 Do you engage in liaison in the desired manner?

Yes	No

3.6.2 Further comments/suggestions on this point.

3.7 A principal should liaise with educational interest groups (e.g. teachers' associations, economic sector and community organisations)

Strongly agree	Agree	Undecided	Disagree	Strongly disagree

3.7.1 Do you carry out such liaison?

Yes	No

3.7.2 If "no" gve reasons.

3.7.3 What further suggestions/recommendations can you make regarding this matter?

3.8 A principal should keep regular contact with departmental inspectors.

Strongly agree	Agree	Undecided	Disagree	Strongly disagree

3.8.1 Do you keep contact with the desired frequency?

Yes	No

3.8.2 If "no" give reasons.

3.8.3 Further comments/suggestions in this regard.

SECTION D

4. THE PROCESS OF ADMINISTRATION

4.1 The principal and staff should work out the plan of school activities at the beginning of each year (e.g. curricular and extra-curricular activities).

Extremely important	Very important	Somewhat important	Of little importance	Of no importance

4.1.1 Is such a plan produced at your school?

Yes	No

4.1.2 If "yes" what are the main features/points of the plan?

4.1.3 If "no" to 4.1.1 give reasons.

4.1.4 Further comments/suggestions on planning.

4.2 The principal and staff should consult with interested parties (e.g. parents and inspectors) for their input into the plan of school activities.

Extremely important	Very important	Somewhat important	Of little importance	Of no importance

4.2.1 Is there such consultation at your school?

Yes	No

4.2.2 If "yes" briefly explain the procedure.

4.2.3 If "no" give reasons.

4.2.4 What further comments/suggestions can you make in this connection?

4.3 The principal and staff should work out the manner in which the school work is to be distributed among them (e.g. curricular, extra-curricular and administrative assignments).

Extremely important	Very important	Somewhat important	Of little importance	Of no importance

4.3.1 Is such an arrangement operating at your school?

Yes	No

4.3.2 If "yes" briefly explain the procedure.

4.3.3 If "no" give reasons.

4.3.4 What further comments/suggestions can you make on this case?

4.4 The principal and staff should arrange for staff members to take charge of different activities within their respective spheres of competence.

Extremely important	Very important	Somewhat important	Of little importance	Of no importance

4.4.1 Does this kind of staff assignment take place at your school?

Yes	No

4.4.2 If "yes" give examples of its operation.

4.4.3 If "no" give reasons.

4.4.4 What comments/suggestions would you like to make on the matter?

4.5 The principal and staff should arrange for members of staff to be kept informed about what other staff members are doing in their respective tasks.

Extremely important	Very important	Somewhat important	Of little importance	Of no importance

4.5.1 Does such relay of information take place at your school?

Yes	No

4.5.2 If "yes" briefly outline the procedure.

4.5.3 If "no" give reasons.

4.5.4 Any further comments/suggestions to make on this point?

4.6 The principal and staff should devote time to the discussion of Department policy procedures and regulations.

Extremely important	Very important	Somewhat important	Of little importance	Of no importance

4.6.1 Do you hold such discussions at your school?

Yes	No

4.6.2 If "yes" give some instances where these discussions have been helpful.

4.6.3 If "no" give reasons.

4.6.4 Further comments/suggestions on this matter.

4.7 A principal should arrange for the induction of new members of staff.

Extremely important	Very important	Somewhat important	Of little importance	Of no importance

4.7.1 Do you arrange for such induction at your school?

Yes	No

4.7.2 If "yes" briefly explain the procedure.

4.7.3 If "no" give reasons.

4.7.4 Further comments/suggestions on this issue.

4.8 A principal should have sessions with individual teachers to discuss professional matters (e.g. classroom activities, personal needs, professional development and responsibility).

Extremely important	Very important	Somewhat important	Of little importance	Of no importance

4.8.1 Do you conduct such sessions?

Yes	No

4.8.2 If "yes" briefly explain the procedure.

4.8.3 If "no" give reasons.

4.8.4 What further comments/suggestions do you have to make in this regard?

4.9 A principal should be responsible for staffing at his school (e.g. recommending posts and post structure, selection and recommendation of incumbents.)

Extremely important	Very important	Somewhat important	Of little importance	Of no importance

4.9.1 Do you exercise this responsibility at your school?

Yes	No

4.9.2 If "yes" how do you exercise it?

4.9.3 If "no" give reasons.

4.9.4 What further suggestions/recommendations can you make on this matter?

4.10 A principal should have a role to play in the determination of a staffing formula regarding schools in his educational system (e.g. suggested posts and post structure based on the category and size of school).

Extremely important	Very important	Somewhat important	Of little importance	Of no importance

4.10.1 Are you given this opportunity?

Yes	No

4.10.2 If "yes" briefly explain the nature of your involvement.

4.10.3 What further comments/suggestions would you like to make?

4.11 The principal and staff should work out a structured agenda for meetings to provide for reporting on progress in school activities.

Extremely important	Very important	Somewhat important	Of little importance	Of no importance

4.11.1 Does such co-operative agenda structuring operate at your school?

Yes	No

4.11.2 If "yes" explain what it covers.

4.11.3 If "no" give reasons.

4.11.4 What further comments/suggestions can you make in this regard?

4.12 The principal and staff should together identify criteria according to which the work of individual staff members should be checked.

Extremely important	Very important	Somewhat important	Of little importance	Of no importance

4.12.1 Are such criteria identified jointly at your school?

Yes	No

4.12.2 If "yes" give a brief outline of them.

4.12.3 If "no" give reasons.

4.12.4 What further comments/suggestions can you make?

4.13 The principal and staff should arrange for a detailed review of school work in the course of the year.

Extremely important	Very important	Somewhat important	Of little importance	Of no importance

4.13.1 Do you conduct such reviews at your school?

Yes	No

4.13.2 What further comments/suggestions can you make in this connection?

4.14 The principal and staff should provide for a detailed evaluation of the year's work for adjustment, correction or improvement in the following year.

Extremely important	Very important	Somewhat important	Of little importance	Of no importance

4.14.1 Do you hold such an evaluation session at your school?

Yes	No

4.14.2 If "yes" briefly explain the procedure.

4.14.3 If "no" give reasons.

4.14.4 What further comments/suggestions can you make on this matter?

SECTION E

5. GENERAL

5.1 Arrange in order of importance (to you) five most important tasks which you associate with the administration of the school.

1.
2.
3.
4.
5.

5.2 Arrange in order of importance (to you) five major problems with which the administration of the school is beset.

1.
2.
3.
4.
5.

5.3 Any further comments on the administration of education in KwaZulu?

THANK YOU FOR YOUR CO-OPERATION

APPENDIX D

QUESTIONNAIRE TO CIRCUIT INSPECTORS

Indicate your answer to items by means of a cross (X) in the appropriate block. Some items require written answers/suggestions/recommendations/ comments.

SECTION A

1. YOUR PERSONAL PARTICULARS

1.1 Sex

male	female

1.2 Age in years

under 30	30-39	40-49	50-59	60 upwards

1.3 Highest academic qualifications.

Matric		B.Ed	
Degree courses		M.Ed	
Degree		MA/M.Com/M.Sc.	
Honours		Doctorate	
Other (Specify)			

1.4 State your professional qualifications.

1.5 How long have you been in the teaching profession?

0 - 10 yrs	11 - 15 yrs	16 - 20 yrs	over 20 yrs

1.6 Experience in years as inspector.

0 - 5 yrs	6 - 10 yrs	11 - 15 yrs	over 20 yrs

1.7 Experience in years as circuit inspector.

0 - 5 yrs	6 - 10 yrs	11 - 15 yrs	over 20 yrs

SECTION B

2. PREPARATION FOR INSPECTORSHIP

2.1 Inspectors should undergo a course in educational administration to be equipped for their role:

Strongly agree	Agree	Undecided	Disagree	Strongly disagree

2.1.1 Is there such a course offered for inspectorship in your educational system?

Yes	No

2.1.2 What comments/suggestions would you like to make in this regard?

2.2 An inspector should upon appointment undergo an induction programme to prepare for the responsibilities of inspectorship.

Strongly agree	Agree	Undecided	Disagree	Strongly disagree

2.2.1 Does such induction take place in your educational system?

Yes	No

2.2.2 What suggestions/recommendations can you make regarding induction?

2.3 Inspectors should study educational administration to be effective in their role performance:

Strongly agree	Agree	Undecided	Disagree	Strongly disagree

2.3.1 Do inspectors undertake such a study in your educational system?

Yes	No

2.3.2 What comments/suggestions can you make on this point?

2.4 The employing department should offer a training programme for inspectors.

Strongly agree	Agree	Undecided	Disagree	Strongly disagree

2.4.1 Does your department offer such a programme?

Yes	No

2.4.2 What comments/suggestions can you make in this respect?

2.5 The inspector in charge of the area (e.g. Circuit Inspector) should arrange for a preparatory course for beginning inspectors.

Strongly agree	Agree	Undecided	Disagree	Strongly disagree

2.5.1 Do beginning inspectors go through such a course in your circuit?

Yes	No

2.5.2 What comments/suggestions have you to make in this connection?

2.6 Inspectors should take every opportunity to attend seminars/ workshops on educational administration.

Strongly agree	Agree	Undecided	Disagree	Strongly disagree

2.6.1 Do inspectors attend such seminars/workshops?

Yes	No

2.6.2 What comments/suggestions can you make in this regard?

2.7 Inspectors should have at their disposal manuals for conducting their work.

Strongly agree	Agree	Undecided	Disagree	Strongly disagree

2.7.1 Are there such manuals available to inspectors?

Yes	No

2.7.2 What are your suggestions/recommendations on this matter?

2.8 The success of the circuit in its educational programme hinges on the administrative skills (technical, human and conceptual) of the Circuit Inspector.

Strongly agree	Agree	Undecided	Disagree	Strongly disagree

2.8.1 To what extent do you consider yourself to be in possession of the above skills? Use the following rating:

	Very high	High	Moderate	Low	None
Technical (e.g. rules, procedures, routine)					
Human (e.g. relating/working with people)					
Conceptual (e.g. knowledge, creativity, ideas)					

2.8.2 What comments/suggestions can you make in this connection?

2.9 Additional comments/suggestions in respect of preparation for inspectorship:

SECTION C

3. THE PROCESS OF ADMINISTRATION

3.1 The circuit inspector and his team of inspectors should work out their plan of activities at the beginning of each year.

Extremely important	Very important	Somewhat important	Of little importance	Of no importance

3.1.1 Is such a plan produced in your circuit?

Yes	No

3.1.2 If "yes" what are the main features/points of the plan?

3.1.3 If "no" to 3.1.1 give reasons.

3.2 The circuit inspector and team should assess the needs/problems of schools within the circuit as a basis for planning.

Extremely important	Very important	Somewhat important	Of little importance	Of no importance

3.2.1 Do you and your team assess the need/problems relating to schools in your circuit?

Yes	No

3.2.2 What comments/suggestions you would like to make in this connection?

3.3 The circuit inspector and team should consult with interested parties (e.g. principals) for their input into the plan of activitie of the inspectorate.

Extremely important	Very important	Somewhat important	Of little importance	Of no importance

3.3.1 Is there such consultation in your circuit?

Yes	No

3.3.2 What comments/suggestions can you make on this point?

3.4 The circuit inspector and team should work out the manner in which the work of the inspectorate is to be distributed among them.

Extremely important	Very important	Somewhat important	Of little importance	Of no importance

3.4.1 Is such an arrangement operating in your circuit?

Yes	No

3.4.2 If "yes" briefly explain the procedure.

3.4.3 What comments/suggestions have you to make in this case?

3.5 The circuit inspector and team should arrange for members of the inspectorate to undertake activities which match their respective spheres of competence.

extremely important	Very important	Somewhat important	Of little importance	Of no importance

3.5.1 Does staff assignment take place in your circuit according to individual strengths?

Yes	No

3.5.2 If "yes" give examples of its operation.

3.5.3 What comments/suggestions have you to make on the matter?

3.6 The circuit inspector and team should arrange for members of the inspectorate to be kept informed about what their colleagues are doing in their respective tasks.

Extremely important	Very important	Somewhat important	Of little importance	Of no importance

3.6.1 Does such relay of information take place in your circuit?

Yes	No

3.6.2 If "yes" briefly outline the procedure.

3.6.3 What comments/suggestions have you to make on this point?

3.7 The circuit inspector and team should devote sufficient time to discussion with school principals of department policy, procedures and regulations.

Extremely important	Very important	Somewhat important	Of little importance	Of no importance

3.7.1 Do you hold such discussions in your circuit?

Yes	No

3.7.2 If "yes" give some instances where these discussions have been helpful.

3.7.3 What further comments have you to make?

3.8 A circuit inspector should keep in touch with other departmental officials (e.g. other circuit inspectors and seniors).

Extremely important	Very important	Somewhat important	Of little importance	Of no importance

3.8.1 Does such contact take place in your case?

Yes	No

3.8.2 If "yes" briefly state the matters which bring you together.

3.8.3 What further comments would you like to make?

3.9 A circuit inspector should arrange for the induction of newly appointed teachers (e.g. new principals and beginning teachers).

Extremely important	Very important	Somewhat important	Of little importance	Of no importance

3.9.1 Do you arrange such inductions?

Yes	No

3.9.2 If "yes" briefly explain the procedure.

3.9.3 If "no" give reasons.

3.9.4 What further comments/suggestions you would like to make regarding this matter?

3.10 A circuit inspector should take responsibility to provide guidance to school teachers regarding educational and organisational matters.

Extremely important	Very important	Somewhat important	Of little importance	Of no importance

3.10.1 Do you arrange for such guidance in your circuit?

Yes	No

3.10.2 If "yes" explain how this guidance is given.

3.10.3 What are your comments/suggestions in this regard?

3.11 A circuit inspector should help teachers in his circuit to pursue self-development.

Extremely important	Very important	Somewhat important	Of little importance	Of no importance

3.11.1 Do you offer such help to teachers in your circuit?

Yes	No

3.11.2 If "yes" how do you go about helping teachers?

3.11.3 If "no" give reasons.

3.11.4 What suggestions/recommendations do you have to make in this respect?

3.12 The circuit inspector and staff should conduct surveys on staffing requirements for schools.

Extremely important	Very important	Somewhat important	Of little importance	Of no importance

3.12.1 Do you conduct such surveys in your circuit?

Yes	No

3.12.2 If "yes" explain how this is done.

3.12.3 If "no" state the reasons.

3.12.4 What further comments/suggestions do you have to make on this matter?

3.13 A circuit inspector should have a role to play in the determination of a staffing formula regarding schools in his educational system (e.g. suggested posts and post structure based on the category and size of school).

Extremely important	Very important	Somewhat important	Of little importance	Of no importance

3.13.1 Do you participate in such an exercise?

Yes	No

3.13.2 If "no" state your reasons.

3.13.3 What comments/suggestions can you make in this connection?

3.14 A circuit inspector should monitor through inspectors the administration of schools and the instructional activities.

Extremely important	Very important	Somewhat important	Of little importance	Of no importance

3.14.1 Does this monitoring take place in your circuit?

Yes	No

3.14.2 If "yes" briefly explain the procedure.

3.14.3 What further comments/suggestions can you make?

3.15 The circuit inspector and team should identify criteria according to which aspects of school work should be checked.

Extremely important	Very important	Somewhat important	Of little importance	Of no importance

3.15.1 Are such criteria identified in your circuit?

Yes	No

3.15.2 If "yes" give a brief outline of them.

3.15.3 What further comments/suggestions would you like to make?

3.16 The circuit inspector and team should arrange for a detailed review of the work of the inspectorate in the course of the year.

Extremely important	Very important	Somewhat important	Of little importance	Of no importance

3.16.1 Is such a review conducted in your circuit?

Yes	No

3.16.2 If "yes" briefly explain the procedure.

3.16.3 If "no" state the reasons.

3.16.4 What further comments/suggestions can you make in this connection?

3.17 The circuit inspector and staff should arrange for a detailed evaluation of the year's work for the inspectorate to make adjustment, correction or improvement in the schools.

Extremely important	Very important	Somewhat important	Of little importance	Of no importance

3.17.1 Is such evaluation held in your circuit?

Yes	No

3.17.2 If "yes" briefly explain the procedure.

3.17.3 If "no" give reasons.

3.17.4 What further comments/suggestions can you make on this matter?

3.18 The circuit inspector and team should hold conferences with principals at the end of the year to evaluate the administration of schools and instructional activities.

Extremely important	Very important	Somewhat important	Of little importance	Of no importance

3.18.1 Are such conferences held in your circuit?

Yes	No

3.18.2 If "yes" briefly explain the procedure.

3.18.3 If "no" give reasons.

3.18.4 What further comments/suggestions to make regarding this matter?

SECTION D

4. **GENERAL**

4.1 Arrange in order of importance (to you) five most important tasks which you associate with the role of the circuit inspector.

1.

2.

3.

4.

5.

4.2 Arrange in order to importance (to you) five major problems with which the work of the inspectorate is beset.

1.

2.

3.

4.

5.

4.3 Further comments on administration of education in KwaZulu:

THANK YOU FOR YOUR CO-OPERATION

INTERVIEW SCHEDULE FOR SECRETARY/DIRECTORS/ASSISTANT DIRECTORS

(PARTLY STRUCTURED, PARTLY OPEN-ENDED)

SECTION A

1. PERSONAL PARTICULARS

1.1 Your designation

1.2 Your job description

1.3 What educational preparation can you cite in respect of yourself under the following:

1.3.1 Academic and professional qualifications before assumption of present post?

1.3.2 Academic and professional qualifications after assumption of present post?

1.3.3 Other forms of work-related exposure (specify)?

1.4 Can you give a short description of your work experience with regard to to the following:

1.4.1 School experience?

1.4.2 Inspectorate service?

1.4.3 Other?

SECTION B

2. PREPARATION FOR ADMINISTRATIVE ROLES

2.1 The following education officers perform administrative roles in your educational system: Principal, Circuit Inspector, Assistant Director, Director and Secretary. With regard to successive positions you have held, what would you recommend for the incumbent of each:

2.1.1 As general preparation?

2.1.2 As specific preparation?

2.2 Does the Department provide specific preparation for some or all administrative positions you have held?

YES	NO

2.2.1 If "yes" which ones?

2.2 Describe nature of the programme(s).

2.2.3 If "no" which position has not been attended?

2.2.4 What do you think should be done by the Department to enhance the role performance of the officers in the positions referred to in 2.2?

2.2.5 What do you think the officer himself should do to enhance his role performance?

2.3 Any further comments with respect to preparation?

SECTION C

3. THE PROCESS OF ADMINISTRATION

Your position suggests that you have the responsibility to provide educational leadership and direction. With specific reference to your work respond the to the following:

PLANNING

3.1 Do you work out a plan of activities that you would like to be carried out within a certain time period (e.g. from the beginning to the end of the year)?

YES	NO

3.1.1 If "yes" what are the main features/points of your plan at this moment?

3.1.2 If "no" to 3.1 would you please explain further

ORGANISING

.2 Do you work out the manner in which the work is to be distributed between you and your immediate subordinates in your section/region/department?

YES	NO

3.2.1 If "yes" briefly explain how you effect this distribution and the tasks involved.

3.2.2 If "no" to 3.2 how is work undertaken by you and your subordinates?

CO-ORDINATING

3.3 Do you find it necessary for members (subordinates) in your section/ region/department to be kept informed about what their colleagues do in their respective tasks?

YES	NO

3.3.1 If "yes" to 3.3

3.3.1.1 How is this passing of information done?

3.3.1.2 What purpose does the passing of information serve?

3.3.2 If "no" to 3.3 give reasons.

3.3.3 What kind of liaison, if any, do you establish with divisions that are similar to yours in KwaZulu or outside?

STAFFING

3.4 Do you have a role to play in staffing your section/regional/department (e.g. discerning needs for staff, selection of incumbents to posts and orientating newly appointed persons)?

YES	NO

3.4.1 If "yes" what is your exact role in this respect?

3.4.2 If "no" give reasons.

3.4.3 Any further comments you may like to make with respect to staffing?

LEADING

3.5 Does the performance of tasks in your section/region/department depend on the guidance you provide?

YES	NO

3.5.1 If "yes" in what form do you provide this guidance?

3.5.2 If "no" explain.

3.5.3 What further comments would you like to make regarding guidance?

CONTROLLING

3.6 Do you monitor the work done by the members of your section/region/department?

YES	NO

3.6.1 If "yes" how do you carry out this monitoring

3.6.2 If "no" give reasons for your answer.

3.6.3 Any further comments?

EVALUATING

3.7 Do you arrange for the review of work done in your section/region/ department in order to make adjustment, correction or improvement in the next year?

YES	NO

If "yes" briefly explain the procedure.

3.7.2 If "no" give reasons.

3.7.3 Any further comments you would like to make regarding evaluation?

SECTION D

4. GENERAL

What are your views on collaboration between your division and the following services:

4.1 Educational planning services

4.1.1 Need for collaboration?

YES	NO

4.1.2 Amount of collaboration at present?

Very high	High	Moderate	Low	Very low

4.1.3 Reasons for your answer.

4.2 Psychological services

4.2.1 Need for collaboration?

Yes	No

4.2.2 Amount of collaboration at present?

Very high	High	Moderate	Low	Very Low

4.2.3 Reasons for your answer.

4.3 Subject advisory services

4.3.1 Need for collaboration?

YES	NO

4.3.2 Amount of collaboration at present?

Very high	High	Moderate	Low	Very Low	No

4.3.3 Reasons for your answer.

4.4 Cultural Services

4.3.1 Need for collaboration?

YES	NO

4.3.2 Amount of collaboration at present?

Very high	High	Moderate	Low	Very Lo

4.4.3 Reasons for your answer.

4.5 Library services

4.5.1 Need for collaboration

YES	NO

4.5.2 Amount of collaboration at present?

Very high	High	Moderate	Low	Very low

4.5.3 Reasons for your answer ?

4.6 Any further comments regarding administration of education in KwaZulu?

THANK YOU FOR YOUR CO-OPERATION

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Ref./Verw.

1990-07-09

The Principal

Dear

RETURN OF QUESTIONNAIRE

I write this letter to request you to complete and return the questionnaire which was sent to your school during the month of May. I reckon your receipt of the said questionnaire coincided with your busy period in the year. I hope it is now possible for you to give prompt attention to this important document.

Your response is requested for as an important part of the research study entitled "An Evaluative Analysis of Educational Administration in KwaZulu." Out of a total of 450 questionnaires only 50 have been returned, that is, about 11%. This shows how important your return of the questionnaire is for this research.

I shall be grateful for a positive response to this request. If you have already filled and dispatched the questionnaire, kindly ignore this reminder.

Sincerely

R.V. GABELA
DEPT OF EDUCATIONAL PLANNING & ADMINISTRATION

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Ref./Verw.

1990-09-26

The Circuit Inspector

_____

_____

_____

Dear

RETURN OF QUESTIONNAIRE

I write this letter to request you to complete and return the questionnaire which was sent to your office during the month of June. I reckon your receipt of the said questionnaire coincided with your busy period in the year. I hope it is now possible for you to give prompt attention to this important document.

Your response is requested for as an important part of the research study entitled "An Evaluative Analysis of Educational Administration in KwaZulu." Out of a total of 25 questionnaires only 12 have been returned, that is, 48%. This shows how important your return of the questionnaire is for this research.

I shall be grateful for a positive response to this request. If you have already filled and dispatched the questionnaire, kindly ignore this reminder.

Sincerely

R V GABELA
DEPT. OF EDUCATIONAL PLANNING & ADMINISTRATION

APPENDIX H

Teachers' Diplomas/Certificates

T4	.....	Teachers' Certificate Grade 4 (Junior primary)
T3 junior	.....	Teachers' Certificate Grade 3 Junior (Senior primary)
T3senior	.....	Teachers' Certificate Grade 3 Senior (Secondary)
LPTC	.....	Lower Primary Teachers' Certificate (Junior primary)
PTC	.....	Primary Teachers' Course (Primary)
JSTC	.....	Junior Secondary Teachers' Course (Junior secondary)
SSTC	.....	Senior Secondary Teachers' Certificate (Senior secondary)
STD	.....	Secondary Teachers' Diploma (Secondary)
PTD	.....	Primary Teachers' Diploma (Primary)
SED	.....	Secondary Education Diploma (Secondary)
SSTD	.....	Senior Secondary Teachers' Diploma (Senior secondary)
UED	.....	University Education Diploma (Senior secondary)

HED ..... Higher Education Diploma
(Senior secondary)